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BOOK.**

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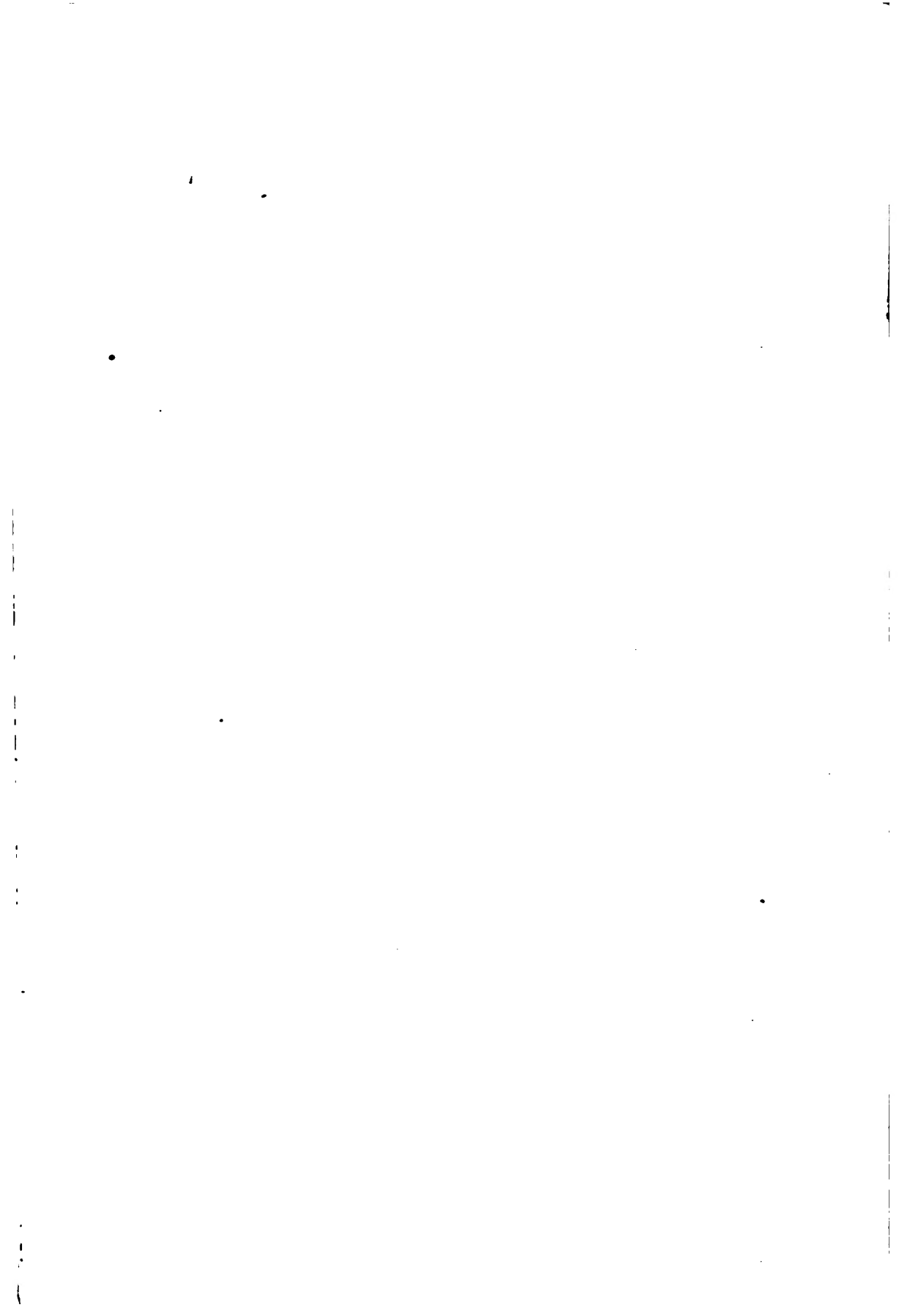
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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

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OCTOBER, 1894, TO MARCH, 1895.

Volume XX.—New Series, Volume XI.

Dr. THEODORE L. FLOOD, Editor

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~~IX.160~~
183-P138.2

183, 180 - 181
182, 183

INDEX

TO

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

VOLUME XX.

OCTOBER, 1894, TO MARCH, 1895.

REQUIRED READINGS:

Agriculture in France, Modern	<i>H. Blerry</i>	151
Astronomy, The World's Debt to	<i>Professor Simon Newcomb, LL.D.</i>	286
Austria, The Race Question in	<i>Otto Wittelskofer</i>	404
Beginning and the Ending, The	<i>Bishop John H. Vincent</i>	543
Bismarck, A Visit to Prince	<i>Sidney Whitman</i>	300
Bridges of the World, Famous	<i>Robert Jamison</i>	552
British Parliament, The	<i>Professor John W. Burgess, LL.D.</i>	17
British Soldier, The Life of a	<i>Lance Corporal Seyley</i>	515
Canals, Great	<i>A. G. Menocal</i>	295
Chemistry, The World's Debt to	<i>Professor H. B. Cornwall, Ph.D.</i>	417
Christmas Meditation, A	<i>Bishop John H. Vincent</i>	284
Christianity and English Institutions	<i>David H. Wheeler, LL.D.</i>	395
Christianity, English Morals and	<i>David H. Wheeler, LL.D.</i>	522
Christianity and English Wealth	<i>David H. Wheeler, LL.D.</i>	650
Electricity, The World's Debt to	<i>Professor John Trowbridge, Sc. D.</i>	545
French Chambers, The	<i>Professor John W. Burgess, LL.D.</i>	272
Geological Science to Man, The Value of	<i>Professor N. S. Shaler, Sc.D.</i>	170
Germans, The	<i>Sidney Whitman</i>	43
German Empire, The Legislation of the	<i>Professor John W. Burgess, LL.D.</i>	145
German Watering-Place, Glimpse of a	<i>Sidney Whitman</i>	677
Germany of To-Day, The	<i>Sidney Whitman</i>	166
Gustavus Adolphus	<i>Max Lens</i>	658
Historic Landmarks of London, Some	<i>John Gennings</i>	387
Iron Mask, The Man with the	<i>Frantz Funck-Brentano</i>	531
Kingsley's "Westward Ho!"	<i>Professor R. G. Moulton, Ph.D.</i>	548
Kossuth and Hungarian Nationality	<i>Frdéric Amouretti</i>	24
Madagascar, The Question of	<i>Maurice Ordinaire</i>	279
Medicine, The World's Debt to	<i>John S. Billings, M.D.</i>	668
Moltke, Count, Field Marshal	<i>Sidney Whitman</i>	413, 557
Newspaper Press of Europe, The	<i>H. R. Chamberlain</i>	39
Newspaper Press of the United States	<i>Franklin Matthews</i>	162
Novelists, Some Contemporary English	<i>Jeannette L. Gilder</i>	291
Painter's Art in England, The	<i>Horace Townsend</i>	259
Planets, What we Know about the	<i>Garrett P. Serviss</i>	526
Queen Victoria and Her Children	<i>S. Parkes Cadman</i>	644
Railroads, Great City	<i>Robert I. Sloan, C. E.</i>	429
Railroads in the United States, Development of	<i>Brandt Mansfield</i>	3
Science at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century	<i>Dr. Paul Carus</i>	33
Scott's "Monastery"	<i>Professor R. G. Moulton, Ph.D.</i>	424
Scott's "Woodstock"	<i>Professor R. G. Moulton, Ph.D.</i>	673
Social Life in the East End of London, Aspects of	<i>Miss S. Moody</i>	399
Social Life in England in the Eighteenth Century	<i>John Ashton</i>	138
Social Life in England in the Nineteenth Century	<i>John Ashton</i>	266
Social Life in England in the Seventeenth Century	<i>John Ashton</i>	10

Steamships in the Nineteenth Century, Develop-
ment of.....

Lieutenant Commander Uriel Sebree, U. S. N.... 131
Sunday Readings.....*Selected by Bishop Vincent.*.... 28, 157, 409, 536, 663

GENERAL READINGS:

Aromatic Drinks.....	<i>Jules Rochard</i>	579
Australia, The Growth of.....	<i>E. Reyer</i>	193
Bicycle—Its Pleasures and Perils, The.....	<i>Robert Lew Seymour</i>	703
Blue-Bonnet, The.....	<i>Charles Barnard</i>	562, 682
Boulevards, Life on the.....	<i>Thomas B. Preston</i>	58
China and Japan at War in Corea.....	<i>William Elliott Griffiths, D. D.</i>	70
Colors, How to Tell.....	<i>Marcus Benjamin, Ph.D.</i>	325
Depew, Chauncey Mitchell.....	<i>Franklin Morris</i>	694
Education of a Prince, The.....	<i>Edward Everett Hale</i>	65
Evelyn Moore's Poet.....	<i>Grant Allen</i>	305, 434
Gold, 6,000 Tons of.....	<i>Kensie Eton Kirkwood</i>	48, 175
Holmes' Health Code, Dr. Oliver Wendell.....	<i>Felix L. Oswald, M. D.</i>	321
Howard, Major General, O. O., U. S. A.....	<i>As interviewed by Herbert Johnston</i>	198
Japan, The Triumph of.....	<i>Sir Edwin Arnold</i>	449
Journalism in the Methodist Episcopal Church.....	<i>Theodore L. Flood</i>	313
Journalism in the Presbyterian and Congrega- tional Churches.....	<i>Addison P. Foster, D.D.</i>	585
Journalism of the Catholic Church in the United States.....	<i>The Rev. James J. Dunn</i>	711
Luxury—A Social Study.....	<i>M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu</i>	456
Parkhurst and His Work, Dr.....	<i>Andrew C. Wheeler</i>	573
Representatives, Leaders in the House of.....	<i>E. Jay Edwards</i>	186
Revivalists of the United States, Famous.....	<i>S. Parkes Cadman</i>	441
Russia, The New Reign in.....	<i>Victor Yarros</i>	698
Spain, Twenty Years of Modern Monarchy in.....	<i>M. Charles Benoist</i>	330
Tempests, The Laws of.....	<i>Alfred Angot</i>	707
Underground Railway in London.....	<i>A. E. Daniell, B. A.</i>	654

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE:

Afternoon Receptions in Washington.....	<i>Mrs. S. F. Parsons</i>	213
Americanism, The Revival of.....	<i>Ellen Harding Walworth</i>	336
"Best Man," The.....	<i>J. Edmund V. Cooke</i>	204
Birds of Passage.....	<i>Dr. Wilhelm Haacke</i>	603
Bismarck, Princess.....	722
British Ambulance Lectures.....	<i>M. A. Waddell Rodger</i>	86
Bunch of Wallflowers, A.....	<i>Heinrich Landsberger</i>	76
Courtship, A Sensible View of.....	<i>Lucy Barnard Cope</i>	335
Courtship, How Should Parents Regard their Children During?.....	<i>Lucy Barnard Cope</i>	203
Devil's Heart Mountain, North Dakota, A Trip to.....	<i>Eugene May, D.D.</i>	82
Duty of Young Persons to Married People, The.....	<i>Angeline Bryce Martin</i>	75
"For the Dearest.".....	<i>Emily Huntington Miller</i>	593
Germans, Women Among the Early.....	<i>Louise Prosser Bates</i>	724
George Washington, The Love Affairs of.....	<i>William E. Curtis</i>	599
Hair, the Growth and Care of the.....	<i>Dr. E. Clasen</i>	211
Lost Friend, The.....	<i>Rudolph Lindau</i>	341
Matrimonial Engagements, A Sensible View of.....	<i>Lucy Barnard Cope</i>	474
Marriage, The Sensible View of.....	<i>Lucy Barnard Cope</i>	595
Modern Cinderella, A.....	<i>Anna Hinrichs</i>	84
"Queens' Gardens".....	<i>Ruth Morse</i>	721
Snowflakes and Snowfalls.....	<i>Reinhard E. Pelermann</i>	472
Ugly Girl, The Story of an.....	<i>Miss E. F. Andrews</i>	462
Variety in Life, The Charm of.....	<i>Helen Marshall North</i>	339
White Husbands and Indian Wives.....	<i>Kate Carnes</i>	461

Women Fruit Farmers in California.....	<i>Antoinette Van Hoesen Wakeman</i>	596
Woman Pharmacist, A.....	<i>Carlotta Perry</i>	209

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK:

Chautauquan," Two Improvements in "The. 88	Perspective in Study.....	88
Christmas Proverb, A.....	Political and Religious Reform in Cities.....	476
Churches Neglecting the Poor? Are the...607	Retrospect, The Value of.....	729
C. L. S. C. for 1894-95, The.....	Somerset, Lady Henry.....	90
Communion Cup, The.....	Statement, A Special.....	728
Drama and the Novel, The.....	Tuttle, Professor Herbert.....	478
Journalism, Catholic.....	Woman's Genius in Letter-Writing.....	478
Mikado of Japan, The.....	Women Read the Newspapers, Do?.....	217
Parkhurst and his Work, Dr. Charles H....347		

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION:

Alexander III., Emperor of Russia, Death of.....	350
American Federation of Labor, Fourteenth Annual Convention of the.....	620
Army, The Concentration of the U. S.....	219
Anti-Lynching Movement.....	230
Booth in the United States, General.....	231, 361
Business Outlook, The.....	362
Burns, the English Labor Leader, Visits America, John.....	613
Business, The Revival of.....	232
Catholic Church and the Saloon, The.....	492
Catholic Church and the Liquor Question, The Roman.....	95
Chautauqua Trustees, Annual Meeting of the.....	736
Chicago Strike as Reviewed by the Federal Commission, The.....	487
Chino-Japanese War, The.....	96, 225, 490
Church Music Popular, Is Our?.....	622
Churchill, Death of Lord Randolph.....	731
College Football, The Reform of.....	486
Cotton States and International Exposition, The.....	352
Congress and the Reform of the Currency.....	610
Criminal Record of 1894, The.....	618
Currency Question, The.....	738
Death of Five Eminent Men.....	222
Debs, The Sentence and Imprisonment of Eugene V.....	617
Elections, The General.....	354
Financial and Business Outlook, The.....	99
France, The Political Crisis in.....	742
Forest Fires, The.....	97
Froude, James Anthony.....	349
Government as Reviewed by President Cleveland in his Message, the Condition and Affairs of the.....	481
Government Loan and Bond Issues, The New.....	484
Government Ownership of Railroads.....	491
Hawaii, Royalist Uprising in.....	744
Hoar, Death of Judge E. Rockford.....	732
Hypnotism, Experts in.....	616
Income Tax, Feature of the New Tariff Law, The.....	93
Ingersoll and Christianity, Colonel.....	492
Lesseps, Death of Ferdinand de.....	480
Letter, A Pastoral.....	745
Lexow Committee, Report of the.....	741
Lexow Committee's Work in New York, The.....	614
Lexow Committee in New York, Investigation of the.....	360
Louisiana Sugar Planters from the Democratic Party, Withdrawal of the.....	229
McAllister of New York, The Late Ward.....	737
McCosh, Death of Dr. James.....	479

Mormon Morals and Philosophy.....	220
Minister's Duty to the Social Fabric, The.....	231
National Irrigation Congress, The.....	221
National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, Twenty-first Annual Convention of the.....	485
New Tariff Law, The.....	91
New Tariff to Business, The Relation of the.....	94
New York Police Investigation.....	228
New York State Constitutional Convention, Work of the.....	220
Nicholas II., the New Emperor of Russia.....	351
Ocean Disaster, An Appalling.....	734
Political Conventions, Work of Nineteen.....	226
Politics and the American Protective Association.....	224
Pullman Strike, The Investigation of the.....	100
Railroads in the United States.....	491
Railroad Pool Bill, The Passage of the.....	612
Rubinstein's Death, Anton.....	479
Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Death of the.....	736
Saloons in New York, Sunday Opening of the.....	732
Secret Societies and the Catholic Church.....	622
Socialism in Germany, Repression of.....	621
Stevenson, Death of Robert Louis.....	609
Strike, The Brooklyn.....	743
Successor of the Late Professor Swing, The.....	622
Summary of News.....	102, 233, 363, 493, 623, 745
Tammany in New York City, The Downfall of.....	358
Theaters, Shall Women Wear Hats in.....	739
Thompson, Canada's Premier, The Death of Sir John.....	618
Tokio, Japan, the Fourth Largest City in the World.....	742
Unitarians Believe, What.....	231
Universal Suffrage in Belgium, First Trial of.....	360
Voting by Machinery.....	619
Without a Pastor and Without a Church.....	361
Woman's Suffrage Movement and the New York State Constitutional Convention, The.....	98
Working Day in Many Nations, A Year's.....	739
C. L. S. C. WORK :	
Classes, The C. L. S. C.....	114, 244, 373, 504, 633, 754
Class of 1895.....	114, 244, 373, 504, 633, 754
Class of 1896.....	114, 244, 374, 504, 633, 754
Class of 1897.....	114, 245, 374, 504, 633, 754
Class of 1898.....	114, 245, 374, 504, 633, 754
Classes, Graduate.....	115, 245, 374, 505, 634, 755
Local Circles.....	117, 246, 375, 505, 634, 756
Notes and Word Studies, C. L. S. C.....	104, 235, 365, 495, 625, 747
Outline and Programs, C. L. S. C.....	103, 234, 364, 494, 624, 746
Questions and Answers.....	111, 240, 370, 500, 629, 750
Question Table, The.....	113, 242, 372, 502, 631, 752
ASSEMBLIES FOR 1894, THE SUMMER.....	120, 249
TALK ABOUT BOOKS.....	125, 253, 379, 509, 637, 760

POETRY.

Blossoms.....	<i>Paul Erwin</i>	174
Coloring of the Grapes, The.....	<i>Sarah Knowles Bolton</i>	197
Conclusion, A.....	<i>W. P. Stoddard, M.A.</i>	312
Horizon Line, The.....	<i>Randall Neefus Saunders</i>	320
"I Wonder Who It Is—or Was".....	<i>Louis H. Buckshorn</i>	47
Michaelmas, At.....	<i>Martha Young</i>	338
On That First Christmas Night, A Carol.....	{ <i>Words by Clinton Scollard.</i> <i>Music by H. P. Danks</i> }	329
On Presenting an Inkstand to a Friend.....	<i>John Howard Jefferies</i>	712
Opposition.....	<i>Charles P. Nettleton</i>	720
New Year Coming, The. A Hymn.....	{ <i>Words by J. Edmund V. Cooke.</i> <i>Music by Frederick A. Williams.</i> }	455
Witch Hazel, The.....	<i>Elizabeth Hay Frey</i>	584

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XX.

OCTOBER, 1894
JAN 30 1895

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CONTENTS



Lady Henry Somerset..... Frontispiece.
REQUIRED READING

Development of Railroads in the United States.....	Brandt Mansfield.	3
Social Life in England in the Seventeenth Century.....	John Ashton.	10
The British Parliament.....	Professor John W. Burgess, LL. D.	17
Kossuth and Hungarian Nationality.....	Frédéric Amouretti.	24
Sunday Readings.....	Selected by Bishop Vincent.	28
Science at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century.....	Dr. Paul Carus.	33
The Newspaper Press of Europe.....	H. R. Chamberlain.	39
The Germans.....	Sidney Whitman.	43

GENERAL READING

"I Wonder Who It Is—or Was?".....	Louis H. Buckshorn.	47
6,000 Tons of Gold. A STORY. Chapter XII. A Consultation at the White House. Chapter XIII. The Verdict of the World's Wise Men of Finance.....	Kenzie Eton Kirkwood.	48
Life on the Boulevards.....	Thomas B. Preston.	58
The Education of a Prince.....	Edward Everett Hale.	65
China and Japan at War in Corea.....	William Elliot Griffiths, D. D.	70

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE

The Duty of Young Persons to Married People.....	Angeline Bryce Martin.	75
A Bunch of Wallflowers. A STORY.....	Heinrich Landsberger.	76
A Trip to Devil's Heart Mountain, North Dakota.....	Eugene May, D. D.	82
A Modern Cinderella.....	Anna Hinrichs.	84
British Ambulance Lectures.....	M. A. Waddell Rodger.	86

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK

Two Improvements in "The Chautauquan"; Perspective in Study: The C. L. S. C. for 1894-95; Lady Henry Somerset.....		88
--	--	----

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION

The New Tariff Law; The Income Tax Feature of the New Tariff Law; The Relation of the New Tariff to Business; The Roman Catholic Church and the Liquor Question; The War Between China and Japan; The Forest Fires; The Woman Suffrage Movement and the New York State Constitutional Convention; The Financial and Business Outlook; The Investigation of the Pullman Strike; Summary of News.....		91
---	--	----

C. L. S. C. WORK

C. L. S. C. Outline and Programs.....		103
C. L. S. C. Notes and Word Studies.....		104
Questions and Answers.....		108
The Question Table.....		113
The C. L. S. C. Classes.....		114
Local Circles.....		117
The Summer Assemblies for 1894.....		120
Talk about Books.....		125
What Members Say of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.....		130
The Chautauqua Correspondence College.....		132
Among Chautauqua College Students.....		134
The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.....		136
The Chautauqua Current History Seal Course.....		136

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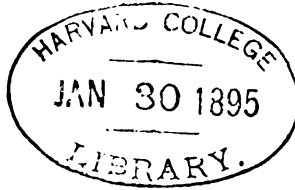
Dr. James C. White, of Boston, Professor of Dermatology in Harvard University, says:

“In selecting soaps for the toilet, those which are white and mostly free from scents should be chosen, for impure materials in their manufacture may be easily disguised by strong odors and colors. There is no positive virtue in Castile Soap as is so generally supposed, nor in carbolic, tar or other medicated soaps for ordinary purposes; the simpler the soap the better.



LADY HENRY SOMERSET.

See page 90.



THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

VOL. XX.

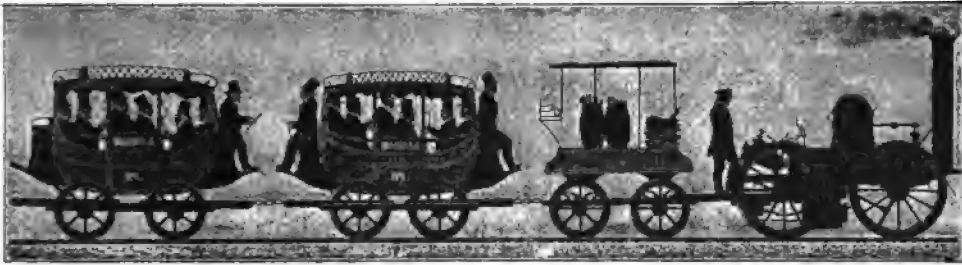
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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.



THE "DE WITT CLINTON" AND TRAIN, 1832; MOHAWK AND HUDSON RAILROAD.

(From an old print.)

DEVELOPMENT OF RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.

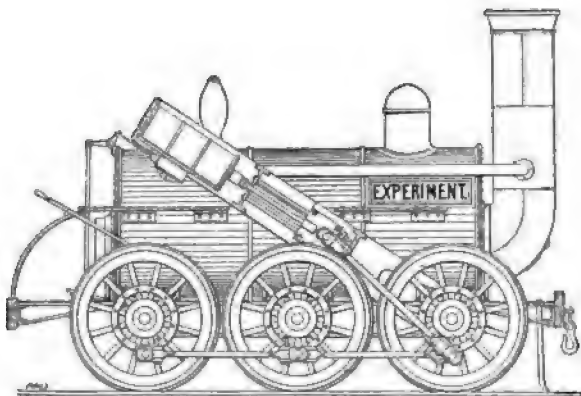
BY BRANDT MANSFIELD.

PERHAPS no better estimate of the towering importance of our railway system can be made than the simple figures showing its relative position in the nation's wealth. For 1890 the valuation of all property in the United States was officially determined to be \$65,037,091,197. Of this aggregate \$39,544,544,333 represented real estate—at actual market value—and \$8,685,407,323 railroads and their equipment—the actual cost. More than one fifth the entire landed interests, more than one eighth the total wealth of the nation, is thus invested in the diverse "streaks of rust" that run hither and thither over the broad surface of the land.

It is not the land that is occupied that gives railways this great eminence, but rather the essentiality of transportation in the production of wealth. Grain trans-

ported by wagon 300 miles consumes its entire value in drayage charges. Coal carted by team on wagon roads a distance of 300 miles would be worth at least \$30 per ton. Under primitive traffic conditions present life would be impossible. Cities would crumble into dust. Western farms would relapse into wilds or wilderness. Dikes save Holland from the sea; railways protect this nation from barbarism. Like many another scion of modern progress the railway was born of poor but respectable parents. From out the misty ignorance of the past the rail was the firstborn. The railway car was developed next and the locomotive came later still.

It was about 1630 that a Mr. Beaumont, operating a coal mine near Newcastle, England, laid wooden planks from the pit to the banks of the River Tyne to facilitate the



STEPHENSON'S FIRST LOCOMOTIVE OF THE "DIRECT COUPLING" TYPE.

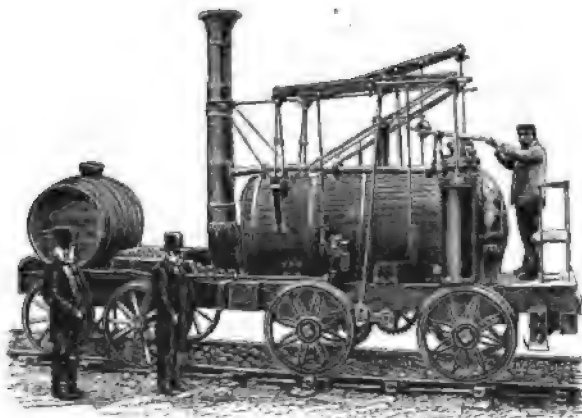
transportation of coal in small two-wheeled, one-horse carts. Some successor, unknown to fame, covered the planks with sheet iron. These tramways grew in favor among the English collieries, for the capacity of the carts was thereby doubled. A cast iron rail with an inner flange to keep the cart on the track was in use as early as 1776. Then in 1789 William Jessup made an important step in advance. He put the flange on the wheel and used a cast iron edge rail. The modern rail and railroad wheel were thereby developed substantially as they exist now, a century later. But their use was confined to short tramways running out from English coal pits, and the cars were small two- or four-wheeled affairs, drawn by one dejected horse.

Meanwhile the steam engine was beginning to work a marvelous revolution in the creation of power. British industries were expanding, and the transportation problem became vital. Various attempts were made to apply steam to locomotion, but on the king's highway, not on rails. The earliest steam road carriage of which any record is found, was made by Nicholas Cugnot [kūn-yo'], a French officer, in 1769, with funds furnished by the French government. He tried with a pair of single acting, high pressure cylinders to turn a driving axle by means of pawls and ratchet wheels. The invention did not prove practicable.

Among the earliest English steam road carriages was one constructed in 1803, by Richard Trevithick, a mining engineer. It was run for a short time in the streets of London, and created great excitement, but proved too cumbersome for use. The application of steam to rails then followed. Several slow-traveling, ratchet-wheeled locomotives were built between 1812 and 1825, for use on colliery tramways. They were exceedingly crude and of doubtful utility.

In 1825 the first public railroad in the world was opened between Darlington and Stockton, England. The locomotive, built by George Stephenson, carried a load of 90 tons at an average speed of 10 miles an hour. It had vertical cylinders like those of a stationary engine, the beams communicating motion to the driving wheels by means of toothed gear placed under the engine.

The next year Stephenson, the genius of the railway, broke away from stationary engine practice. He placed the cylinders in a slanting position and attached the connecting rods direct to crank pins on the driving wheels, fastened together by outside coupling. By further improvements,—the multitubular flue in the boiler and the ex-



AN ENGLISH LOCOMOTIVE OF 1813.

haust from the cylinders up the smoke-stack,—Stephenson in 1830 produced the "Rocket," the most famous locomotive in history, the model for the modern engine.

It won a competitive prize at a test on the Liverpool and Manchester road in 1830, making 20 miles an hour. The revolution was complete. Rail, wheel, and locomotive were perfected.

America, a virgin country of magnificent distances, was groping about darkly, trying

Stevens, of Hoboken, began in 1810 to advocate the construction of railroads in New York, and for years battled with an unconvinced public opinion. Some wooden rails are said to have been laid on Beacon Hill, Boston, as early as 1807, by Silas Whitney. The Quincy road, with iron



THE "JOHN BULL." FIRST TRAIN ON THE CAMDEN AND AMBOY RAILROAD.

to solve the momentous question of transportation. Washington had voiced the importance of internal commerce. The federal constitution had provided for its control by national legislation. Nathan Read, of Salem, Mass., in 1790 patented a crude invention for steam propulsion. Oliver Evans, a brilliant but unappreciated American inventor, as early as 1772 attempted to construct a steam road engine, and in 1804 built an engine on heavy trucks which was made to propel itself. In 1812 he predicted travel by steam at 15 miles an hour, but his friends laughed him to scorn and he died of a broken heart.

Each year the country burst its boundaries and spread farther west. Better means of traffic were imperative. Great canal enterprises were undertaken, and from 1825 to 1830 the relative merits of canals and railroads were publicly discussed, usually at the discomfiture of the latter. Col. John

plated, wooden plank rails, was built in 1826, to haul granite to the port of Newport. The Mauch Chunk Railroad was soon after constructed between the coal mines of northeastern Pennsylvania and the Schuylkill Canal.

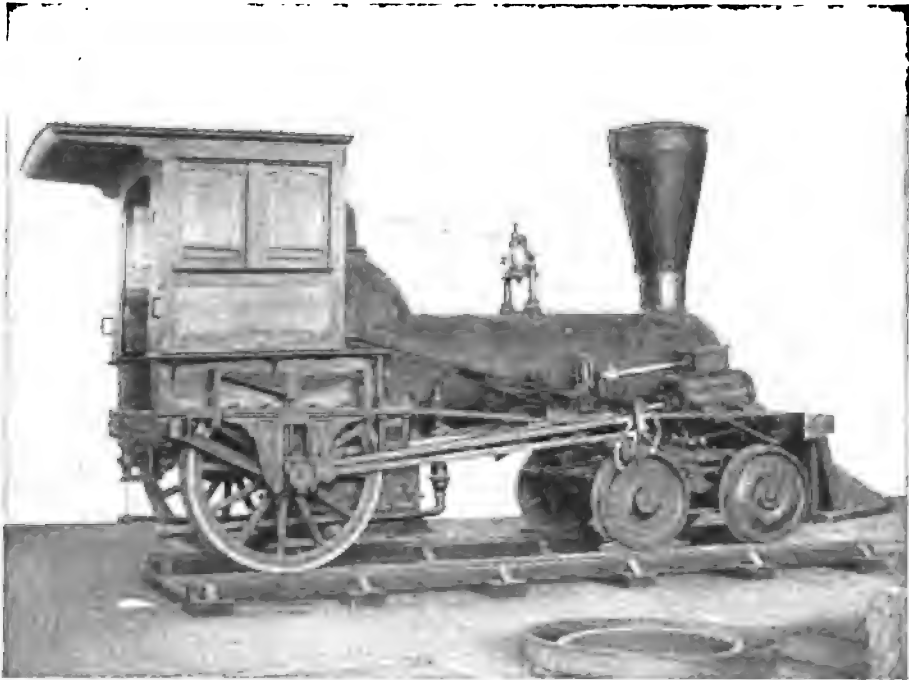
The first locomotive in the United States was the "Stourbridge Lion," one of three engines ordered from England for service on coal mine tramways in northeastern Pennsylvania, operated by the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company. A trial trip was made in 1829, and while successful the engine proved too heavy for the tracks, weighing as it did 7 tons instead of 3 as ordered, and all three engines were used for stationary purposes.

Meanwhile Baltimore, alarmed at the growing commercial supremacy of New York in consequence of the latter's canal, resolved to build in self-defense a railroad to be operated by either horse or steam power. Peter

Cooper, of New York, in 1829 built the "Tom Thumb," and with it made an experimental trip on the Baltimore and Ohio in 1829, and in August, 1830, the "Tom Thumb" carried in a crude car forty officials and guests from Baltimore to Ellicott, 13 miles, in one hour and twelve minutes on an ascending grade. The officials were satisfied that steam should be the power, and at once offered a prize of \$3,500 for the best type of locomotive. It was won in 1831 by the "York," built by Phineas Davis, of York, Pa. The "York" became the pioneer of the regular locomotive equip-

power to the driving wheels by means of cogs. Not for several years did the Stephenson type, now universally used, gain general recognition.

But the era of the railroad was inaugurated, and the new wonder found popular favor. Public enterprise rallied to the growth and extension of the new and rapid means of transportation. Between 1830 and 1840, 38 railways sprang into being with a total length of 2,818 miles. They were scattered mainly throughout the Atlantic states, with several as far west as Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan. They were



THE "PIONEER." FIRST LOCOMOTIVE IN CHICAGO.

ment of the Baltimore and Ohio road, the first great railway in America. The first locomotive in regular service in America, however, was the "Best Friend," which began making regular runs on the South Carolina road, in November, 1830. It was designed and constructed by E. L. Wilson, of West Point foundry, New York, and at the experimental trial demonstrated twice the force and efficiency contracted for. All these early American locomotives were of the upright cylinder type, communicating

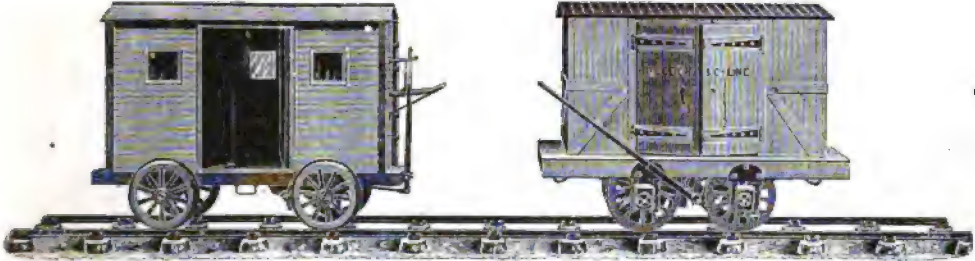
built largely by state aid. It has been estimated that in 1842 the total debts of the states aggregated \$207,594,915, and that of this total liability \$60,201,551 had been incurred in constructing canals and \$42,871,084 in building railroads.

Improvements in equipment came quickly. John B. Jervis suggested the "bogie," or four-wheeled truck, under the front of the engine to support and govern the machine in making curves. The use of wood as fuel necessitated the spark arrester to save

adjacent buildings, haystacks, and fences from destruction. Tracks made slippery by an enormous swarm of locusts crushed under the wheels gave rise to the sand box.

In England the earliest passenger cars

occasionally injuring a passenger. Each train carried a sledge hammer, and it was the duty of the conductor, when a snake head strap rail curled up, to stop the train and spike the rail into place.



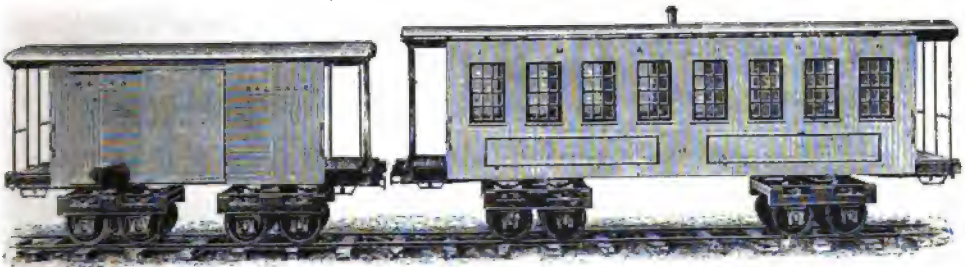
PASSENGER CAR, 1834; PORTAGE RAILROAD.

FREIGHT CAR, 1835; PORTAGE RAILROAD.

were of the stage coach type, and when larger cars became necessary, the double stage coach, triple stage coach, etc., gradually developed into the modern English compartment car. In America the primitive passenger coach had many shapes, but it was not long before the present type with end platforms, longitudinal center aisle, and cross seats took crude form. The first coaches were without springs. In an eight-wheeled car built in 1840, the improvement was noted that "light was supplied by two candles, one at each end of the car." The seats in many of these early cars were

The early roads were short, independent lines between adjacent cities. But as the lines multiplied, more distant points became connected through combinations of roads. From 1840 to 1850 the mileage of the United States jumped from 2,818 to 9,021. In the latter year Boston had attained a route through to the lakes. Several years later New York had reached Dunkirk, Philadelphia was joined to Pittsburg, Baltimore had gained Wheeling. The main stems of the great eastern systems were formed.

After 1850, state aid was rarely extended to railway enterprises, but cities, villages,



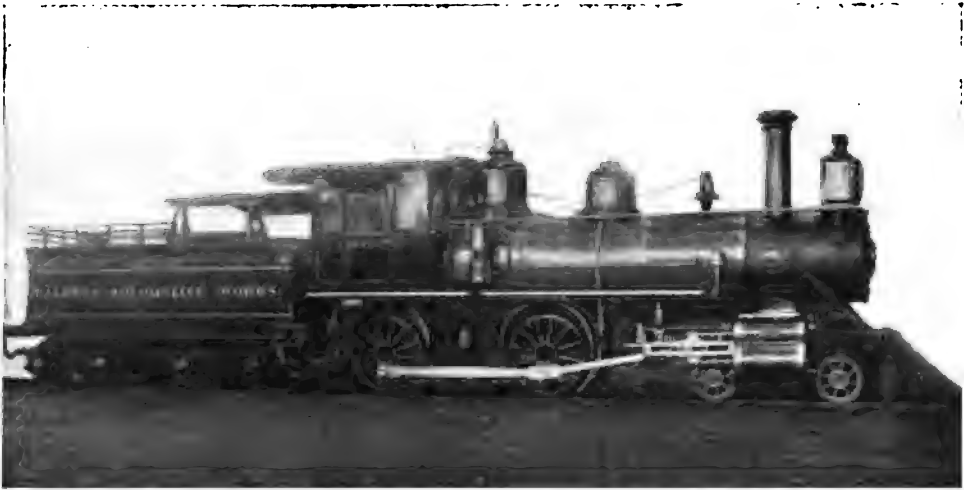
FREIGHT AND PASSENGER CARS, 1848; JEFFERSONVILLE, MADISON, AND INDIANAPOLIS RAILROAD.

plain boards. The first freight cars weighed less than a ton, and usually carried a load of less than two tons.

For more than ten years the rails on many of the roads consisted of iron bars, spiked on stringers of wood, supported on stone sleepers laid longitudinally. These iron bars often became loosened, and the ends, called "snake heads," would sometimes fly up and pierce the floor of the car,

townships, and individuals contributed liberally to the numerous projects afoot, and in 1860 construction had reached 30,624 miles, increased in 1870 to 52,922.

About that time began the rapid growth of the great western systems. The first line west of Chicago was the Chicago and Galena Union, opened in 1848, now a part of the Chicago and Northwestern system. The first locomotive, the "Pioneer," weighed



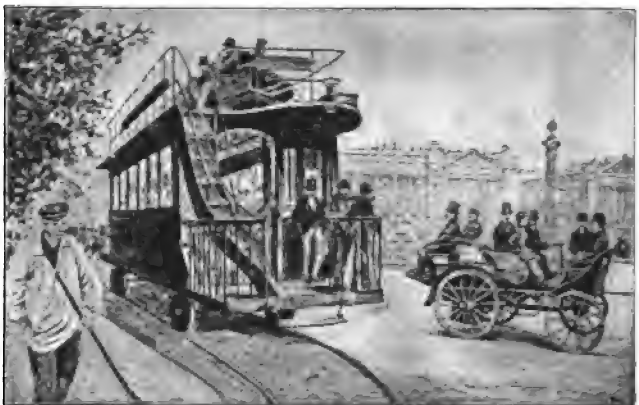
A COMPOUND LOCOMOTIVE.

10 tons, and was transported by boat from Buffalo to Chicago. The rest of the equipment consisted of a half dozen small cars. Construction through the prairies was stimulated by the presentation of land grants, commenced a few years later by the government and by various states. Congress not only issued bonds to extend the first transcontinental lines through to the Pacific coast, but granted to railway corporations 187,785,850 acres of land, in consideration of specified extensions. Part of this vast acreage was subsequently forfeited, but under the stimulus of national aid, a new policy was inaugurated. Railroads had previously followed civilization. Now they aspired to precede the earliest settler.

With Chicago as their base, a half dozen lusty young giants pushed numerous branches westward through rich virgin soil, till each measured five or six thousand miles in length. Construction was easy and rapid, and bonds, issued to defray cost, were quickly absorbed in financial centers. Statistics show a wonderful gain in mileage—52,922 miles in 1870; 93,296 miles in 1880; 166,706 miles in 1890. Rival lines had gridironed the entire new western country. The ex-

penditure of the capital necessary to this tremendous construction staggered the nation's resources once or twice, but quick recovery followed, and the United States now has a magnificent, an unrivaled, system of transportation—five transcontinental lines and several others held back only by a temporary truce among rival systems, making San Francisco as near to Washington as was Boston a century ago. Railroad construction is at the present time progressing more slowly, at the rate of only several thousand miles a year.

No other country has witnessed a railroad development so wonderful as this. The United States owns 43 per cent of the entire railway mileage of the world, but only 5 per cent of the population and only



DOUBLE-DECKED ELECTRIC CAR.

ELECTRIC CARRIAGE.

6½ per cent of the area. Europe had at the beginning of 1893, 144,380 miles of railway, of which Germany possessed 27,455 miles, France 24,018 miles, Great Britain 20,325, and Austria 17,600 miles; Asia 23,229; Africa 7,212; Australia 12,685; America 218,910, of which the mileage in the United States was 174,784. France laid the foundation of its railway system in 1828, Germany and Belgium in 1835, Russia in 1838, Holland and Italy in 1839, Turkey not until 1860, nor Greece until 1869. Peru initiated the railway system for South America in 1851, New South Wales for Australia in 1855, Egypt for Africa in 1856. Canada's first rail was laid in 1847 and Mexico's in 1850. In most foreign lands the respective governments either own a large portion of the railway mileage or have extended generous aid to construction.

And abroad many momentous projects are under way. Russia is actively extending lines to her frontier and the Great Siberian Railway, now in progress, will, when completed several years hence, be nearly 5,000 miles in length, and will connect the Pacific with Europe's network of railways. Travel by rail from Bombay to Peking is each year brought nearer realization by the construction of intermediate links. It is the bright dream in this country that the three Americas will soon be united in bonds of steel and a railroad to Alaska is one of the coming probabilities.

As time goes on the equipment steadily improves. In the vocabulary of transportation there is no such word as rest. The standard capacity of freight cars from 1855 to 1876 was 20,000 pounds. It has grown since then to 30,000, 40,000, 50,000 pounds. Quite a number of 60,000 pound cars have been built, and within a year or two several of 100,000 pound capacity, for special purposes. In 1863 the standard passenger coach was 30 feet in length; it is now 60 feet. Larger engines, heavier rails, and heavier bridges naturally followed. The earliest locomotives weighed only several tons. One was recently built weighing 76 tons, while 50 ton engines are not uncommon. And in recent years have come gas

and electricity for light in passenger coaches, air brakes for both passenger and freight equipment, special cars for a wide variety of purposes. A late promising innovation has been the compound or double cylinder locomotive, the second and smaller cylinder utilizing the exhaust steam from the larger, and thereby increasing the power of the machine. Iron cars have been built, but have as yet been indifferently received.

Most momentous of all prospective changes, perhaps, electricity as a motive power stands at the door expectant. It may eventually enter and supersede steam, but this new application of power on steam railways is still in the crudely experimental stage.

In keeping with these constant improvements the safety of travel is now almost absolute. The element of personal safety is even greater for the passenger than for the average person who is not traveling, as may easily be demonstrated. During 1893 the railroads of the United States carried 593,560,612 passengers an average journey of about 24 miles each, or 14,229,101,084 passenger miles. A passenger traveling constantly would accomplish about 260,000 miles per year, and 54,000 traveling constantly would be equivalent to the passenger mileage for 1893, during which year 299 passengers were killed. This is equivalent to an average annual death rate of between 5 and 6 per thousand among passengers. The annual death rate for the population at large is three or four times as great. In other words the probability of death is several times greater off than on a train. But although passengers are comparatively safe, the slaughter among trainmen is heavy. Eight per cent are injured each year, and nearly one per cent are killed.

It is curious to note that while freight rates have fallen tremendously, dropping from 6 and 8 cents per ton per mile in earlier years, to less than a cent per ton per mile at present, passenger fares show little depreciation. The average fare on 35 roads in 1848 was 2.85 cents per mile; on all roads now the average is about 2.2 cents per mile. But increasing luxury of equip-

ment has perhaps atoned for this maintenance of old time rates.

The railways in 1893 earned \$1,220,751,874, and of this amount \$827,921,299 was expended for operation. From the net proceeds an average interest of 4.25 per cent was paid on the mortgage indebtedness of \$5,225,689,821 and an average dividend of 1.68 per cent was paid on the capital stock of \$4,668,935,418, a revenue to stockholders by no means extravagant. It can be said for American railroads that their average capitalization, including bonds and stock, of \$62,421 per mile is less than one third the capitalization of English railways per mile, and considerably less than the average for the world. The total capital invested in the railways of the world at the beginning of 1893 was \$33,215,000,000, about \$80,000 per mile.

A comparison of English and American railways shows that the former are the more substantially built. Expense was not

considered in their construction. Freight rates in England are double the American schedules and despite the excessive capitalization the average dividends are higher; for cost of operation is less.

America may well be proud of her magnificent transportation system. Wonderful engineering feats in its construction have brought distant territories into close conjunction. The distribution of rich and varied products is made with speed and at slight expense. Fuel is brought from the mines, timber from the forests, grain from the golden prairies, manufactures are scattered broadcast, fast freight lines forward perishable goods at special speed, and express matter thunders along with the fast mail. No richer material blessing has crowned this nation than its incomparable arterial circulation, swift as the wind-driven cloud, potent as the arm of Jupiter, servant of the humblest citizen.

SOCIAL LIFE IN ENGLAND IN THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

BY JOHN ASHTON.

WHAT was England like in the beginning of the seventeenth century? Let Paul Hentzner, who visited the country in 1598, answer. He is enraptured with the soil and climate; of the latter he says, "It is most temperate at all times, and the air never heavy; consequently, maladies are scarcer, and less physic is used than anywhere else." But in this he probably judged from the country whence he came (Silesia).

He liked the English people and contrasted them favorably with the French; and, speaking of the dwellinghouses of the time, he tells us that they "are commonly of two stories, except in London, where they are of three or four, though seldom of four; they are built of wood, those of the richer sort of brick, their roofs are low, and when the owner has no money, covered with lead." The old wattle and daub¹ houses of previous centuries were dying out and being replaced by more substantial

structures. Still they were largely built of timber and plaster, and the amount of wood used in the construction of houses greatly agitates Harrison, whose description of England at the very close of the ~~sixteenth~~ century, is inimitable, and he laments "for when our houses were built of willow, then we had oken men; but, now our houses are come to be made of oke, our men are not onlie become willow, but a great manie, altogether of straw."

Yet trees were plentiful, and in the parks, which were very numerous, and in the hedge-rows, both the oak and elm abounded. Although England was rapidly being disforested, owing to the great demand for wool, beef, and leather, still there were large woods of beech and hazel in Berkshire, Oxfordshire, and Buckinghamshire; the yew was plentiful in Yorkshire, especially between Rotherham and Sheffield, and in Kent,—nay, in almost every churchyard—not as a mournful object, but for the man-

ufacture of bows, which used to be the national weapon, the aspen furnishing the light wood for arrows. The fir and pine grew farther north; the poplar was useful for bowls and platters, the alder gave a black dye, with which the country women dyed their home-spun cloth and home-knit hose.

Under the land lay mineral wealth, although the coal fields, which have done so much for England, were practically unworked. Tin was found in Cornwall and Devonshire, and lead in Derbyshire, Weardale, etc., useful for many purposes, but most especially for pewter platters, dishes, and flagons—which were used by people of all ranks. Iron was found in Sussex, Kent, Weardale, Mendip Hills, Walsall, in Shropshire, near Manchester, and some part of Wales; but its manufacture cost the consumption of so much wood that, in the reign of Elizabeth, an act of Parliament had to be passed for the preservation of lumber in Surrey, Sussex, and Kent. Coal was first used for smelting purposes by Simon Sturtevant in 1611, yet he was not successful in its application, which John Rovensson is said to have accomplished in 1613. But it was reserved to Dud Dudley, a natural son of the fifth Baron Dudley, to bring it into practical use in 1619. Steel made in England was not first-class, and it had to be imported from the continent. Copper was not much worked, but there were mines of it in Cornwall, and one, at least, in Dorsetshire.

Having thus, very briefly, glanced at the England of the seventeenth century, let us trace the life of an Englishman of the period, from his birth to his burial. Babies were wrapped in swathing bands, or "swaddling clothes," and their first public appearance was at their baptism, which took place soon after their birth. Then there was a jollification, and each of the godfathers and godmothers was expected to give the child a present, a silver cup, or a set of 'Postle spoons,' and the midwife and nurse also expected, and received, a gratuity. Children were kept in great subjection, and did not mix in the family in season and out of season, as, is now so much the fashion.

When boys and girls were about two years old, they began to learn their lessons from a "hornbook." These curious little tablets (for they are not books) are now excessively rare, and consequently, valuable—so much so that they have been forged. The hornbook was sometimes called the "Christ Cross Row"³—from a cross prefixed to the alphabet. It is so mentioned in Shakespeare in Richard III., Act I., sc. 1. It was simply a small sheet of paper, generally about four inches by three inches, on which were one or two alphabets—then came the vowels, and, after that, the "Syllabarium," ab, eb, ib, ob, etc., then followed the "Ascription" "In the name of the Father, etc.," and it wound up with the Lord's Prayer, ending with "deliver us from evil." This was pasted on a piece of wood about one third of an inch thick, shaped somewhat like a battledore, and covered with a thin sheet of transparent horn, which was fastened to the wood by nails driven through strips of copper or brass. By this means the Christ Cross Row was rendered almost indestructible by the little urchins who had to make use of it.

Having mastered his rudiments, he was promoted to a "primer," which, after the accession of James I., consisted (after the alphabet) of the Ascription, Credo, Pater-noster,⁴ Commandments, Graces before and after Meat, Responses to the Mass, and completed by the Hours⁵ and Psalms. His next educational promotion was to a grammar, or free school, all of which, many are apt to think, were founded in the reigns of Edward VI. and Elizabeth. But it was not so. The monasteries were the normal schools of English boys, and when they were suppressed it took a long time to fill their places, so that in this seventeenth century it was found necessary to create over one hundred schools throughout the country, besides those founded in the preceding reigns. I have no space to treat of his curriculum, or of his school books; suffice it to say he had enough rod, without which no picture of the schoolmaster of this century is complete. There were also private schools, where not only the solid re-

quirements of education might be learned, but also accomplishments, such as singing, dancing, French and Italian, music, painting, fencing, etc. If his parents could afford it, the boy was sent to one of the two universities, Oxford or Cambridge, after which he was sent on the "grand tour" throughout Europe, or, at least, the most civilized portions thereof.

He came back and probably settled down and married. There is enough fuss over one of our latter day marriages, but it is baby's play compared to one in the seventeenth century: the feasting and social orgies afterwards would require an article all to themselves. But the marriages do not seem to have been very unhappy; the law of divorce was not, and, probably, the partners for life schooled themselves to "bear each other's burdens" better than now-a-days. Still in the Puritan days of the century, a laxity with regard to marriage crept into vogue, and it was considered more of a civil than a religious contract, so much so, that it was usual to acknowledge a woman to be a wife before witnesses, or a justice of the peace, and these "marriages" had to be legalized by an act of Parliament, after the Restoration.⁶ It was probably the expense of the ordinary marriages, that led to these semi-clandestine weddings, at the Fleet Prison,⁷ and churches in London which claimed exemption from episcopal jurisdiction.

Naturally, a man died—and was buried; and, not to dwell too long on this subject, I may say that the latter operation was an expensive one. Only to give one instance—that of a middle class man like Pepys—at his burial there were given 45 rings of 20s. value—62 of 15s. and 16 of 10s.—besides 40 suits of mourning.

They ate and drank as well as they could afford. Breakfasts, as we know them, were not. A man took a snack of something, and a "morning draft"—be it of small beer or wine (for tea and coffee counted not for morning consumption in those days) either at home, or at a tavern; which, be it remembered, it was no derogation of dignity to frequent—because it took

the place of a club, and people were unpretending enough to buy their bit of fish, or what not, and have it cooked at the tavern.

Early in the century, dinner time was at noon; before the eighteenth century it had extended till two o'clock p. m.; and very rough, though plentiful, was this meal. Forks were not introduced into England until about 1615, the practice being to cut off the meat and use the fingers to put it into the mouth, wiping them, afterwards, with a napkin. Ben Jonson, in "The Divell is an Asse" (Act v., sc. 3, 1616), says,

"The laudable use of forks,

Brought into custom here, as they are in Italy,
To the sparing of napkins."

Indeed, so primitive were their dining arrangements, that, even at a lord mayor's banquet, Pepys writes, Oct. 29, 1663:

"Many were the tables, but none in the Hall but the Mayor's and the Lords of the Privy Council that had napkins or knives It was very displeasing that we had no napkins nor change of trenchers, and drank out of earthen pitchers and wooden dishes."

For wines they had both French and Rhenish sherry, Malaga, and tent, besides such manufactured compounds as hippocras, which still obtains as "loving cups"⁸ at civic banquets. Brandy was known generally by the name of Nantz, from the capital of the Loire Inferieure; gin, or Geneva, as it was called, is mentioned in Massinger's "Duke of Milan" (Act 1., sc. 1, 1623), but the advent of William the Dutchman popularized this drink; and from its cheapness it became the intoxicant of the lower classes. *Uisge-beatha*, the "water of life," was distilled both in Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland, but it was practically unknown out of those places until the Scotch Rebellion of 1745. Yet there was a grant made, in 1690, to Duncan Forbes of Cullo-den, in consideration of his services to William III., of the privilege of distilling whisky, duty free, in the barony of Farrintosh. Naturally, a number of distilleries were erected there, and Farrintosh became the generic term for whisky. Ladies, too, in their "still rooms" did not confine themselves to the manufacture of perfumes, but distilled various cordial waters, and

other intoxicating liquors, culminating in "damnable hum," the recipe for which I shall keep to myself.

It was reserved for the seventeenth century to inaugurate the reign of temperance drinks: for tea, coffee, and chocolate were all introduced into England in this century. The absolute date of the introduction of either is unknown. Of tea, the first known mention of its sale is the famous advertisement of Thomas Garway, in which he quotes a book, printed in Paris in 1653. Coffee, as far as I know, is first mentioned by Burton in his "Anatomy of Melancholy," but not in the 1621 edition. Chocolate was also in use in the middle of the century, for in an act of Parliament (12 Chas. II., c. 23, 1660)⁹ it is taxed

"for every gallon of chocolate, sherbet and tea, made and sold, to be paid by the makers thereof eight pence."

Inspectors were appointed to visit the coffee houses twice daily, to see the quantity brewed. But this was so inconvenient, that in 1688, the act was repealed, and a customs duty fixed instead. The temperance drinks were not used long before their benefit was felt—and the "morning draft" soon began to be superseded—*teste*¹⁰ Pepys, Ap. 24, 1661:

"Waked in the morning with my head in a sad taking through last night's drink, which I am sorry for; so rose, and went out with Mr. Creed to drink our morning draft, which he did give me in chocolate, to settle my stomach."

Ralph Lane landed at Portsmouth from Virginia on July 27, 1586, and brought with him the first tobacco that had come into England. How soon and to what extent it came into vogue may be judged from the following quotation from Dekker's *Satiro Mastix*,¹¹ 1602.

"*Asinius*. I burnt my pype¹² yesternight, and 'twas never usede since; if you will, 'tis at your service, gallants, and tobacco too; 'tis right pudding, I can tell you; a Lady or two tooke a pype full or two at my hands, and praized it for the Heavens."

De Rocheford, in his "Description of England" (Paris, 1672) speaking of Worcester, says:

"Moreover, the supper being finished, they set out on the table half a dozen pipes and a packet of

tobacco for smoking, which is a general custom, as well among women as men, who think that without tobacco, one cannot live in England because, say they, it dissipates the evil humours of the brain. Whilst we were walking about the town, he [the gentleman who was showing him the city] asked me if it was the custom in France, as in England, that when the children went to school, they carried in their satchel, with their books, a pipe of tobacco, which their mothers took care to fill early in the morning, it serving them instead of a breakfast; and that, at the accustomed hour, every one laid aside his book to light his pipe; the master smoking with them, and teaching them how to hold their pipes, and draw in the tobacco; thus habituating them to it from their youth, believing it absolutely necessary for a man's health."

Tobacco was grown in England for years until for fiscal purposes its cultivation was suppressed; and undoubtedly, at the time of the plague, it was used with marked success as a prophylactic.¹³

The coffee houses soon became clubs, in the modern acceptation of the term, and were even of political import, as the Rota Club, which, although its life was brief, was immortalized by Butler in *Hudibras*.

"But Lidrophel as full of tricks,
As Rota men of Politics."

Yet, as a whole, they were more social institutions, where men met to discuss the events of the day, and exchange their ideas, without the temptation to drink of the tavern, although intoxicating beverages could be obtained. The rules of the place were framed so as to render it a pleasant resort, considering its frequenters were of a somewhat mixed character. There was to be no pre-eminence of place—swearing was punished by a fine of a shilling; whoever began a quarrel had to give a dish of coffee to each man; no argument was allowed on religion or politics; neither cards, dice, nor other game of chance could be played. At least, these were the rules of the best coffee houses; but, of course, they had to suit all tastes.

In London there were innocent amusements: Spring Gardens, with its fruit trees, bathing pond, and butts for archery; St. James's Park, where was a portion of the Royal Menagerie, in the early part of the century, where a man might take his chil-

dren to see the elephant, leopard, wild boar, young crocodiles, flying squirrels, etc. or perhaps he might get a glimpse of young Prince Henry tilting at the ring, or, later on, have seen Charles I. go to his execution; and when Oliver Cromwell lived at Whitehall, he might have been seen pacing up and down. After the Restoration Charles II. made a canal in this park, and stocked it with ducks and waterfowl, which he delighted to feed while toying with his dogs. Or he might be seen playing at *pelle melle*¹⁴ in the Mall, or walking in the park, occasionally chatting with some lady who did not err on the side of respectability.

Or a visit might have been paid to Hyde Park, which was thrown open to the people by Charles I., sold by order of the Commonwealth, and again restored to the public by Charles II., where races, both horse and foot, were run, and the ring was a fashionable place to display your carriage and your dress. Cromwell's daughters used to delight in it, and My Lord Protector also. On one occasion (after dinner) he tried to drive six spirited horses, but he lashed them so that they ran away, pulled him off the box, and dragged him along, bruising him so that he had to keep his bed for a few days. Or, if a little jaunt in the country were preferred, there were the neat houses at Chelsea, where one could eat fruit, drink a good bottle of wine, and have a view of the surrounding market gardens and the Thames; or there was Fox Hall, where the nightingale sung, and there were cosy little arbors for a quiet party. There were the lions to be seen in the Tower, and early in the century, at Deptford, a short distance down the Thames, might have been seen the *Golden Hind*—in which vessel Sir Francis Drake circumnavigated the world—long since broken up—the only known portion of it being preserved in the shape of a chair in the Bodleian library at Oxford.

We may say that horse racing in England began in the reign of James I. when the first imported Arabian horse came over. This was called the Markham Arabian from

its owner, Mr. Markham, who sold it to the king for £154. Another Arabian, Place's White Turk, came over in the reign of Charles II. But horse racing was not a highly developed cult, as it is now, the races being principally confined to matches between two horses, ridden by their owners, or their grooms: the prizes being nearly nominal, generally a silver bell, whence the proverb, "to bear the bell." Singularly enough, the term still exists in starting children's races.

"Bell horses! bell horses! what time of day?
One o'clock, two o'clock, three, and away!"

Charles II. frequently went to Newmarket, and enjoyed the races there; nay, even godly Oliver Cromwell, owned "running horses," although there is no evidence of his racing them. And there may be some slight interest to those who care for racing, and note the annual squabble in the House of Commons over the adjournment on the Derby Day, to find Pepys writing on July 25, 1663,

"Having intended this day to go to Banslead Downs¹⁵ to see a famous race . . . so by boat to Whitehall, where I hear that the race is put off, because the Lords do sit in Parliament to-day."

Fox hunting was unknown, deer only being hunted, and they only by the gentry or noblemen. James I. at Theobalds and elsewhere was extremely fond of hunting. One day, his wife, who like a true woman tried to enter into her husband's amusements, made a mistake, a little story which can best be told in the words of its chronicler, Chamberlain (Ware Park, Aug. 1, 1613):

"At their last being at Theobald's, which was a fortnight since, the queen shooting at a deer, mistook her mark, and killed Jewel, the king's most principal and special hound; at which he stormed exceedingly awhile; but after he knew who did it, he was soon pacified, and with much kindness, wished her not to be troubled with it, for he should love her never the worse; and the next day sent her a diamond, worth £2,000, as a legacy from his dead dog."

For the common folk there were cock fighting, bear and bull baiting, and broad sword and cudgel playing. The first was always popular in England, and even now exists on the quiet. Bear baiting fell out

of use after the Restoration, but bull baiting kept in vogue until this century, many towns in England having their bull ring. Broad sword died out with the introduction of the scientific use of fists, in the succeeding century, but cudgel play can still be found in some Berkshire and Gloucestershire villages, where an old "gamester" can still be found.

Gaming, especially dicing, was prevalent. Billiards were in vogue, but were played very differently from our present game; and there was a game somewhat analogous to it, called trucks. Chess, drafts, backgammon, tick-tack, and shovel or shuffle-board were also played indoors, while the various games at cards included picket, gleek, l'ombre, cribbage, all fours, English ruff and honors (*alias* slam), whist, French ruff, costly colors, bone ace, put, wit and reason, plain dealing, Queen Nazareen, lanterloo (now called loo), post and pair, bankafalet, beast, and Irish; and the games with dice were doublets, sice-ace, ketch dolt, in and in, passage, and hazard.

Of outdoor games, there were archery, bowls, either in an alley or on a green, nine pins, tennis, pelle melle, shittle or shuttle cock, and football, which was not then reduced to a science, while May poles were, until the Great Rebellion, in every village, and in many parts of London. There was wrestling on every village green, and in Moorfields, the playground of London; while in every town, and in many villages, fairs were held, generally on the day of the saint to which the church was dedicated, at which the yearly shopping was done, and amusements most heartily enjoyed by those whose lives for the remainder of the year must have been very dull and colorless. The metropolis was favored with three, Southwark, May Fair, and Bartholomew Fair, the latter of which, instituted in 1133, lasted to 1855; and, at one time, was opened by the lord mayor with great state. Here might be seen Jacob Hale, the famous rope dancer, besides puppet shows, and little interludes such as Elkanah Settle used to write.

But for the drama it was a glorious time,

and, during this century, I can count twelve theaters in London—varying in price of admission from two pence to half a crown a seat; but this latter probably included a three-legged stool on the stage, on which a gallant would sit smoking a long clay pipe, and being waited upon by his page. What a race of giants in their profession were the dramatists of that century! Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, Dekker, Middleton, Heywood, Samuel and William Rowley, Beaumont and Fletcher, Webster, Massinger, Ford, Shirley, Brome, Sir John Suckling, Sir William D' Avenant, Milton, Dryden, Nat Lee, Otway, the Duke of Buckingham, Congreve, Vanburgh, and others; a list never equaled in any other century.

As actors there were Shakespeare, Burbage, and Alleyn. When the civil war began, most of "the King's Servants" joined the Royal Army, and were in such estimation that they all held commissions. After the Restoration the best known actor was Betterton, the Garrick of his day; and perhaps next to him was Kynaston, the spoilt darling of society, who played women's parts. There were, besides, Theophilus Bird, Hart, Mohun, Burt, and Clun. The first women who appeared upon the English stage were some Frenchwomen who visited this country in 1629, and they were "hissed, hooted, and pippin-pelted from the stage"; and the first English professional actress is said to have been Mrs. Coleman, who acted Ianthé in D' Avenant's "Siege of Rhodes," at Rutland House, in 1656; but the best remembered actress of this century is, undoubtedly, the fair but frail Nell Gwynn.

Very many people imagine that England was not a musical nation, but, as a matter of fact, in the seventeenth century it was very much so, a statement which the reader will endorse, if he only thinks of the works of Dr. Bull, Orlando Gibbons, Ravenscroft, Deering, William and Henry Lawes, the latter of whom set Milton's "Comus" to music, Hilton, Playford, to whom we are so much indebted for the preservation of Old English tunes, Cook, the master of

the children of the King's Chapel Royal, Bernhardt Schmidt (or Father Smith), to whom we owe so many fine organs, Tudway, Blow, Purcell, Wise, and Humphrey. We know not how the list might have been extended, had not the Puritans discountenanced music, and totally suppressed the cathedral service in 1643. It was a great century for anthems, masques, songs, madrigals, catches, rounds, and canons—many of them so difficult as to baffle all but the best of modern musicians. Who can now play the music to the lute or theorbo¹⁶ on those instruments? Yet they were then in universal use, and among a class where we should least expect it—among servants and apprentices, *vide* Pepys *passim*.¹⁷ It was, essentially, a century of ballads, which were made on every conceivable subject. Luckily we have had several collectors of them; and the Pepys, Roxburghe, Bagford, and Luttrell collections of them must embrace the larger portion of those published.

Pictorial art at the commencement of this century was principally of the Flemish school, and several grand painters came over to England and dwelt among us. Take as types of the age Cornelius Janssen, Daniel Mytens, Isaac and Peter Oliver, Salomon de Caus, Sir Balthazar Gerbier, Sir Peter Paul Rubens, Sir Antony Van Dyck, William Dobson, Alexander Cooper, Jean Petitot, Sir Peter Lely, Simon Varelst, Antonio Verrio, both the Vandeveldes, Samuel Cooper, so famous for his miniatures, Sir Godfrey Kneller, and Peter Vander Meulen. Of engravers we have William Faithorne and George Vertue; sculptors, Gabriel Cibber and Grinling Gibbons; while as architects, Inigo Jones and Sir Christopher Wren stand pre-eminent to this day, and so does Nicolas Briot as a medalist.

Science was still in its infancy, clogged with the foggy ideas of alchemy, to which Ben Jonson's satirical play of "The Alchemist" was the deathblow. Yet it was a century which saw the birth of the Royal Society and the foundation of the observatory at Greenwich. Prince Rupert was no mean chemist, as far as his light went,

and the Marquis of Worcester lays claim to the invention of the steam engine. Medicine and surgery, such as we know them, were nonexistent; the only people worthy of the name of physicians were the three Brownes, father, son, and grandson, such empirics¹⁸ as Sir Kenelm Digby, with his "sympathetic powder," being beneath notice. Yet there was William Harvey, who is credited with having discovered the circulation of the blood, and who was practically the founder of a school of anatomy which has subsequently been so beneficial to mankind.

Medicine was in the hands of the women folk and quacks, and ignorance and insanitation did their deadly work, until it culminated in the great plague of 1665. The plague was always in England, and no wonder at it. Look at London, swarming with churches, and their accompanying graveyards, so full that they were raised feet above the street—the interior of the churches gorged with dead—the parish pump close by. No drainage, only cess-pools; no pure supply of water, the streets very narrow and crooked, some of the houses overlapping story by story until they nearly touched, baths unknown, and medicinal knowledge nowhere. The greatest mercy God could send to that unsavory city was to destroy it by fire as happened in 1666.

Religion I may not touch on, but good works abounded, as Greenwich and Chelsea Hospitals testify. Almshouses and charitable bequests for the poor and helpless were common to the century, except during the interregnum, when charity was practically dead. Even the poor "mean white," who might have been captured and sold into slavery by a Sale rover,¹⁹ or Barbary pirate, was cared for. Very many charities existed for his redemption; and, if he had been weak enough to abjure his religion, he could be restored to the Church of England by performing penance according to a service of 1635.

Space will allow only a few words upon dress, the fashion of which varied considerably during the century, from the padded

trunk breeches of James I.'s time, the belaced costume of Charles I. and the Restoration, the sober attire of the Commonwealth, and the neat and comely dress of the Third William. All these mutations of fashion are best understood by pictorial illustration. With the Restoration came that monstrosity, the periwig, both men and women wore patches, and the latter certainly displayed more of their persons than had hitherto been considered conso-

nant with feminine modesty; still each style had its charm, the modest primness of the Puritan maiden, and the voluptuous exuberance of my Lady Castlemaine; and a gentleman always looked such, were he trussed up, as in the time of James I., or wore lovelocks as a Cavalier, or a solemn suit as a Roundhead, the feathered hat, periwig and laced coat of Charles II., or the full-bottomed coat, long waistcoat, and knee breeches of William III.

THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT.*

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"A REPUBLIC concealed in the folds of a monarchy" is the very apt definition, or rather description, given by the former distinguished editor of *The Economist*, Mr. Bagehot [baj'ot], of the English government.

This terse sentence means that, formally and theoretically, this government is a monarchy, but really a republic; that, formally and theoretically, the Crown not only executes and administers, but also legislates, but really the House of Commons legislates or at least possesses the balance of legislative power. To show that this is true and how it has become true, are the problems of this article.

I will treat the first question under three categories,—the composition of the House of Lords, the composition of the House of Commons, and the process of legislation.

I. THE COMPOSITION OF THE HOUSE OF LORDS.

THE membership of the House of Lords is made up of four classes of male persons.

1. Peers by hereditary right. 2. Life peers. 3. Elected peers. 4. Ex-officio lords.

1. Those male persons of full age heir-ing¹ peerages, who can prove that the ancestors from whom they derive titles have been, since about 1295, personally summoned by royal writ to sit in Parliament, have the right to be summoned personally

themselves by royal writ to seats in the House of Lords. This is a right which the Crown cannot defeat by failing to issue the writ. It is a writ of right which must issue. It is also a right which the Crown cannot impair by the creation of life peerages at will, carrying with them only life-memberships, so to speak, in the House of Lords. According to the principles of the English constitution, the Crown can appoint no life peerages except by virtue of an act of Parliament vesting the Crown specifically with the power. Parliament has never passed an act conferring an unlimited power of this nature upon the Crown. It has authorized the Crown to appoint four persons, and but four, as life peers, or more correctly as life lords.

2. The purpose of this comparatively recent statute, 39 and 40 Victoria, c. 59,² in vesting the Crown with this exceptional power, was to make sure of sufficient juristic talent in the House of Lords to do its judicial business. The statute, therefore, directs that the Crown must select these persons from among the high judges of, at least, two years' standing, or from among the practitioners at the English, Scotch, or Irish bar of, at least, fifteen years' standing. These lords are termed the lords of appeal in ordinary. As peers they are classed among the barons. They are distinguished from all other lords by the fact that they receive

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salaries for their services, salaries of a generous nature, six thousand pounds sterling each per annum.

3. Those persons heiring Irish peerages, who can prove that the ancestors from whom they derive titles sat in the House of Lords of the Irish Parliament before the union of the Irish with the English Parliament have the right to elect twenty-eight of their number to life-membership in the House of Lords of the United Kingdom.

Likewise those persons heiring Scotch peerages, who can prove that the ancestors from whom they derive titles sat in the House of Lords of the Scotch Parliament before its union with the English Parliament, have the right to elect sixteen of their number to membership in the House of Lords of the United Kingdom for the period of the Parliament to which they are chosen.

4. Lastly, two archbishops and twenty-four bishops of the established church have, by virtue of their spiritual offices, seats in the House of Lords.

Space will not permit of any discussion of these different tenures. I will call attention, however, to a single point, viz., that of the nearly six hundred members of the House of Lords, about five sixths of them are temporal peers³ of England. It is quite probable, therefore, that since, as we shall see later on, Ireland is much overrepresented in the House of Commons, the House of Lords may succeed in causing itself to be regarded as the conservator of English interests, and the representative of English opinion, as against the power of Ireland in the House of Commons.

II. THE COMPOSITION OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

ALL the members of the House of Commons are elected for a term of not more than seven years. The qualification means that within this period the term is really indefinite, on account of the possibility of the termination of Parliament through dissolution by royal writ.

The suffrage out of which this body proceeds is chiefly regulated by the statute of 48 Victoria, c. 3, called the Representation of the People's act.

We may say that the suffrage for the election of the members of the House of Commons has by this act become manhood suffrage, or very nearly that. Previous to the Reform Bill of 1832, the English suffrage was freehold suffrage. The acts of 1832 and 1867 made it household suffrage.

The act of 1884 has gone much beyond this, and the English suffrage is now very nearly universal manhood suffrage, which means the suffrage of all male resident citizens of mature age. The act of 1884 still attaches a property qualification to the suffrage, but it is so slight and varied in its character as to prohibit very few having the qualification of sex, age, residence, and citizenship from voting. Freehold⁴ of the value of forty shillings clear per annum, copyhold of the clear annual value of five pounds sterling, sixty year leasehold of the clear annual value of five pounds sterling, twenty year leasehold of the clear annual value of fifty pounds sterling, or twelve months' occupation of any lands or tenements of the clear annual value of ten pounds sterling, or twelve months' occupation of any dwellinghouse or part of a house arranged as a separate dwelling, or twelve months' occupation of any lodging of the clear annual value of ten pounds sterling,—any of these will satisfy the requirement as to property.

Moreover, no property qualification whatsoever is required of one holding the freedom of a city, or belonging to one of the city companies of the City of London, or being a master of arts of any of the great universities of England, Scotland, or Ireland.

It must be remembered, however, that peers are not allowed to vote for the members of the House of Commons at all. The bill recently introduced into the House of Commons for preventing the same person from voting in two or more constituencies by virtue of his property qualification in the several constituencies, does not therefore affect them directly. It strikes at a privilege of the wealthy commoners, and of the university educated commoners.

This act of 1884 raised the voting population of the United Kingdom from about two and a half millions to more than seven mil-

lions. It was a radical change and its effects are only now beginning to be seen.

The principle introduced by the act was farther developed by the Redistribution act of the year 1885, 48 and 49 Victoria, c. 23. Down to this date the distribution of the seats in the House of Commons had been upon the basis of the organized communities, i. e., so many for each county, city, borough, or university.

Before 1832 this number was determined by the royal charters or franchises which constituted these communities as counties, cities, boroughs, or universities, and was fixed at two from each, without regard to the population. After 1832, it was determined by act of Parliament, and some regard to the number of inhabitants of the different communities influenced the redistribution then made by Parliament. The basis of the representation remained, however, the organized communities down to the act of 1885, when it was changed to numbers to correspond with the great change made by the act of 1884 introducing manhood suffrage.

This act of 1885 cuts up the organized communities, with the exception of the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Dublin, that part of London called the city, and towns which before the passage of the act of 1885 were entitled to send two members and also contain a population of from fifty thousand to one hundred and sixty-five thousand inhabitants, into election districts, each containing from fifty thousand to sixty thousand persons. There are one or two modifications of this general principle which are relics of the old custom. For example, towns containing between fifteen thousand and fifty thousand inhabitants are reckoned as a district and send one member, and those containing between fifty thousand and one hundred and sixty-five thousand inhabitants are divided into two districts and send two members.

It will thus be seen that the general principle of the British suffrage is now manhood suffrage, and that the representation in the House of Commons is now virtually based upon a distribution of seats according to the census of the population. It is very prob-

able, almost certain, that these principles will be so developed as to sweep away the exceptions and modifications to which I have above referred. They contain the questions to be dealt with in the further reform of the composition of the House of Commons.

There is a single fact in regard to the distribution of the representation which must be specially mentioned. It is that in the application of the new rules both Scotland and Ireland enjoy a relatively larger representation than England. The representation from Ireland is nearly one third greater than it would be if the conditions and the practices prevailing in England prevailed in Ireland.

The existence of such an overrepresentation from Ireland causes many Englishmen to regard the House of Lords as a necessity to the preservation of English interests, who would otherwise be indifferent to the fate of that branch of the legislature.

III. THE PROCESS OF LEGISLATION.

DISREGARDING the many stages in detail in this process as confusing to lay minds, I will treat of this subject under two divisions only, viz., the power of each chamber to initiate the projects of legislation, and the power of each to reject the projects passed by the other.

When legislative bodies have equal powers in these two respects upon all subjects of legislation, they may be regarded as fulfilling the requirements which political scientists term *parity* of powers. In proportion as they depart from equality of powers, in these two respects, they deviate from the principle of parity of powers.

1. Equality of power in the initiation of legislation by the two Houses of the British Parliament exists in reference to some subjects, but not in reference to all subjects. In fact the initiation of projects in regard to the most important subjects with which a legislature has to deal is denied by the custom of the British constitution to the House of Lords, viz., the raising of the revenue and its expenditure in the administration of the government.

All projects of this character must originate in the committee of the whole of the House of Commons, and are not even subject to amendment in the House of Lords.

Legislation in regard to the budget^d aside, all other subjects may be classed either as public matter or private matter.

Bills of the former nature may be initiated in either House upon the proposition of any member. • In the House of Commons the member must have asked and received permission of and from the House to do so. In the House of Lords this formality is not insisted upon.

Bills in respect to private matters originate in the House of Commons alone, by way of a petition filed by the party concerned in the Private Bill office, and indorsed by a board of examiners, the members of which represent both Houses of the Parliament.

It is thus readily seen that the House of Lords has no parity of power with the House of Commons in the initiation of legislation, the latter monopolizing the power completely in regard to every question which pertains to what is termed the budget, and substantially in regard to all questions of private legislation.

2. The like disparity of power appears also, though not to the same extent, when we apply the other test of parity, viz., the power of each House to reject projects originating in the other.

The House of Lords is disabled by the custom of the constitution from refusing agreement to any bill relating to the raising of revenue or the appropriation of money sent to it from the House of Commons. The House of Lords may, however, reject the measures voted by the Commons upon any other subject.

This may be said to be the letter of the law of the constitution as it now stands, if indeed the British constitution can be said to have any letter of law, but it is not in exact accord with the spirit of existing conditions.

To state it moderately, existing political conditions and opinion in Great Britain do not approve of the same freedom and discretion in the rejection of the Commons' measures by the Lords as in the rejection of the Lords' measures by the Commons. Exactly what difference of power should exist in reference to this stage in the process

of legislation is mainly a question still to be resolved.

It is certain that the House of Lords cannot now reject a measure coming to it for the second time from the House of Commons, provided that, between its rejection by the House of Lords and its second passage by the House of Commons, the latter House shall have been dissolved and the appeal to the electors shall have been made upon the issue of the rejected measure. It will not answer, however, for the production of this result, that the electors shall have been appealed to only upon the general principle of the measure. All of the substantial details of the measure at least must have been included in the appeal. For example, in rejecting the recent Home Rule bill for Ireland, as it was popularly called, sent to its bar by the House of Commons, the House of Lords claimed that this particular bill had not been made either in its details, or in its essential features, the issue in the appeal to the voters at the previous election, but only the general question as to whether Ireland should have some sort of Home Rule or not.

So much I say is certain and settled, but the question of to-day is whether the House of Lords can require or should require the exact fulfillment of this procedure in every case before it yields to the will of the House of Commons. It is evident even to the casual observer of the trend of British opinion that such a power or practice in or by the House of Lords is not now approved by the majority of the best thinkers and writers upon the subject. The more radical publicists even claim that the House of Lords must never reject a measure sent to its bar a second time by the House of Commons, even though no appeal to the electors shall have been made between. This is certainly an extreme view and is in advance of the precedents.

The better view is that the House of Lords should never reject a measure sent to it from the Commons when it is reasonably evident that the nation is with the Commons in the matter, and that the House of Lords ought not to insist upon the exertion, the

expense, and the delay of an appeal to the voters to test the fact as to whether the nation is with the Commons when the fact is reasonably evident from other less exacting tests. The House of Lords has at times followed this principle, but not uniformly even in modern times. It may be said, I think, that, since the period of the wise leadership of the Duke of Wellington in that body, there has always been a party in the House of Lords, sometimes in majority and sometimes not, which has regarded the observance of this principle as vital to the usefulness, if not to the existence, of the House of Lords.

In spite of all of the recent fuming and vamping about the House of Lords, it fairly holds its own among the institutions of the United Kingdom; and there is little likelihood of its abolition, or of any formal modification of its legislative power, if it be careful to yield always to the settled opinion of the English people, and to stand as the faithful representative of the interests of England in the United Kingdom. Its great service as a judicial body, a function not included in the scope of this paper, is another strong pillar of support to its existence and its continuance; while the fact that it is constantly recruited from the best talent and character of the commoners, selected virtually by the leader of the party in majority in the House of Commons—the prime minister—softens the hostility of the democratic principle toward it.

The other problem of this essay is to show briefly how it has come about that, while the theory of British legislation is one thing, the fact, as I have described it, is something quite different, that while, according to the existing legal forms, the Crown calls the Parliament, designates the persons who are to appear, appoints the presiding officer of the House of Lords, opens the Parliament, legislates with the consent of Parliament, prorogues and dissolves the Parliament, the House of Commons really does these things, or at least exercises the chief force in their accomplishment.

The causes which have brought the House of Commons into this commanding

position may be treated under two heads.

The first I will term the external causes, and the second those causes which have arisen out of administrative necessity and convenience in the working of the government.

The external causes may be summed up in a single sentence, viz., the decline of the aristocracy and the advance of the commoners in wealth, numbers, capacity, and political power.

In the middle ages, when the nobles with their bands of retainers rendered military service, and also aids to the Crown, they exercised equal power in voting the subsidies to the Crown with the Commons. When the feudal system was overthrown by the Tudors and the Stuarts, and a royal standing army of hired soldiery was substituted for the service of the nobles and their companies of retainers, the grants and aids to the Crown became grants of money alone from the commoners, and the House of Commons, as their representative, claimed the exclusive power to make them. In the year 1678 the House adopted the following resolution: "That all aids and supplies, and aids to His Majesty in Parliament *are the sole gift of the Commons*: and all bills for the granting of any such aids and supplies *ought to begin with the Commons*; and that it is the undoubted and sole right of the Commons to direct, limit, and appoint in such bills the ends, purposes, considerations, conditions, limitations, and qualifications of such grants; *which ought not to be changed or altered by the House of Lords.*"

According to this resolution nothing was left to the House of Lords in respect to money bills except perhaps the power to reject them *in toto*. The lords were, however, very sparing in the exercise of this power throughout the whole of the eighteenth and first half of the nineteenth centuries. In an evil hour, so late in this century as the year 1860, the House of Lords ventured to reject a bill passed by the House of Commons for the repeal of the duties on paper. This act called out a resolution from the House of Commons virtually denying any such power to the House of Lords,

and since then the House of Lords has wisely refrained from any further attempts to exercise this power. As a matter of fact, all the peers of the United Kingdom, numbering less than eight hundred persons, now hold but an insignificant part of the taxable property of the Kingdom as compared with the present wealth of the forty millions of commoners, and pay but a very insignificant portion of the duties and taxes as compared with what is contributed by the commoners, too insignificant on which to base any power over the money bills.

With this complete control of the purse of the nation it is easy to see how the House of Commons has been able to acquire, at least, the balance of power in regard to all other subjects of legislation.

The Crown must have what the Commons alone have the power and ability to give. Hence the power of the Crown in legislation generally, or at least its influence, must be loaned to the House of Commons, whenever the House demands it.

This last observation leads us to the consideration of the causes arising out of the internal working of the government which have contributed to give the House of Commons its superiority over the House of Lords in legislation generally, that is, to the consideration of that curious and most interesting factor in British legislation universally termed the Cabinet.

THE CABINET AS A LEGISLATIVE FACTOR.

PROF. DICEY says, in his noted work on the Privy Council that, "while the Cabinet is a word of everyday use, no lawyer can say just what a Cabinet is." With such a warning as this I shall not undertake a definition of the Cabinet. I will simply describe its origin and trace its history, state its composition, and enumerate its chief legislative functions.

1. Historically the Cabinet grew out of the Privy Council, next to the Crown the oldest existing institution of the British state. It, the Council, was a body composed of members chosen by the Crown, and holding from the Crown, at the pleasure of the Crown. Through it the Crown governed originally in every direction. The establishment

of the judicial courts in the twelfth century and of the Parliament in the thirteenth deprived the Council of most of its judicial and legislative functions, and made it substantially an executive and administrative body.

The attempts, partially successful, of the Tudors and the Stuarts to restore it to its original position finally provoked the revolution of 1640-88, the result of which was the definite denial of almost all legislative and judicial power to the Council, or rather to the Crown as exercised through the Council.

During the period of the Tudors and the Stuarts, however, the Council had been undergoing certain internal developments preparatory to the production of the Cabinet. Edward VI., in the year 1553, divided the Council into five committees, and assigned to each committee a definite portion of the governmental business. His successors, of the Tudor dynasty, developed the custom of communicating with each committee of the Council through one of their private secretaries. One of these secretaries became thus finally attached to each one of these committees. Naturally the secretaries gradually absorbed the business of the committees, and the Crown came to deal with them more and more exclusively in the work of government. The full Council, which was still called together by the king, became a sort of debating club. King Charles II. found it a great nuisance, and, about the year 1679, he organized a lesser Council composed of those secretaries, or heads of the ministerial departments, as they had now become, and dispensed in large degree with the meetings of the full Council. This lesser Council so composed was the first form of the Cabinet. The members of the Council not in the Cabinet resisted the new order of things as a dangerous innovation, but it was a better business machine than the full Council, and it had come to stay.

King William III., being by the triumph of the principles of the Revolution entirely dependent upon Parliament for the means of government, thought to be able to get more generous grants from Parliament—i. e.,

from the Commons, by taking his secretaries or ministers from among the members of Parliament belonging to the majority party in the House of Commons. He thus, unwittingly, laid the foundation for party government and for the responsibility of the Cabinet or ministry to the House of Commons. When he found out what he had done, he tried to abandon the plan, but it had come to stay. The Hanoverian dynasty found it an absolute necessity to the management of affairs, which they little understood on account of being foreigners themselves. George I. completed the development of the institution by withdrawing himself from the sittings of the Cabinet, as he could not understand the language in which the business was transacted. This act made the prime ministry of a member of the Cabinet over other members possible and necessary, and established the solidarity of the Cabinet over against both the Crown and the Parliament.

2. Thus the Cabinet is now composed of the heads of the ministerial departments, and its members are, at the same time, members of the Privy Council and members of Parliament, and are, furthermore, members of the party in majority in the House of Commons; in fact, they are the leaders of that party, and are selected by the Crown as ministers because they are the leaders of that party, since they, and they alone, can secure the supplies from the Parliament for the administration of the government.

3. Being responsible for the acts of the Crown, the Cabinet claims and receives the powers of the Crown, and can virtually hold possession of these powers, without regard to royal inclination, so long as it is sustained by the House of Commons. It is, therefore, the Cabinet which really does all those things in legislation which the Crown does formally and theoretically, and the Cabinet is the House of Commons, so to speak, in permanent, standing, grand committee.

There are many other things which the Cabinet does besides exercising the powers of the Crown in legislation, but they are not pertinent to the questions treated in this pa-

per. The purpose in view in the introduction of this discussion of the Cabinet is, as stated above, to show how, through the internal development of the machinery of the British government, the House of Commons has secured the balance of power in legislation.

In the light of this discussion this is seen to have been accomplished by adding to its own original powers the powers of the Crown exercised through the Cabinet, which latter is now substantially its own grand committee.

The House of Commons is thus in position legally to constitute the House of Lords to its liking through the creation of new lordships in Parliament by the Crown through the Cabinet, i. e., by the prime minister, and it is in position legally to ignore the House of Lords in legislation by the Crown's promulgating through the Cabinet the acts of the Commons as the law of the land. No House of Commons would, however, undertake to do any such things unless they were unmistakably and peremptorily demanded by the British nation. If they should be, the movement would be reduced simply to a question of time. The continued existence, as well as the maintenance of the powers, of the House of Lords, will not be regarded in the future from the point of view of inherent rights, but from that of the public welfare, and will depend ultimately, therefore, upon popular support, which can be secured and preserved, of course, only by the House of Lords deferring promptly to the reasonably ascertained will of the nation.

It must be stated, finally, that the legislative power of the British Parliament is unlimited. There is no constitution behind it in the American sense, enumerating the subjects of legislation, or withdrawing subjects from legislation, or declaring the rights of individuals or of associations of individuals against legislative encroachment. It can make any law, and any kind of law, upon any and every conceivable subject, and the only legal remedy against its possible tyranny is in the new election of the members of the House of Commons.

KOSSUTH AND HUNGARIAN NATIONALITY.

BY FRÉDÉRIC AMOURETTI.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE BLEUE."

THE Slavs who live in northern Hungary are distinguished by the name of Slovaks. They number about two million. Chiefly agriculturists, they are in general hard working people who possess little wealth. They furnish to great cities, notably to Buda-Pesth, men of the small trades, such as colliers, water-carriers, street sweepers, etc. Their language resembles that of the Czechs. They do not enjoy any national rights and are oppressed by the Magyars, not, however, without making protestations; but their protestations are stifled, and there is not a single Slovak deputy in the Hungarian parliament.

This little known Slovak race has however, in this century furnished the two men who have proved themselves to be the most energetic defenders of the two branches of the people belonging to the government which the Hapsburgs in the sixteenth century joined to their hereditary domains: the government of the crown of St. Wenceslas and that of the crown of St. Étienne.¹

Palacky, the great historian, who established upon an impregnable basis the national rights of the Czech people, was a Slovak; and a Slovak also was Louis Kossuth, the man whose eloquence and tenacity have contributed more than all else to give to the Magyar race, not only the pre-eminent place which it holds in the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, but also a considerable influence among European governments. In this statement we find a new corroboration of the fact of which we have had numerous examples, that the regenerators of nations often belong to another race than the one which they passionately defend. De Moltke was a Dane; Parnell, an American of Saxon, and not of Celtic, origin.

The fanatical partisans of Kossuth do not like to be reminded of the Slavic origin of their chief. They have fabricated for him

a fantastic genealogy attributing to him pure Magyar blood and connecting his family to one of the seven companions of Arpad, the conqueror who established in Hungary the Magyars whom he led from the Mongolian countries of Asia. These fables are without importance. At the time of the birth of Kossuth there existed no quarrel between the different nationalities in the kingdom of St. Étienne because none of them were then oppressed. The country was then ruled by a class of nobles among whom the Magyars, Slovaks, Germans, lived upon a footing of perfect equality. In order to understand one another in their Diet, the nobles spoke Latin, and that is the best proof that no attempt at national oppression by one group over the others existed, for no one party thought of imposing its language upon the others; and it is always by the imposition of the language spoken by the predominant party that the tendency to unification is manifested.

Under this noble class lived the peasants and the bourgeoisie, perhaps a little disdained, but without the least fear of restraint provided that they paid their taxes and dues.

Kossuth belonged to the privileged class and entered as a matter of course into political life without having any need to abjure his nationality in order to adopt another. The idea of the Magyar government did not then exist; it was he himself who formulated it; it was he who was its veritable creator. And in its creation he only plagiarized the idea of the Austrian state, which Maria Theresa and Joseph had outlined, and which their successors, Francis and Ferdinand, aided by Metternich, tried to realize upon the model of the Prussian state.

The Hapsburgs were jealous of the Hohenzollerns; they wished to have a fine empire unified linguistically and administratively, such as the kingdom of Prussia. But

that which it was possible to do with Pomerania and Brandenburg, countries whose races and traditions were nearly identical, it was absolutely impossible to do with the Magyars, the Czechs, the Tryolese, the Croatsians, the Roumanians, the Italians,—all peoples of widely different origin and traditions. As long as they were allowed to remain tranquil with their customary institutions, these people had voluntarily recognized the supremacy of the Hapsburgs—to whom the imperial title had given great prestige—and maintained peace among all the diverse elements. But when it was sought to impose upon them all alike, in violation of ancient customs and of solemn compacts, the bureaucracy³ of Vienna and the German language, they violently protested. The nationalities remained ignorant of their own power, as long as under the indifference and elasticity of the feudal organization they had never been interfered with; but they came to a full realization of their strength as soon as any attempt was made to compel them to submit to an administrative monarchy.

It was in Hungary that the protestation was most prompt and most vigorous because there existed there the best means of resistance. The nobility of the kingdom of St. Étienne exercised its power by means of a Diet whose rights and privileges had been determined by the "Golden Bull"⁴ of King Andrew II. in the year 1222. The Hapsburgs, in order to realize the dream of unification for their empire, had need to suppress this Diet. In order to succeed in their struggle against this nobility, it was necessary to gain to their side the masses of the people; but although their government had been in the main paternal and mild for the humble people, yet, on account of the reactionary prejudice against the masses, which was the consequence of the bad impressions occasioned by the excesses of the Reign of Terror in France, they distrusted these masses and undertook to play a double part with them. It was then that the nobility, pushed by necessity made advances to the common people to gain protection against the dynasty.

In the midst of the conflict between the

nobility and the dynasty, Kossuth appeared and immediately gave a special direction to the movement which was inaugurated.

LOUIS KOSSUTH was born in 1802 according to some biographers, in 1806 according to others; the latter date seems most probable. His father, who was of the Protestant religion—as were about one fourth of the Slovaks—belonged to the lesser nobility; but he was very poor and in order to live was obliged to administer the estate of a great lord. Kossuth himself, after having studied law, was for some time the steward of the great estates of Countess Szapary. But he very soon attracted attention by his eloquence in the council meetings of the district, and a magnate delegated him, as was sometimes the custom, as a representative to the Diet of Presburg, in 1832. From this moment he stoutly affirmed those democratic and national ideas of which he became a lifelong defender.

At this time in all European nations groups of ardent youths were seeking to realize the ideal of the French Revolution. Among them Jacobinism⁵ and nationalism were allied in an indissoluble manner. The Carbonari⁶ in Italy, the friends of Riego⁶ and the partisans of the constitution of 1812 in Spain, the Decembrists⁷ in Russia, the men of Young Germany⁸ had no need to make drafts upon their imagination. They had under their eyes the model which they wished to imitate. It was the France of the Constituent Assembly,⁹ abstractly unified, peopled with citizens holding to a theory of equality and possessing a central power concentrated in the hands of an elective assembly. Those who held this doctrine in its integrity were alone "patriots," such as were the men of 1793. It was this ideal which Kossuth and his friends wished to make real in Hungary. But it was only little by little that their intention was made apparent either because at first they did not know how to present their idea in its entirety, or because from strategic reasons they thought it prudent at the beginning to dissimulate in part.

The first concept which presented itself to their mind was that of a Magyar govern-

ment. It was, however, from this very thought that there sprang a check to the attempts of Kossuth, just as it is that from the same concept have come all the difficulties which those who have entertained it have met in their way; and it is from it that will come also the overthrow of the privileges accorded to the Magyars by the dual constitution under which the Austro-Hungarian monarchy has lived since 1867.

The French Revolution, having destroyed in France all distinctions among Bretons, Provençals, Normans, Burgundians, Picards, Gascons, Lorrainers, Auvergnats, etc., the Magyar "patriots" concluded that throughout all the territory of the kingdom of St. Étienne, embracing the Magyars, Ruthenians, Roumanians, Croatians, Serbians, Slovaks, Saxons, Israelites, there could be formed a single nation speaking the same language and obeying the same laws. This dream was so much the more insane because the Magyars who were to be the dominant nationality in the state and whose language was to be adopted by all others, numbered only about five million out of a total population of fifteen million, and their dialect, of Ural-Altaic origin, was allied only to that of the Turks, the Finns, and the Lapps. This dream was not only insane; it was culpable; for it was in the name of their oppressed nationality that the Magyars protested against the tyranny of the Viennese bureaucracy, and they themselves immediately placed all the forces which they could muster under the service of a bureaucracy still more rigorous for the nationalities which submitted to them.

If we set forth this point strongly, it is because this wild and censurable attempt consumed all the efforts of Kossuth and those who by other means undertook his work; and it has not yet tired the Magyar patience, for at the present time the whole interior and foreign policy of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy is dominated by the quarrels of the nationalities, carried on much more silently but much more bitterly in the Transleithan than in the Cisleithan¹⁰ part of the Hapsburg domains. As to Kossuth, since the dream of his friend Mazzini,¹¹ "a united

Italy," had been realized, he never reached the point of admitting that his own dream, "a unified Hungary," was utterly incapable of being realized. He never wished to comprehend that if the Piedmontese, the Lombards, the Venetians, the Florentines, the Neapolitans, etc. had had different historical developments, they were, in spite of all the differences which might have existed among them, at least united by common memories and desires, by identity of race, of language, of literature, while the people of the valleys of the Danube and of the Theiss [tice], although having submitted for a long time to the same rule, have among themselves no common bond save that of geographical contiguity.

The Diet was not always open to Kossuth; moreover it assembled only every three years and its discussions were not made public. So it was through the press that he sought to disseminate his ideas. He founded several newspapers, the most celebrated of which was the *Pesti Hirlap*.¹² In 1839 he was sentenced to four years' imprisonment. His popularity was already so great that a subscription taken for his benefit in the country netted in a few days the sum of ten thousand florins.¹³ The emperor, moreover, soon pardoned him. In 1847 the County Council of Pesth chose him as their representative in the Diet, where the Magyar language, recently substituted for the Latin, was gradually coming into use in the discussions. But it was in the year 1848 that his position in the government became preponderant.

During two years the name of Kossuth was one of those which were spoken most frequently in Europe; and, perhaps, aside from Louis Napoleon, there was no man who attracted as much attention as the little Hungarian legislator.

This is not the place in which to recount the Hungarian revolution. When the disturbance produced in Europe by the French revolution of February, 1848, had reached the Austrian empire, Emperor Ferdinand conceded to the Hungarians an autonomous ministry, presided over by Count Louis Bathiany [böt'-yän-yee] (who was executed later by order of Marshal Haynau),

and Kossuth was made minister of finance. This ministry wished to apply immediately its program of unification. Croatia and Slavonia were united to the apostolic kingdom of Hungary by bonds analogous to those which bound the kingdom of Hungary to the hereditary domains of the house of Austria. These complications seem strange to us, but they have the advantage of presenting to foreign nations strong and respectable bodies of people, and of securing at the same time to each ethnical group the rights of its autonomous national life.

The Croats did not wish to lose their nationality in that of the Magyars. Under the leadership of their *ban*, or national governor, Jellachich [yě'l'ä-chich], and encouraged by the emperor they refused obedience to the centralized government of Pesth. It was thus that the war began ["an insurrection within a revolution"]. Very soon imperial troops were sent to the assistance of the Croats. By a constitutional fiction all the decrees continued to be given in Hungary in the name of the king; the office of king was regarded by the ministry in Vienna as a delusion or deception, but was acknowledged by the Cabinet at Pesth, who made war upon the imperial government, but remained faithful to the king. Kossuth had been named president of the council of national defense. But when the imperial army marched upon Pesth under the orders of Windischgrätz, it was necessary to look the reality in the face. The Diet was transported to Debresin [dä-brě't'sin], the city most completely dominated by the Magyars of any in all the kingdom. It was there that on April 14, 1849, was issued the famous proclamation which pronounced the forfeiture of the Hapsburgs and the independence of Hungary, established the republic, and gave to Kossuth the title of provisional governor of the republic of Hungary.

Thanks to the military tactics of Görgey, the Hungarian army was at first victorious. It retook Pesth. But discord ensued between Görgey and Kossuth.

The Russians came to the help of the Austrians. On August 11, 1849, Kossuth was obliged to surrender all of his power to

Görgey and to seek refuge in Turkey. The following month Görgey, pressed by the Austrian army of Haynau, by Roumanian revolts, by the Russians, was obliged to capitulate. The prince of Varsovie, who was the conqueror of Persia and of Poland, was able to write to Czar Nicholas, "Sire, conquered Hungary is at the feet of Your Majesty." Almost a year before Emperor Ferdinand had resigned in favor of his nephew, the emperor king, Francis Joseph.

Up to his last days Kossuth lived in exile in Turkey, in England, in America, in Italy. It was in the last named country, at Turin, that he reached the end of his life. In spite of the Triple Alliance he still perceived sometimes boiling up in the popular Italian heart, that ancient hatred of Austria which he himself so deeply felt; and with all the intrigues against that country he was connected.

The Magyar agitation, meanwhile, did not cease. The name of Kossuth served always as a flag around which were grouped patriots and agitators. He himself wished to have no longer anything to do with the house of Hapsburg-Lorraine. But a less radical party was formed around Deak, the old friend of Kossuth, and the count of Beust, the real author of the compromise of 1867, which divided between the Germans and the Magyars the domination of the monarchy of the Hapsburgs.

This situation is in fact much more favorable to the Hungarians than would be the *régime* of complete separation. The latter condition would have wrecked them in a Slavic undulation. Now they direct the foreign policy of a monarchy of forty million men. The success of the attempt of Kossuth would have immediately consolidated Germany and the Germans of Austria. For the peace of Europe that would have been a great evil. As Mr. Ordega remarked some time ago in an article on the Czechs, "The Austrians' confederation is necessary for grouping all the little peoples of central and eastern Europe into a solid barrier between Pan Slavism and Pangermanism." If Kossuth had destroyed this barrier the evil would have been irreparable.

Besides, he was the only one who remained unreconciled. His friends of the party advocating the independence of the Hungarian Parliament did not demand complete independence, since they recognized Francis Joseph as king. It is, however, to Kossuth's primitive intransigentism,¹⁴ that is due the provisional hegemony¹⁵ of the Magyars. He died at the moment when this hegemony was threatened by the resistance of the nationalities, chiefly by the Roumanians,—and by confessional quarrels.

In regard to paying public honors to Kossuth, a great uncertainty existed in all minds, divided between the recognition due the hero and loyalty toward the king. Some young men thought it wise to resort to vio-

lence in their ardor to do homage to the patriot, and several conflicts with the police ensued.

The king, Francis Joseph, is a good man. Since his crowning, this is the tenth time that reminders of the revolution have brought on a conflict with royal prerogatives. The government has always extricated itself; it will extricate itself this time. It is not from this cause that will ever come its greatest embarrassment. When all of the oppressed shall rise up against it, that will be another thing. And then the leader of the oppressed will need only to re-edit the discourses of Kossuth against Viennese tyranny in order to brand before all Europe the excesses of the Magyar tyranny.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

THE INFLUENCE OF THE CHRISTIAN RELIGION IN HISTORY.

II.

[October 7.]

CHRISTIANITY AND HUMAN INTERESTS.

NO one can follow Christ through His earthly ministry without marking how keenly alive He was to all temporal and social interests, and how the amelioration of human ills and miseries in all their forms constituted the burden of His life. And the same spirit of humanity and charity was one of the earliest fruits of the new Faith. All, without any distinction, who were needy and unhappy—the widow and the orphan, the sick and the leprous, the captive and the oppressed, the stranger and the enemy—were the objects of active, helpful benevolence in the early church. The beauty of Christian piety blossomed out into numberless charitable institutions before unknown; and the church claimed as one of her greatest privileges, the right of caring for the suffering part of society, and changing misery into happiness. And the battle of the present age is not speculative, but social; the crucial test of knowledge is its social power.

Christianity, thus rightly interpreted, is the

"Religion of Humanity," is the true "Service of Man," presenting an idea of humanity—first, the redemption of the individual in Christ, and then a family loved by God—far grander than the humanity of Comte,¹ which is only a collection of atoms, without a living head: being in warm sympathy with every true human interest, and nourishing every right endeavor and aspiration, whether intellectual, social, or political; sweetening and softening whatever is harsh and hard in the relations of men to one another; and destroying social and political evils in the same way as it destroys moral evil. In short, the elevation of *society*, and the redemption of the whole of the earthly life through the salvation of the individual, is to be included in the "saving plan"; and it is because politics, science, commerce, industry, art, and learning have each a side true to our humanity, that they have an aspect which allies them to Christianity.

THE KINGDOM OF GOD.

THAT Christianity should be regarded in this wider sense, as the religion of humanity, influencing all our intellectual, social, and

national life, is evident from the *name* that Christ Himself gave to His religion. He called it "the gospel of the kingdom of God," and made it the main subject of His discourses and parables.

The ideal society portrayed in the "Republic" of Plato³ was a noble scheme to realize on earth the principles of Divine order; and so was the "Divine kingdom" that Confucius sought to establish in China; but to Plato and to Confucius the state was supreme; whereas from the Christian standpoint, it is but one part of that larger society which embraces alike the life of the individual, the family, the nation, and the race.

By the implanting of a new life—even Christ's own Divine life—in the hearts of men, the kingdom is to advance: not by the violent overthrow of existing institutions and governments, but as a silent influence from within; imparting to society a new character; permeating its various spheres of thought and action with a new principle; making men better and happier in all their relations.

This is the ultimate aim and end toward which all progress is tending. It is the grandest hope that has ever been taught respecting the future of mankind on earth. There is nothing so elevating as to believe in this kingdom of God—the center and aim of all history: to believe that goodness is stronger than evil; that love is mightier than selfishness; that God's own order will eventually triumph over all disorder. In the early days of Christianity we find that there were various and conflicting sects and nationalities included under the name Jews and Gentiles; but men who had been Pharisees, Sadducees, Essenes, and Hellenists, and converts from the various races—Greeks, Romans, Ethiopians, Scythians, and peoples of Asia Minor—from freemen and slaves, all these were knit together into one fellowship as symbolized in the *agape*,⁴ the conflicting races, previously divided, were made one in Christ.

This is the kingdom which men are unconsciously seeking. Underneath the wild cries and moans of the outcasts of the great cities and empires of the world; underneath

those terrible names that so often frighten men—Socialism, Democracy, Republicanism—there lies hidden, amidst so much that is to be deprecated in the attempt to realize it, that yearning for freedom and fraternity which can only be safely, surely realized in this kingdom of God. Jesus Christ stands over against every need of our nature—the Savior and the Friend of man; the champion of the oppressed; the inspirer of every scheme of benevolence and progress; the solver of all social problems; the world's hope and promise.

This is Christianity's grand apology; that which demonstrates its Divine origin; and that which ensures its future in the world. It is a great moral and social force; and as such can be successfully applied to all the stern facts of our modern civilization. It is still "young as the morning," full of perennial freshness and unwasted power; carrying within it, in time of declension, a self-correcting energy, suggestive of infinite improvement. It can infuse new life and vigor into the most ancient institutions, if they can prove their fitness to survive; and can regenerate society in every land.

The wonderful influence of Christian missions in every quarter of the globe, is its best apology. In carrying the Christian attack into foreign ground, we best defend and justify the Faith of the church at home, as Italy of old was saved from Hannibal⁴ by taking the war across into Africa. The best defenders of the Faith, the most conclusive evidences of Christianity, are tamed and enlightened savages and converted Hindus and Chinese, whose transformation of character proves the spiritual efficacy of the gospel. The most prominent bulwarks of our religion are those native churches in heathen lands that have been won to the Christian side.*

* Christians in India now form a large and growing community, rapidly advancing in intelligence and influence, and being recognized as a power in the land, its members already occupying some of the highest civic posts. In point of education, they stand second only to Brahmans and in female education are far in advance of any other section of the community. The life-giving power of Christ's religion has affected deeply their spiritual and social relations. India is entering on a new era of mental and moral awakening and transformation through the quickening ideas of Christianity. The new Faith is steadily taking the place of the decaying systems of heathenism.—T. E. S.

[October 14.]

ITS SOCIAL AND REFORMING ACHIEVEMENTS.

THE main purpose of the preceding discussion was to show that in judging of a religion, the great question to ask is, What can history show that it has *done* for man? and that history would be searched in vain for any other energy that has exercised such an elevating influence on the individual, social, and national life of the world, as Christ's religion, for any force that has been so efficient in promoting the welfare and progress of mankind. The existence of other forces working with the new Faith was not denied; but it was affirmed that the religion of Jesus had supplied the greatest help the world has seen, to right living, and toward a more perfect state of society.

The aim now will be to substantiate this; to exhibit, by careful reference to history, some of the special effects that have followed the introduction of this religion into the world, and that, in spite of all contrary tendencies, have succeeded in getting themselves established in society—effects which follow Christ's teachings to-day wherever they are allowed to control individuals and communities; to show that there has been, in short, "a thorough interweaving of all the roots of Christianity with the modern history of the world." As Renan⁶ admits, Christianity has become as great an element in the growth of mankind as Greek rationalism. It is in all the tissues of modern peoples, and will not be effaced.

INFLUENCE ON THE PAGAN WORLD.

1. To discuss the subject and to come to a right conclusion, we must go back to the period in the world's history when Christianity appeared, and discover what new conceptions there were that came with it, and how those principles gradually affected social habits and practices; purifying peoples, laws, and states; and causing great abuses and wrongs to melt away.

(a) This new moral force originated in a remote province of the great Roman empire, which then controlled the civilized world. It was in Palestine, an obscure country that does not figure largely in or-

inary history, but one whose situation made it eminently fitted to be the cradle of new influences such as these. For Palestine was at that time the center of the ancient world, the meeting place of nations, the highway by which men must pass from the East to the West. It was not a self-contained little country, inhabited only by Jews. There was a variety of nationalities gathered there, so that Palestine was almost an epitome of the whole world; and there is scarcely a race in Europe or Asia which has not had its part in the history of that land. It is not without significance, therefore, that it should have been the scene of the ministry of Christ, and have given to the world a Book suited to every land.

(b) Palestine being a part of the Roman empire, it significantly happened that the new Faith soon began to measure itself with the greatest power then existing; and it is to the influence it exerted on Roman law, and on the institutions, morals, and practices of that people, that we must, therefore, turn our attention. Oriental life was not affected by Christianity, and it remains substantially what it was then. But the religion of Christ ultimately triumphed at Rome, and the Cross became the imperial standard.

(c) We have already recalled the moral and social condition of Greece and Rome, the most civilized portions of the earth, at that time. True, there are fine pictures of magnanimity and valor, which were transformed and exalted into Christian virtues; but so far as society was concerned, "gross immorality entered into the ritual of worship; religion raised no voice against the butchery of gladiatorial shows, or against infanticide or suicide, or even against the horrors of human sacrifice." Indeed, religious belief had almost died out. The gods and goddesses were discredited, as in the Satires of Lucilius⁶ and the Dialogues of Lucian.⁷ Horace⁸ had described, in a most contemptuous style, the manufacture of a god; and though the masses still clung to the ancient superstitions, the priests and others, from self-interest, still encouraged idolatrous worship and maintained shrines and temples, yet underneath all this there was a deep de-

cay of faith, and a widespread skepticism.

(d) And with this loosening of religious beliefs, the decay of states has followed. As long as religion was a power in ancient Rome, the national polity was maintained, but when faith declined, public spirit languished, and the social structure began to be dissolved. And it was only the religion of Christ that saved it. The new ideas, the new principles of thought and conduct, which it infused, its struggles with lawlessness and force, its humanizing spirit and higher impulses, entering into the life of nations, gave to political energies a new direction, remodeled laws, reconstructed states, and urged them forward on a fresh career of progress. Christianity became in the fourth and fifth centuries a political force so powerful as to be able to "remold the shattered world." The Christian kingdom and the Roman empire began about the same time; but the Christian kingdom became the growing, and the pagan empire the sinking power, because in the latter few men really believed, while the Christians believed with all their heart. A skeptical age is never a heroic age. There can never be freedom without faith.

[October 21.]

NEW CONCEPTIONS CAUSING THE CHANGE.

2. Now, what we have first to ask is this: What *new and nobler conceptions* came with Christianity, that tended gradually to reform and elevate the world?

(a) In the first place, instead of "a soulless world-soul"—the highest conception of philosophic and pantheistic minds—and instead of the polytheism and pantheon of popular belief, Christ reaffirmed the world's primitive monotheism, the special faith of the Hebrew race—one Supreme, Personal, and Holy God; and He, as the Divine Son, added to this the distinct and inspiring revelation of the *Divine Fatherhood*; not in the sense of mere supremacy, as understood by the ancient Aryan peoples, but in His spirit of condescending love, extending alike to all His creatures, whom He calls into moral fellowship with Himself. For this Being, whom Christ called by no other name

than "Father," is shown, in the mirror of Christ's own Life and Cross, as seeking and saving men, the most vicious and depraved, by virtue of a Divine self-devotion and self-sacrifice, thereby imparting His own spiritual life and blessedness to sinful, restless souls who believe in Him.

In the training of conscience, in the formation of character, in the moral and mental progress of the world, there is no force to be compared with *the conception that men form of God*. A true knowledge of their Creator which brings with it a true idea of man's own lost condition without God, is essential to the uplifting and happiness of His creatures. The God declared by Jesus, the one perfect Revealer of the Father, is the sublimest conception that has ever entered human thought, inspired human worship and song, consecrated human philanthropy and affection, and interpreted human history. Even the skeptic has to admit that it is "the loveliest of dreams."

But the way it has changed the old world into the new, the way it has affected character, duty, aspiration, heroism, proves it to be no dream, but the greatest of realities. It was nothing short of a new revelation. There had been no progress toward such a change in men's thoughts of God in preceding religions, only retrogression. In Christ it flashed out as though from the opened heavens, and through the Divine Spirit infused new hope and energy into human breasts. Men take courage when the lowliest feel themselves the objects of the loving thought of the Divine Father of the universe; all creation smiles; and the race can enter on a new path of development. This *new thought of God*, then, as given by Christ, separates the modern from the ancient world.

(b) Again, closely allied to this new conception of God, and springing out of it, was the *new conception of man*, as given by Christ. Antiquity did not recognize humanity. Paganism had a low conception of God, and consequently a low conception of man. Brilliant as Greece was in the history of civilization, she had a contempt for the poor and for "barbarians"; because the notion

of a universal God and Father was unknown to her. In the Christian revelation, we have God seeking man, rather than man seeking God; we have God speaking to His creatures, who, though originally made in His image, had marred that image by sin, as a person speaks to a person, in accents of tender solicitude and love, seeking to turn them back to Himself. Now what must be the effect of this redemption of the individual on man himself? Surely such a thought as this: of what *intrinsic worth and dignity* must that nature in man be which is sought by God; to which such a Divine message of reconciliation as we have in the gospel is addressed; and whose intelligent assent and willing service are so earnestly desired.

[October 28.]

(c) APART from the gospel, we are almost ready to question whether some of our depraved fellow-men are worth saving at all, or capable of being saved; but when revealed by Christ in this new light—as objects of the Father's love, as all precious in His sight—they are invested with a dignity which makes it worth our while to save and rescue them. True, Christ has painted the nature of sin in dark and dreadful colors; but just because human nature is itself so noble; so capable of realizing a high ideal. Hence His great doctrine is *regeneration*—the re-forming of man after the Divine image by the Holy Ghost. The cardinal truths of Christianity are based on this grand conception of man's true nature, when redeemed by the Son of God. No such conception, and therefore no such hopes and possibilities, ever entered into the mind before they were given by Christ.

(d) And that Incarnate Life on earth itself proves the worth of human character, the worth of man. Christ's life suggests the height of nobleness at which any life may aim. The incarnation was "a prophecy of what man may become." That perfect Life was a type of the final perfection of humanity. It teaches, moreover, that everything in human nature, except sin, is capable of being consecrated to a Divine service. There was nothing belonging to man which

Christ did not take unto Himself when He took our humanity. Hence life, in all its aspects and relations, is richer since He lived. Infancy is holier because He was an infant. Motherhood is nobler since He did "not despise the virgin's womb." Labor has become more dignified than it was even among the Jews, because His "Divine hand touched the plane." Companionship is dearer, "because He loved and was loved."

Social life and joys have been made more sacred since He took part in social intercourse, and at a wedding-feast wrought His first miracle. The most fascinating of all arts—music—has been consecrated to Divine worship, because in the last solemn hours of His life He joined His disciples in singing a hymn; and congregational music and exultant chants now express the joyous faith of Christianity. Philosophy does not sing; unbelief does not sing; but true religion will be "jubilant with song." Christ blessed and sanctified all the affections and faculties of the human soul, and greatly ennobled the idea of man. And the race has become emphatically a new race since Christ thus, in word and life, and in His death upon the Cross to procure man's salvation, witnessed to the essential worth and dignity of man.

(e) Such a truth has had immense and fruitful power. Life can now be no longer despised; for each individual life—the lowest and the poorest—is full of promise. Despots and emperors have fought against it; but such an impulse once given can never pass from the life of the world. It became the germ of future freedoms; teaching potentates and governments that they exist for the individual; not the individual for them. For it is from this idea of *personality* and consequent responsibility, to which Christ witnessed, that the rights of man have sprung.

It was Christ who founded the only true school of spiritual freedom, which at length triumphed over the greatest political power the world has seen. The sacred reverence for conscience which He instilled, sets that conscience free; and freedom of thought, and civil and religious liberty are of the essence of the principle for which Christ lived and died. It is the bread which He

cast upon the waters; and which *we* have found after many days.

(*f*) In all the ancient civilizations, everything was based on authority. In political matters, it was the authority of the reigning monarch; in social matters, that of the superior castes and elders; in domestic matters, that of the father; in spiritual matters, that of the shastras and priests. The mind of the people was thus held in political, social, and spiritual thralldom. The majesty of the human soul was completely forgotten. The spiritual degeneracy of the lower orders was inevitable. The idea of the rights of the people, of the responsibility of a king to his subjects, of electoral representation, of local self-government had scarcely begun to dawn. All the states of the old world, even the freest commonwealths of Greece, were founded on the principle that man did not belong to himself. But the social Christianity of Christ uprooted this notion; and in showing that all men belong to God gave back to man his individuality, and so in

giving man back to himself, gave him to his fellows. Side by side with the command to "honor the king," we are told to "honor *all* men"; and that has since been the chief factor in all social and political reform. States perish while the individual citizen is immortal.

These two root ideas, then,—a nobler and more humane conception of God, and the essential worth and dignity of man, of each separate personality—and the sentiments and judgments related to them, lie at the basis of all social and benevolent reforms, and of the onward progress of the world. They entered, first of all, into a society abounding, as we have seen, with corrupt practices, rife with all kinds of domestic abuses and social tyrannies, where the strong bore down the weak and the rich oppressed the poor. Planting their influences in the individual soul, they gradually infused a moral and transforming force into family, social, and national relations—creating a social brotherhood and making all things new.

—*T. E. Slater.*

SCIENCE AT THE BEGINNING OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.*

BY DR. PAUL CARUS.

DURING the eighteenth century mankind had taken a lofty flight upon the wings of science; the most sanguine hopes seemed on the verge of fulfillment, and the promise of a golden age appeared to be near its realization. But, alas! the storm of the French Revolution swept over France, ushering in with its bloodshed and rapine a dreary reaction accompanied first by a long period of lamentable wars, and, when peace was restored, by a general stagnation of political and scientific progress. Mankind actually lost faith in its ideals; and liberty came to be considered as a most dangerous commodity which had to be suppressed in religion, science, philosophy, trade, and politics.

The eighteenth century can boast of a brilliant galaxy of illustrious names. An

enthusiastic trust in science had seized the minds of the people, setting a humanitarian movement afoot, which went by the name of *Aufklärung*, *éclaircissement*, or enlightenment, trusting in freedom and confiding in the practical applicability of man's reason. Under the noble auspices of such aspirations the foundation of our own nation was laid on the shores of the new world; and the bold spirit of a liberty-loving, progressive humanitarianism is so indelibly impressed upon the national character of the United States of North America that we must stand and fall with it. If these ideals are wrong we shall have to go to the wall; if they are right we shall find, although it may be after many bitter experiences, the path to a higher evolution of humanity.

The beginning of the nineteenth century

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

still found the heroes of the eighteenth century in their prime, and we cannot but say that they anticipated the great results achieved in the later decades of the nineteenth century. Above all, the harmonious interrelation of the laws of nature, their essential oneness, and the idea of evolution had become established truths which were appreciated in their elevating influence and religious importance. Treviranus¹ and Lamarck² continued the work of Linné,³ Wolff,⁴ Bonnet,⁵ and Haller,⁶ eagerly seeking for proofs of an uninterrupted development of all life upon earth according to universal laws. Kant⁷ had written his "Critique of Pure Reason," laying the corner stone of philosophy as a science; Herder,⁸ the superintendent general of the church of the duchy of Saxe-Weimar, had applied the theory of evolution to human civilization and religion in his "Ideas on the History of Mankind"; while the religious-philosophical views of the time found a grand expression in the poetry of Goethe.⁹ We cannot better characterize the spirit of the time than in the thoughts of these representative men.

Yet, we must add, their seeds fell upon a stony ground; the governments had become suspicious of free inquiry, to which the origin of the Revolution was ascribed, while the people down to the lowest classes had suffered much by the misapplication of liberty and the mistakes of a pseudo¹⁰ enlightenment. Thus the general enthusiasm for progress, liberty, and education subsided, and the heroes of thought fell out of touch with the public. Yet they still carried on the work, although they felt their isolation and were often disheartened by the cold chill of popular indifference.

The dough must be leavened again, and now, approaching the close of the nineteenth century, we look back, not without satisfaction, upon many years of successful investigations in all the various branches of science. The youthful enthusiasm which expected to reach the goal by a bee-line cut has passed away. We have now become conscious of the many mistakes and the narrowness of the advocates of the *éclaircisse-*

ment. We see now the tremendous scope of a true enlightenment and know what an immense labor the slow growth of a higher development of the human race requires. Yet after all we have not lost our trust in science nor our confidence in the ideals of humanity.

I. THE EVOLUTION IDEA.

IN speaking of "evolution" we must bear in mind that the word now has not the same meaning as it formerly had. We now use the term in a general sense as the doctrine that all life develops according to uniform laws from elementary beginnings. It was different in the eighteenth and at the beginning of the nineteenth century, for the term "evolution"¹¹ then denoted what it literally meant, viz., unfoldment, which was one special theory of the development of organized beings. The evolutionists of the eighteenth century (especially Bonnet and Haller) assumed that the hen's egg, for instance, contained an exceedingly minute chick, which by nourishment increased in size until its form became visible to the naked eye. In the same way all life upon earth was supposed to have existed from the beginning in latency; and its growth was thought of simply as a process of evolving or unfolding.

Opposed to evolutionism two theories were set forth. Occasionalism, the theory of special acts of creation, maintained that God had on special occasions created new animals; while the epigenesis¹² theory, first propounded by Caspar Friedrich Wolff in his *Theoria Generationis*,¹³ explained development by additional growth. This latter view and not the theory of unfoldment, finally triumphed; but while the word "epigenesis" was dropped, the term "evolution" in the sense of the epigenesis theory was readopted.

In the first decade of the nineteenth century Lamarck published his *Philosophie Zoologique*¹⁴ (1809) and Treviranus his *Biologie*¹⁵ (1802-1805); both remarkable productions impregnated with the most advanced spirit of the age, both propounding the maturest results of natural science, and

paving the way to a rational conception of nature. Yet both met with the sad fate of being ridiculed and then ignored by those who might have best understood their importance. Not the church, but professional naturalists, suppressed both Lamarck and Treviranus. The theories of special creations and of catastrophism, as propounded by Cuvier,¹⁶ in those days the greatest authority in science, gained the upper hand and were considered as the only sober interpretation of natural facts.

II. KANT.

ALL the important works of Kant, especially his "Prolegomena" to Any Future Metaphysics," his "Critique of Pure Reason," his "Critique of Practical Reason," and his "Critique of Judgment" were written in the eighteenth century, his last writings being on "Religion Within the Bounds of Reason Only" (1794), "The Metaphysical Principles of Jurisprudence and Ethics" (1797), "Contest of the Faculties" (1798) and "Anthropology" (1798).

Kant was both a rigid thinker and a man of great piety. His great merit is that he cleared the ground for philosophical inquiry, by discovering the problem whose proper solution is the main task and duty of the philosopher. The sciences employ certain methods which presuppose the acceptance of certain principles. Thus the physicist¹⁸ traces causes and effects, and shows how one phenomenon changes into another, yet the law of causation he takes for granted, he believes in it *a priori*, i.e., beforehand or from the start, for it is the indispensable tool of his thoughts without which he cannot bring order into the chaos of his experiences. All those principles in their systematic entirety which scientists apply in their empirical inquiries, are what Kant calls in one word "pure reason"; and the gist of his philosophy consists in making an inventory of pure reason, and critically discussing its various corollaries¹⁹ in practical life, in ethics, in art, and in religion. Kant's criticism probed all problems thoroughly and fearlessly, and in spite of his reverence for religion he never

shrank from investigating the philosophical foundations of man's religious faith.

The great Frederick of Prussia, however, appropriately called the philosopher on the throne, died and was succeeded by his narrow-minded nephew Frederick William II., who, partly by the natural inclination of bigotry and probably also under the influence of his impressions of the terrors of the French Revolution, saw danger in Kant's philosophy, and sent him a mandate imposing upon him the injunction no more to write or lecture on any religious topic.

What could be expected of the nineteenth century when the greatest thinker of the age was forbidden to speak out boldly and freely? The immediate successors of Kant fell far below the high-water mark of his genius, and philosophy could only be resuscitated and imbued with the modern spirit of the nineteenth century by going back to Kant and resuming the work where he had left it.

III. HERDER.

THE theology of the eighteenth century reached a dangerous crisis in its evolution. Turgot,²⁰ one of the clearest-headed thinkers of all times, seemed to presage the danger which threatened to crush religion, and when prior of the Sorbonne²¹ he delivered his impressive and famous "Discourse on the Advantages which the Establishment of Christianity has procured to the Human Race," July 3d, 1750.

The hostility toward religion had not as yet openly shown itself. Montesquieu²² had suppressed in his "Persian Letters" all passages which he thought might be offensive to the church, and Voltaire²³ was still on good terms with the Catholic priests, especially the Jesuits who had educated him. It characterizes the keen penetration of Turgot that he does not seek the essence of Christianity in the miraculous accounts of the Bible but in its humanitarian spirit, the principle of love, of human dignity, and of equality before God. Turgot stood almost alone in France between two camps, the bigots and the infidels; the former, blind to the great progress of sci-

ence and industry, were complaining with Bossuet²⁴ of the general corruption of the age; the latter praised the glory of the *éclaircissement*, and began more and more boldly to ridicule the Christian church and its faith, going so far as to join in Voltaire's battle cry of *Écraser l'infâme*,²⁵ forgetful of the fact that Christianity had been for many centuries the main champion of brotherly spirit, charity, and human rights. Turgot found no successor of his spirit in France. The two extremes developed side by side, and contributed their share to bringing on the deluge of the Revolution.

German theology had produced among the Protestants a new theory which went by the name of Rationalism and was closely allied with the *Aufklärung* movement of the eighteenth century. The Rationalists attempted to explain the origin of Christianity and its miracles in a natural way, but they lacked the historical sense; they naïvely imputed to Christ and the Apostles the ideas and sentiments of modern philosophers with all their well-intentioned but artificial and philistine²⁶ morality.

Herder rose in arms against the rationalist movement. Influenced by Rousseau,²⁷ who in reaction to the unnatural conditions of the French civilization exhibited a strong love for nature; by Hamann,²⁸ the Magus of the North, a mystical thinker and a genius of a peculiarly erratic nature but not without depth and an instinctive feeling for important truths; by Winckelmann,²⁹ the great esthetician and most prominent connoisseur³⁰ of classical art and of the renaissance; by Lessing³¹ and by Kant; Herder saw in Christianity a great historical movement of which we have as yet seen very little. The New Testament was to him the fulfillment of the Old Testament so that the kernel of the former appeared in the latter simply by a removal of the shell, and it revealed Christ to us who according to the divine plan of the world's evolution realized the kingdom of God on earth.

When Christianity was introduced among the nations, Herder says, it contained many mundane ingredients, and necessarily so. Nor is their presence to be lamented, for

through them alone could it exercise a powerful influence upon the mundane elements of mankind. It appeared with the pretensions of becoming a cosmic religion but it had to educate the human race to this aim slowly and by degrees through all the stages of childhood, barbarism, idolatry, and sensuality. Herder wrote:

"The doctrine of Christianity must become like a clear stream, which precipitates and deposits all those national and particular opinions which clung to it like sediments held in its waters. Thus the first Apostles of Christianity dropped their Jewish prejudices when they prepared the idea of the Gospel for all the nations; and this purification of Christianity *must be continued* in this century. Many forms have been broken; others will have to go too, not through external violence but through an inner thriving germ."

With this cosmic conception of Christianity Herder stood aloof from both parties of his time, the Pietists and the Rationalists. His religion demanded a rigorous criticism such as was exercised by Lessing, and his Christianity could stand it. Herder was not satisfied with the shallow prattle of rationalistic expounders. His Christianity was philosophical but not a mere abstraction. It seized his sentiments with a holy zeal without making him sentimental. It was to him a historical fact, but he felt at the same time free to investigate history and accept the results of a scientific inquiry whatever they might be. For Christianity to Herder was not Christian dogmatism, but the life as Christ lived it; Christianity had to be based upon "the demonstration of the spirit and of power," which must remain an intrinsic reality in the present and all the further evolution of the church, and Christianity was his cherished ideal mainly on account of the great potentialities which it contained.

IV. GOETHE.

HERDER powerfully influenced Goethe when the latter was still in a plastic state of mind. They met in Strassburg; the former was at that time the tutor of the prince of Holstein-Eutin and had become generally well known through the publication of his "Fragments on the Later German Literature," the latter a young student.

of law at the university, amiable, ingenious, but unknown. How much Herder, by five years the senior of Goethe, contributed to mature the mind of the young poet-philosopher may be learned from the tenth book of *Wahrheit und Dichtung*,³² where Goethe tells us how they met and became acquainted, how Herder had to undergo a painful operation of the lachrymal gland, and how the discussions with him opened new vistas before his mental eye. Here is a characteristic instance. Goethe writes :

"We had not lived together long in this way when he confided to me that it was his intention to compete for the prize which had been offered at Berlin for the best treatise on the origin of language. His work was already near its completion, and as he wrote a very neat hand he was soon able to deliver to me in installments a legible manuscript. I had never pondered on such topics; I was as yet too much engaged in the middle of things to reflect upon the beginning and the end.

"Furthermore, the question seemed superfluous: for if God had created man as man, language must have been created with him as much as his upright gait; just as he must have at once remarked that he could walk and take hold of things, so he must also have been just as naturally aware that he could sing with his throat, and modify his tones in many different ways by his tongue, palate, and lips.

"If man was of divine origin, so was language. And if man, viewed in the surroundings of nature, was a natural being, language also was natural. These two things, like body and soul, I could never separate. Süßmilch,³³ a crude realist, yet of a slightly fantastic turn of mind, had decided for the divine origin, that is, that God had played the schoolmaster with the first human beings. Herder's treatise was designed to show how man, as man, purely by his individual powers could and must obtain a language. I read the treatise with great pleasure and special profit; but I did not stand high enough, either in knowledge or in thought, to establish an opinion upon it."

Goethe's mental evolution was more rapid than that of any other mortal. He soon embodied in his mind all the problems of his time, and worked them out in his thoughts so that they reappeared in the poetic form of dramas, rhapsodies, or works of fiction. Goethe's investigations in the domain of natural science made with the clearly understood aim of proving evolution, have only of late been recognized in their full importance, and we now understand that his poems, "The Metamorphosis

of Plants" and "The Metamorphosis of Animals," contain an outline of the modern view of their development. The keynote of the evolution theory is pronounced in the distich :

"No one resembleth another, yet all have a typical likeness,
Therefore a mystical law is by their chorus revealed."

Goethe soon broke away from the traditional dogmatism and raved for a time with the boisterous spirits of Storm and Stress,³⁴ but he outgrew them quickly and widened into that breadth of cosmic religion which made him the prophet of the future. With a strong intellectual grasp he combined a sensitive heart and deep emotions. He describes his own experiences when he introduces Faust in his study, just returned from a walk with Wagner and accompanied by the black poodle who is none else than Mephistopheles, the devil. Faust is longing for religious comfort and peace of soul, which Goethe beautifully expresses in these words :

"Ah, when within our narrow chamber
The lamp with friendly luster glows,
Then in the breast flames up each ember,
In th' heart which its own feelings knows.
Then Hope again lends sweet assistance,
And Reason then resumes her speech :
One yearns, the rivers of existence,
The very founts of Life, to reach."

The poodle, displeased with the holy longing in the bosom of Faust, begins to snarl, and disturbs his thoughts. In his thirst for the living waters of true contentment, Faust opens the New Testament and begins to translate the original text of the first verse of the Gospel according to St. John :

"'Tis written: 'In the Beginning was the *Word*.'
Here am I balked: who, now, can help afford?
'The Word'?—impossible so high to rate it;
And otherwise must I translate it,
If by the Spirit I am truly taught.
Then thus: 'In the Beginning was the *Thought*.'
This first line let me weigh completely,
Lest my impatient pen proceed too fleetly,
Is it 'the *Thought*' which works, creates, indeed?
'In the Beginning was the *Power*,' I read.
Yet, as I write, a warning is suggested,
That I the sense may not have fairly tested.
The Spirit aids me; now I see the light!
'In the Beginning was the *Act*,' I write."

The problematic word in the Greek text is *λόγος* (*logos*), which means "word." The Greek word *logos* is derived from the same root as *logic* and means the rational sound freighted with significance. The word is the revelation of the spirit; it is the spirit as it manifests itself, as it exists in real actuality; and the author of the Fourth Gospel tells us that Christ *is* this *logos*. Those familiar with the philosophy of the times understand the meaning of this expression to be that the divine spirit which reveals itself in the rational speech of man has found a peculiarly perfect embodiment in Jesus Christ. Faust's and, we might as well say, Goethe's difficulty in translating the word *logos* is not philological²⁵ but practical. The expanse of man's horizon, the unprecedented development of science, the many new tasks and problems of the living present, demanded a deeper investigation of our religious resources.

The four German words which are proposed to translate the Greek *logos* are (1) *Wort* (pronounced *vort*, *o* as in port), or "word"; (2) *Sinn* (pronounced *zin*), here translated by *thought*: it means "significance, sense, meaning"; (3) *Kraft*, or "power"; (4) *That* (pronounced *tat*, *a* as in father), here translated by *act*. *That*, from *thuen* (pronounced *too'en*), to do, is any doing, any purposive activity, deed, or action.

Goethe's solution of the religious problem is foreshadowed in these lines; it is at bottom the same as Herder's, for Goethe demands our religion to be a living deed, an energetic aspiration to attend to the duties of life and a practical application of the spirit in which Christ lived and preached.

How narrow appeared the pusillanimous conception of the average theologian by the side of Goethe's view! How insignificant is the miraculous element in Christianity compared with its living presence in the advance of mankind! While we outgrow the legendary embellishments, we the better grasp the true spirit and the inner meaning of Christianity. From this standpoint the liberalism and the enlightenment of the eighteenth century no longer ap-

peared dangerous but were the promise of a nobler future of mankind. The representatives of liberty and enlightenment had proved too narrow to understand the value of their ideals and misapplied them in all the fields of life. While the conception of Christianity became identified with the oppression of all aspirations for freedom and scientific progress, Goethe boldly proclaimed the ideal of a free people standing upon a free soil as endorsed by the last result of wisdom, and we dare say that in saying this he thought of the noble ideals of our country. To conquer daily freedom and existence again and again is our destiny; our religion must manifest itself in our deeds and those who are earnest will gain immortality in the reality of life.

The old Faust shortly before his death, laying out his plans to drain the marsh, to dam the ocean, and gain more room for the expanse of human life, says:

"To many millions let me furnish soil,
Though not secure, yet free to active toil;
Green, fertile fields, where men and herds go forth
At once, with comfort, on the newest Earth,
And swiftly settled on the hill's firm base,
Created by the bold, industrious race.
A land like Paradise here, round about:
Up to the brink the tide may roar without,
And through it gnaw, to burst with force the limit,
By common impulse all unite to hem it.
Yes! to this thought I hold with firm persistence;
The last result of wisdom stamps it true:
He only earns his freedom and existence,
Who daily conquers them anew.
Thus here, by dangers girt, shall glide away
Of childhood, manhood, age, the vigorous day:
And such a throng I fain would see,—
Stand on free soil among a people free!
Then dared I hail the Moment fleeing:
'Ah, still delay—thou art so fair!'
The traces cannot, of mine earthly being,
In æons perish,—they are there!
In proud fore-feeling of such lofty bliss,
I now enjoy the highest Moment,—this!"

How Goethe deepened the religious traditions of the past reconciling the struggling contrasts of his time, appears best in his God-conception. He rejected the old dualistic view which separated the cosmos²⁶ into an outside God who resided above the world; and an irrational, purely materialistic nature deprived of the glory of divinity. His nature was divine, and his God

was in nature. A supernatural God had no meaning to him, for the essence of God's being is activity, creation, life; and the very idea of a worker without his work, a creator not creating, life not realized, was to him a contradiction. Thus Goethe says:

"The God above my powers enthroned
He cannot change external forces,
The God that in my breast is owned
Can deeply stir the inward sources."

The same idea is expressed in the lines:

"What were a God who from the outside stirred
So that the world around His finger whirled?
He from within the Universe must move,
Nature in Him and Him in nature prove.
Thus all that in Him lives and moves and is
Will ne'er His power and His spirit miss."

Let me conclude by quoting one more poem, the translation of which is here published for the first time:

"When in the infinite appeareth
The same eternal repetition,

When in harmonious coalition
A mighty dome its structure reareth,
A rapture thrills through all existence,
All stars, or great or small, are blessed.
Yet all the strife and all resistance
In God, the Lord, 's eternal rest."

Kant, Treviranus, Lamarck, Herder, Goethe, these were the most prominent leaders of thought when the nineteenth century began. Their work to a great extent seemed in vain, and many valuable suggestions remained unheeded for many decades. But the progress of mankind cannot be checked, and science has recovered the ground lost during the sorry times of a long reaction. Our trust in science, our confidence in the ideals of humanity, our conviction that man's rational nature is the stamp of his divinity, have never been stronger than they are now, and we have good reasons to hope that the steps we have taken in advance shall never be retraced.

THE NEWSPAPER PRESS OF EUROPE.

BY H. R. CHAMBERLAIN.

THE history of the development of journalism into a great factor and influence in the daily life of the American people is the history of the electric telegraph. The analogy holds good in a more restricted sense when applied to the newspaper press of Europe. The American newspaper utilizes to the fullest extent every resource supplied by science for the quick transmission of intelligence. The European newspaper, speaking broadly, does not.

Judged then by its own first standard of journalistic duty—and that means also the standard which its readers apply—the American press is far and away in advance of European and all other rivals. Hence it is that most Americans visiting Europe regard the continental and even the English newspapers with a good deal of impatient contempt. But this feeling diminishes and, as regards English journalism, disappears when its characteristics and methods are closely studied.

It is impossible to discuss the newspapers

of England and the newspapers of the continent in the same terms. The contrast between the languages in which they are printed is not greater than the difference in all their essential features.

The great journals of London, with the exception of the *Times*, do not average much older than their leading contemporaries in America. Most of them have gained fame and influence within half a century. In almost every case, power and prosperity have come as the reward of superiority in the news field and not as the result of advocacy of some political or other popular cause. It has usually been some special stroke of enterprise in news collecting, some great "beat" in technical parlance, which has caused a paper's circulation to mount by leaps and bounds. New readers once gained, all English newspaper managers know, it is comparatively easy to hold them.

Progress in English journalism, during the century, has been intermittent and not steady. The contrast between a London newspaper

of one hundred years ago and a current copy of the *Times*, *Standard*, or *Telegraph* is of course tremendous. But the first forty years of the century and the last fifteen were periods of very sluggish growth. It was the demand for war news during the third quarter of the century that made the daily newspaper a great popular institution in England. The patronage of the people and the newly born electric telegraph enabled the editors of that transition period to develop journalism into a perpetual and mighty power in the land. Then followed, from 1875 to 1885 and later, the rapid cheapening of white paper, which made possible the publication of newspapers at popular prices, a penny and a ha' penny.¹ It may be said without fear of contradiction that the advent of woodpulp paper has more than trebled the newspaper circulation of Great Britain.

I have intimated that the past fifteen years have not shown rapid improvement in the profession of journalism in England or rather in London. I am tempted to go further and say that the provincial press of England has outstripped the great metropolitan journals. There are several newspapers in the English midlands and in Scotland that need not fear comparison in any respect with their more famous London contemporaries.

The reason for London's halt in the march of journalistic progress is not far to seek. It is lack of competition. There is none of the keen rivalry between the principal morning journals of London that exists between the leading newspapers of New York or Chicago. It seems to be true of the leaders of the London press that prosperity is the enemy of progress. Each paper has its own readers and its special field. Its managers are content to enjoy the profits of which they feel secure, without venturing upon any innovations which involve the expenditure of money.

A literary man of some prominence called not long ago upon the news editor of one of London's greatest dailies and gave him information about a matter of genuine public importance and widespread popular interest. The editor thanked him courteously enough, but when he offered to write out the news in the form of an article, the newspaper man-

ager said no, he could not accept it. The members of their own staff supplied them with all the news they could possibly print, and it mattered not what the subject or how great its importance he could not accept an outside contribution. Three or four days later, the intelligence thus proffered appeared simultaneously in all the papers in identical language, it having finally reached the press through the recognized channel of a news agency. But what would be said of such an editor, or rather of such a system, in America?

Perhaps the most striking demonstration of the lack of enterprise of the London press was that furnished by the loss of the battleship *Victoria* and the drowning of Admiral Tryon and nearly four hundred others. It is one of the oddest incidents in journalism that the news of that great disaster was printed at the very antipodes of the spot of its occurrence, namely in Buenos Ayres, several hours before it was published elsewhere. The London correspondent of *La Nacion*² of Buenos Ayres happened to meet a distinguished member of the diplomatic corps at two o'clock of the night following the disaster. The diplomat gave to the newspaper man the startling intelligence which had just come to him by private despatch. The difference in time between London and Buenos Ayres enabled the fortunate correspondent to cable the news in ample season for publication in the morning edition of his paper.

The lamentable weakness of the London press consisted in its failure to obtain the story of the calamity until nearly a week after it occurred. In the meantime American enterprise, with far less than the interest of the kinsmen and countrymen of the victims to stimulate it, had collected the essential facts on the coast of Tripoli, telegraphed them to the principal journals in the United States, whence they were cabled back to the slow-going editors in London, who reprinted them under a humiliating New York date-line.

One reason for the poor showing made by English and all European newspapers in the business of collecting the news of the world is the absence of all co-operation. In America we have the United Press and the Associated Press, two great news-collecting or-

ganizations composed of and controlled by the individual newspapers which form their membership. The only European institution for doing such work is a combination of private or independent news agencies which exchange the intelligence gathered in their respective fields. Thus there is Reuter's agency in England, the Havas agency in France, the Wolff in Germany, and the Stephanie in Italy. These concerns collect the news of the world after a fashion and sell it to newspapers and other subscribers.

The great London dailies have of course their own correspondents in the principal capitals who devote themselves chiefly to discussing local and international politics and who send also special accounts of important events which have been definitely expected. But the chief reliance of the British and continental press for the routine and unexpected news of the world is upon the meager and often slow reports furnished by agencies over which they have no control.

Another important reason for the closely restricted supply of international news furnished by the European press is the heavy cost of transmission. The telegraphs of Europe are under government control. The authorities still maintain the unwise policy of limiting the exchange of intelligence across frontiers by refusing to establish special tolls for press messages. Thus it costs four cents per word for all matter telegraphed from London to Paris, a rate just twelve times greater than the tolls on press despatches sent the same distance in the United States, and larger than the press charge between New York and San Francisco. Who can say how much this policy of restriction in communication has prolonged international jealousies and prejudices which are based mainly upon ignorance? Each country within its own boundaries makes liberal concessions to the press. In Great Britain, the day press rate from Queenstown to London or between any two points in the kingdom is one shilling^a per hundred words.

While criticising the English press as a purveyor of news, we should not fail to acknowledge its strength in other respects. If we compare the literary qualities of the average

newspaper of England with the average newspaper of the United States I fear we cannot claim any superiority for the American journalist. "Newspaper English" in England is dull, heavy, involved, but it is grammatically pure in most cases.

The average English newspaper is in a sense a more symmetrical compendium of daily human history than the average American journal, and yet the American newspaper sticks closer to human nature than its English contemporary. I am speaking of the ordinary daily issues of the press of the two countries and my statement is not as contradictory as first appears. The tendency of the American journal is to reserve for its Sunday issue its treatment of many important features of human history and progress. Its articles on art and science and religion and current literature and other phases of modern life are most of them printed in the Sunday paper.

The great dailies of England have no Sunday editions. All their resources are therefore put into the week-day issues. The result, as I have said, is a more symmetrical newspaper six times a week. There is nothing in England, or elsewhere for that matter, with which to compare the American Sunday paper. The London Sunday morning or late Saturday night journal is a pitiful substitute for the great magazine of news, fiction, and general literature issued once a week by the newspaper press of every large American city. This peculiarly American institution is coming to England and I am confident its advent will not be much longer delayed.

And there is coming also a new era of rapid progress in English journalism. Competition will inaugurate it and the best American methods will be its earlier models. The founding of a new journal in London may be the first step, but it is more probable that some existing paper, perhaps in new hands, will lead the way. The new journalism will get closer to the hearts and the lives of the people, closer to genuine human experience. It will deal less exclusively with subjects of solemn importance and more with topics of everyday human interest. We may even live

long enough, some of us, to read a joke in the London *Times* or to see a picture in the *Daily News*.

Most English journalists, and English readers as well, are severe in their condemnation of what they call the sensationalism and trashiness of the American press. While I am ready to admit much justice in the criticism, I must draw attention to the fact that English journals, even the best of them, are greater offenders than American in their manner of treating disagreeable subjects. The London *Times* for instance would scorn to print a society scandal as a prominent piece of news; but when the matter reaches the divorce court the *Times* will tell the story, in small type to be sure and in its obscure page of "Law Reports," but in language more bald and in details more detestable than a "sensational" American journal would dare to employ.

Many Englishmen agree that the New York *Tribune* closely resembles a typical British journal and consequently it ranks highest in their estimation among American newspapers. This opinion is an interesting demonstration of the superficiality of popular judgment of the press. The *Tribune* does bear some resemblance to its English contemporaries in general appearance. It is like them in size, shape, width of columns, absence of black headlines and other typographical features. But the proprietors of the *Tribune* might not feel complimented if they were told that in contents their paper was modeled upon the English style of journalism.

We have nothing in America even remotely resembling the journalism of the continent of Europe. It is impossible to discuss in a brief review such as this more than the French and German press. I must make one noteworthy exception, in order to pay a just tribute to journalistic excellence. The best newspaper in Europe, in my opinion, is published not in Paris or Berlin and is a journal which probably not one American in a thousand will recognize by name. It is the *Independence Belge*^a of Brussels. It makes its own news collections in Belgium and throughout Europe and its correspondents

do their work more promptly, more thoroughly, and more accurately than any other staff upon the continent. The *Independence Belge* has brought into highest efficiency the facilities furnished by the long distance telephone system. It is a common thing for important news from Paris, Berlin, Vienna, and even Rome to be received in London *via* the office of the *Independence Belge* in Brussels in advance of direct telegrams from the respective capitals. It has happened more than once that news of unexpected events connected with French political crises and anarchist outrages in the past year has been printed in Brussels before the slower Paris press has made it public.

The century has not brought many changes in the material characteristics of the Paris press. Its daily issues continue to be four-page sheets, the strictly news contents of which would fill about three columns only of an American newspaper. The French journalist aims chiefly to entertain his readers; the English journalist seeks solely to instruct them; the American journalist tries to do both. The French journal therefore is often frivolous, the English stupid, and the American sometimes both.

The birth or death of a daily paper is a weekly occurrence in Paris. In no city are the changes in daily journalism so frequent and so extreme. It is not uncommon for the circulation of a newspaper to change from twenty thousand to two hundred thousand or *vice versa* in a week. This is not true of course of a few prominent journals like the *Petit Journal*,^b with its circulation of more than a million copies daily in the provinces, the *Figaro*,^c the *Temps*,^d the *Gaulois*,^e the *Eclair*,^f and a few others. The *feuilleton*, or sensational romance, continues to be a prominent feature of most journals and the daily installment usually occupies the lower third of the last page. There is little disposition to abandon the personal element in French journalism and political and other leading articles still appear over the writers' names.

The evening papers, great in number and variety, probably have an equal if not larger aggregate circulation in Paris compared with their morning contemporaries. This is not

true in any other European capital. Berlin indeed has no evening papers in addition to the editions issued very late in the day by four or five morning journals. A local regulation forbidding the news venders of Paris to call out any description of the contents of their wares has led many Paris journals to disfigure themselves by printing catchy headings in great black letters across the full width of the first page—a very poor imitation of the much overdone “scare head” system in American papers.

The journalistic field in Berlin is much overcrowded. No less than thirty-two daily papers are now published there and their circulation ranges from a few score to about one hundred thousand. The experiment of introducing American methods has recently proved popular. The editor of the *Berliner Lokal Anzeiger*¹⁰ studied the ways of journalism in the United States and then applied some of its principles in Berlin with the result that his paper probably has more readers than any other. The *Vossische Zeitung*¹¹ is the oldest and perhaps the best written paper in Berlin, while its popular nickname “Tante Voss” (Aunt Voss) indicates its slow conservatism. The *Berliner Tageblatt*¹² is the journal probably best known outside the fatherland.

But I should be inclined to go outside the capital to find the best and most influential German newspapers. There is no better paper in the empire for instance than the *Cologne Gazette*, while the *Correspondent* and the *Nachrichten*¹³ of Hamburg and the *Zeitung*¹⁴ of Frankfort are excellent journals.

The German newspaper as a whole is of a soberer, more solid stamp than the French. It contains more information of a useful sort.

America and Americans have a serious cause of complaint against the press of Europe, Great Britain included. The press is responsible for the widespread ignorance and misinformation about American affairs which prevail throughout the Old World. Only the most meager scraps of intelligence from the United States are printed. This little is the most ill-chosen and unrepresentative that could be found. It comprises brief despatches about fires, accidents, riots, strikes, murders, and lynchings, and other atrocities in distant and unknown settlements. Only two features of our politics are ever touched upon—the tariff and financial legislation. It is only in recent years that the increasing army of American tourists and the growing circulation of general literature have counteracted some of the absurd popular impressions about America.

I happened to ask a waitress in a little Swiss restaurant a few weeks ago if she saw many Americans among the tourists.

“Are you an American?” she asked in astonishment. “I thought you were English. I supposed all Americans were black!”

It will be a long time before the press of Europe makes its readers as well informed about the affairs of the wide world under other flags as are even the children in the public schools of America. But the spirit of the age is toward knowledge and liberalism, and the press of all lands must be its responsive barometer.

THE GERMANS.

BY SIDNEY WHITMAN.

IT is barely within the memory of the present living middle-aged generation since Germany has come to occupy once more the political standing she enjoyed before the Reformation and which her geographical position—as well as the correct reading of her past history—warrants her to hold as legitimately belonging to her.

But the importance of the political events of the last thirty years is not even now fully realized by the public at large, although they already mean nothing less than the displacement of the Catholic (Austria) and the Celto-Roman (France) by the mainly Protestant Teuton in the hegemony of Europe. Nor is the significance of this change limited in its

effects to the scope of politics of the Cabinet ; it may be said to affect indirectly many branches of national life on the continent of Europe for good or evil, possibly for many generations to come. But where the average unit fails to "see," we find unseen spiritual and intellectual forces at work. And it is in these that we can trace the antagonism, the reaction, the rebellion which great dynamic manifestations in the life of nations, as in nature itself, always call forth. Thus, to the close observer, the distinct wave of Anti-Teuton,—so-called Celtic self-assertiveness—which is passing, more or less, over the civilized world, is only a natural phenomenon, a direct outcome of the events already referred to. Even a cursory glance at the part the Teutonic race has played in the making of European history must be of peculiar interest at such a moment.

The people we call the Germans and who call themselves *die Deutschen* are a branch of the Teutonic race which again belongs to the great Aryan family.¹ They are first mentioned in the fourth century B. C. as inhabiting land on the shores of the Baltic. Three centuries later they had already spread out far and wide, and are found settled between the Vistula and the Rhine and from the northern seas as far southward as the Alps. But Germany in those days consisted in great part of huge forests, lakes, and morasses, without sufficient arable land to furnish subsistence for so many. The endeavor to find more genial economic and climatic conditions urged the Germans on still farther south and brought them into first contact and collision with the Romans, about 100 B. C. This event may be considered one of the momentous milestones of history,—this first meeting face to face of two antagonistic worlds, one destined ultimately to rise on the ruins of the other and mark the course of the world's history for many centuries. In the words of Schiller :

*"Das Alte stürzt, es ändern sich die Zeiten,
Und neues Leben blüht aus den Ruinen."*²

On the one hand are the Romans—a race of politicians among whom the idea of the state had risen to never before attained splendor and power, the lawgivers, the colonizers of

the ancient world, the masters of statecraft ; but among whom the seeds of decay are already noticeable. Rome is no longer the Rome of Scipio Africanus: the Senate no longer the stoic body to welcome the defeated general and thank him because he had not despaired of the republic. The unit has deteriorated, for the dominant class is already infected by the spread of luxury and corruption, though all this is still outwardly invisible beneath the glitter of arms of a splendidly trained soldiery. These soldiers are as yet the hardy trained sons of the Roman agriculturist, in time destined to disappear together with the culture of the soil itself amid increasing urban centralization. And pitted against these are the Germans. They are described as tall of stature, with fair auburn hair, which fell in long ringlets over their shoulders. Their eyes are said to have been of such an intense piercing blue as alone to distinguish them easily from other races. War and the chase were their foremost occupations ; drunkenness, laziness, and gambling their vices. But their virtues were great physical courage, utter recklessness of self, chastity among both sexes, and freedom from the treachery so marked in most of the races of the ancient world.

At first, even Roman veterans shrunk from meeting these fierce invaders, so totally different from all hitherto encountered foes. When Marius, the great Roman general, had trained his closely knitted legions to face their onslaught and to defeat them, the Romans still found antagonists in the German women who defended the camp. They strangled their children and then themselves sooner than submit to the dishonor inherent to submission. This was a new and ominous experience for the conquerors.

The German wave was driven back for a time from the South and spent itself more toward the West. But only for a short time. Through centuries we note the old world vainly struggling against the constantly renewed force of the German race, tramping through Europe to the din of arms, laying the foundations of new peoples and dynasties in Germany, in Italy (the Goths, the Longobards), in Spain (the Goths), in France (the Bur-

gundians, the Franks, the Normans), in the Netherlands, even in England (the Saxons, the Northmen), until then a Roman colony peopled by races of Celtic blood. In course of time a new ethic code gained the day in the form of Christianity and gave spiritual tone to the rough manhood swayed alternately by the instinct of separation and a longing for better things, until in the year 800 A. D. we have a mighty German and Christian emperor, Charles the Great, holding sway over the greater part of Europe and exchanging courtesies with the great Mohammedan caliph, Haroun al Raschid. The coronation of Charles the Great in Rome, the central event of the Middle Ages, restored the Roman Empire in the West under the leadership of a new people.

In the pregnant words of Professor Bryce:³

"The inheritance of the Roman Empire made the Germans the ruling race of Europe, and the brilliance of that glorious dawn has never faded and can never fade entirely from their name.

"A peaceful people now, peaceful in sentiment even now when they have become a great military power, acquiescent in paternal government, and given to the quiet enjoyments of art, music, and meditation, they delight themselves with memories of the time when their conquering chivalry was the terror of the Gaul and the Slav, the Lombard and the Saracen."

But although the Latin had ceded to the Teuton in martial prowess, we find a powerful influence having its source in Italy and acting uninterruptedly through all time, even up to the present day, upon the Germans, not merely in matters of religion, but also in other phases of national life.

It is a pet idea of Prince Bismarck that, as in physics and chemistry, so also in the composition of races, a certain fusion of different elements is necessary in order to effect great political results. He instances the French, the English, and the Prussians, all three composite races, as cases in point. Thus, if we take the Teutonic stock as largely supplying the male ingredient in the family of nations, we find an explanation for the irresistible attraction Italy, the supple, the feminine, has ever exerted over her northern neighbors. An idea, political in its inception, wings its flight from Rome the Eternal. The flaming word is uttered by an Italian priesthood

and its echoes reach and call to action King Richard in England, Duke Gottfried of Bouillon in the Netherlands,—even the sturdy Scandinavian fisherman on his fiord hurries forth to shed his blood in the far East. But it is among the Germans that the Crusades become the most extraordinary manifestation of altruistic ideality known to history. Conduct, asceticism, suffering in an ideal cause, fill the record of an age during which the Crusades gleam as a loadstar over the horizon of Germany.

When the work of the sword is done for a time, there is a long lull in the political world. In this period one of the most interesting developments in the history of civilization is gradually taking effect. The remnants of classic literature which had survived the wreckage of the old world, had found a resting place in the churches and monasteries, where they were treasured by the monks, who, notwithstanding their horror of a pagan world, were conscious of their value. It is principally German monks of the Benedictine order to whom we owe the survival of what we possess of classic literature; for they, in the retirement of their monasteries, were busy at work through generations in gathering and copying out and promulgating the manuscripts in their possession. Thus did they contribute their share to the culture of mankind and prepare the ground for the gigantic revival of European culture, commonly known as the "Renaissance" (the Cinque Cento).⁴

German nationality upholds the Roman Empire through this eventful period in the history of Europe. Feudalism is the one great institution which marks the political world, whilst, under the tutelage of the Catholic church, a new culture is struggling into life and thence into magnificent adolescence.

In this period we note the growth of commerce, particularly the power and splendor of Italian and German towns, the grace and culture of the life of the citizen. It is of this period that Ruskin has the following, as referring to Italy, but also more or less marking the current of life in Germany:

"And now, thirdly, we come to the period when classical literature and art were again known in Italy,

and the painters and sculptors, who had been gaining steadily in power for two hundred years—power not of practice merely, but of race also—with every circumstance in their favor around them, received their finally perfect instruction both in geometrical science, in that of materials, and in the anatomy and action of the human body. Also, the people about them, the models of their work, had been perfected in personal beauty by chivalric war; in imagination, by a transcendental philosophy; in practical intellect, by stern struggle for civic law; and by commerce, not in falsely made, or vile, or unclean things, but in lovely things, beautifully and honestly made. And now, therefore, you get out of all the world's long history since it was peopled by men till now—you get just fifty years of perfect work. Perfect. It is a strong word. It is also a *true* one."⁵

This was the time when the German Hanse-towns⁶ possessed more merchant shipping than England; when Germany was the home of merchant princes who helped their monarchs from their own private means; when German architecture was most splendid, when German life was most luxurious, and German manufacture the most renowned. It is a German monk⁷ who discovers the dark compound which was destined to sound the knell of chivalry,—gunpowder; a German⁸ who invents the printing press.

Thus prepared by the work of generations another idea is already in the germ. Wealth and culture had brought luxury and lasciviousness in their train; and here we have the rebellion of the hardier Teuton against the dominant influence of the South. This time it is no longer the dynastic leadership of the throne, but the note issues from the cloister cell, and is uttered by the German peasant son, Martin Luther. He has seen with his own eyes the canker beneath the splendor of pontifical Rome, and he returns home to free his countrymen from what had gradually grown into an intellectual bondage, intolerable to the sons of a hardier soil.

It is difficult to form an adequate idea of the gigantic personality of Martin Luther, as also of the far-reaching influence of his work. But we are able to take note of the typical national tone of his character. Essentially German in his pertinacity, his bluntness, in his coarseness, if you will, but German also in his childlike simplicity and honesty and, above all, in the lofty calmness of his courage. Such was the man who laid the train

which, once ignited, blazed forth in the Reformation all over Europe and found its culminating point in that dreadful scourge known as the Thirty Years' War (1618–1648).

This great struggle was fought out mainly on German soil by Germans, and the price which Germany paid for these birth-throes of modern thought was her political hegemony in Europe. From the end of the Thirty Years' War (which left Germany with about five millions of inhabitants out of her previous sixteen millions) dates the rapid decline of the German Empire. The Germans had lost the political hegemony of Europe, but they had gained freedom of thought. And the gratification of this dominant longing of the national character made them for long comparatively careless of politics, and also indifferent with regard to wealth and luxury. During more than a century and a half the gloom which had overcast the political destinies of the German race is only once lit up by the powerful personality of Frederick the Great driving the French before him at Rossbach, fiercely grappling with the Moscovite⁹ invader on the plains of Zorndorf, and preparing the way for the final expulsion of many-coated Austria from her sinister hegemony in Protestant Germany.

But the crowning moment had not yet come. Much suffering had yet to be undergone before we can speak again of Germany as a great political power. Germany as yet is only active in the realm of thought and contemplation. Goethe is born, and in him we find the last and most fruitful manifestation of that strange affinity between the German cast of mind and that of Italy, to which we have already referred. We need but turn to Goethe's works to find the blending of all that is perennial and beautiful in antiquity—in the art world of medieval Italy with the wide philosophic humanizing conceptions of Germany's peerless poet-philosopher. Goethe, as is well known, foreshadowed the drift of Darwin's work, which in our time has revolutionized our conceptions of the genesis of the organic world. It was Goethe, the friend of princes, who, in the character of Faust, teaches the highest philosophy to all—name-

ly, that happiness is to be found only in the fulfillment of duty, useful work done for the benefit of all. Faust, after passing through every stage of worldly power and enjoyment without obtaining rest, at last finds contentment as a tiller of the soil! But even where Goethe's efforts were incomplete or unproductive, his example has remained a constant spur to the intellect of Germany. In fact, without the figure of Goethe, it is as impossible to conceive the idea of German culture as it would be to fancy Protestant Germany without the personality of Martin Luther.

We have already shown how partly enthusiasm for an idea,—the mission of the race—had resulted in long political weakness. According to Professor Bryce (p. 362):

"The tendency of the Teuton was and is the independence of the individual life . . . as contrasted with the Celtic and so-called Romanic peoples among whom the unit is more completely absorbed in the mass."

This acute observation largely explains the political disasters of Germany in the past, as it also furnishes an indirect explanation for the political rebirth of Germany in our time. For if the independence of the individual had resulted in two centuries of political impotence, it was also to be credited with the steady growth of intellectual and moral qualities—the latter largely nurtured by suffering—which, when the supreme moment for collective action arose, lent it an irresistible impetus, and, in our time, resulted in the political rebirth of Germany.

End of Required Reading for October.

"I WONDER WHO IT IS—OR WAS?"

BY LOUIS H. BUCKSHORN.

"Boston, January 31, 1890. A white dove (pigeon) sits every day on the window-sill, and so long as I remain here at my desk the little creature stays—rain or shine—and seems to wink at me. I wonder who it is—or was?"—*From Edwin Booth's Correspondence.*

GREAT heart, whose power outlined anew
 The varied moods of human speech and life,—
 The mind's ecstatic calm, the baser strife,
 Pure love's low note, and passion's angry crew,—
 What hint of hope across thy vision drew,
 To put this quest in slow, yet searching pause:
 "I wonder who it is—or was?" The cause?
 Or was it chance? Who can the answer give?
 Omen of larger life through death to live?
 Or like to him of old in ark adrift
 On tossing wave, who saw the heavens lift,
 And welcome bade to dove and branch of peace—
 Since vain the laurel wreath when soul makes shift
 To lay the weary head in death's release?

6,000 TONS OF GOLD.*

A STORY OF ADVENTURE AND FINANCE.

BY KENZIE ETON KIRKWOOD.

CHAPTER XII.

A CONSULTATION AT THE WHITE HOUSE.

WHEN the secretary of the treasury reached his desk on the morning of Saturday, the second of November, 1895, he notified the door-keeper that he should be extremely busy for some hours and that all callers must be refused. Even members of congress must be denied admission. Nevertheless, a few minutes later, the attendant came hesitatingly into the secretary's private room with two cards and said:

"These gentlemen insisted, sir, that I should bring you the message on one of their cards."

Visibly annoyed, the secretary took the cards and glancing at the first exclaimed impatiently: "Robert Brent—who is he?" Upon the second card, bearing the name of "John Wharton," he read:

"A few minutes, please, upon business of the utmost public importance."

The secretary's manner changed instantly. "Show the gentlemen in at once," was his order. A moment later he greeted Wharton cordially, saying:

"You are the one man whom I am heartily glad to see to-day."

"Thank you, sir," responded Wharton. "I wish I could hope that my coming would justify your welcome. Allow me to present my friend, Mr. Brent of New York." The two men shook hands and when they had seated themselves near the secretary's desk, Wharton went on to say:

"Let me explain at once that Mr. Brent is the principal for whom my firm has been acting in all the operations with which our name has been connected during the past year. It has been his money and only his which has been used. We have come to Washington to put you in possession of cer-

tain information which is of the gravest importance to the nation and to ask your advice and assistance. I should say at the outset that if even a suspicion of the truth which we are here to make known to you should transpire it would work the greatest calamity to the country; so you will pardon me, I know, if I ask if we can speak without possibility of being overheard."

"Certainly, Mr. Wharton," responded the secretary gravely, his glance resting first on one man and then on the other with an expression of keenest interest. "We are quite by ourselves and we shall not be disturbed. I hope your facts are not as alarming as your words imply."

"I fear they are, sir," resumed Wharton. "You know already a good deal about our investment of very large sums of money, originally in gold, since December of last year. We have expended in one way or another in this country and in England a total of about five hundred million dollars."

"Is it as much as that?" inquired the secretary surprised. "I knew it was a vast sum, but I imagined it was somewhat smaller."

"Yes, and you know, sir, what the effect has been. But you may not know that we have striven by every means in our power during the past few weeks to check and counteract the evils which have arisen and which have threatened. It has been with rather poor success, I admit, but that is because the task has been too great for us and not by reason of any lack of effort or of monetary sacrifice upon our part."

"I know more than you imagine, gentlemen," interrupted the secretary warmly, "of the country's indebtedness to you for your services during this crisis. I have seen Mr. Wharton's hand in many places and it has been more powerful for good than any of the resources of the government. Ever since our conference last spring, Mr. Wharton, I

* Begun in the July number.

have had the fullest confidence in your motives and in your patriotism. Had it been different, I should have endeavored to bring some influence to bear upon you before now."

"You are very kind, sir, but the credit is Mr. Brent's, whose instructions I have followed. But now we are at the end of our resources. No, our funds are not exhausted," noticing the surprise in the secretary's face. "It would be far better if they were. The fact is, and this is what we have come to tell you, that our funds are practically inexhaustible. Mr. Brent has still stored in New York more than five thousand tons of gold, or nearly three billions of dollars."

The secretary of the treasury started forward in his chair, looking from one man to the other in agitated amazement.

"Can this be true, gentlemen, five thousand tons of gold?" he exclaimed presently, in tones of gravest foreboding.

"Literally true, sir, I am sorry to say," replied Brent, to whom the secretary seemed to turn for confirmation of Wharton's startling announcement.

"Then, indeed, are we in danger—not only we but the whole world." Suddenly springing to his feet the secretary pressed an electric button and said energetically: "Gentlemen, this is not a matter for us alone. Will you go with me at once to the president?"

Both men assented and his confidential assistant appearing at that moment the secretary said to him:

"Telephone to the White House and ask if the president will see me and two gentlemen at once upon a matter of the most vital importance."

An affirmative reply came in a few moments and the three men started for the Executive Mansion, the trip being made almost in silence. They were admitted at once on reaching the White House to the president's private office.

The president, judging from the litter of papers upon the desk at which he sat, had been hard at work. He seemed slightly surprised at seeing two strangers enter with the secretary, but he acknowledged the introductions with quiet affability. He recognized

Wharton's name at once and expressed especial satisfaction at meeting him just at that time.

"I have thought several times within the last month of inviting you to call upon me," continued the president, "for I have no doubt you can supply us with valuable information and suggestions bearing upon the financial situation."

Wharton was about to express his appreciation of the honor, when the secretary of the treasury addressed his chief with such gravity of manner that conventional commonplaces were dropped at once:

"Mr. Wharton and Mr. Brent have come to me with a statement of such tremendous import that I have brought them here at once without inquiring into particulars. I should say in the first place," explained the secretary, while the president listened with close and rather surprised attention, "that Mr. Brent is the owner of all the gold which has been so mysteriously introduced into circulation during the past year and that Mr. Wharton has been his agent in all the transactions with which we are familiar. The fact which I have hastened to bring instantly to your attention is this: These gentlemen inform me that the amount of virgin gold which they have thus far put upon the market is about five hundred millions, but *this enormous sum is less than one sixth of their total store of the metal.*"

The president, while the secretary was speaking, had been unconsciously fingering a large paper-weight near the edge of his desk. His surprise was so great at the cabinet officer's last words that by an involuntary movement he sent the heavy implement clattering to the floor. No one in the anxious group noticed the noise. The secretary began pacing the room nervously. Brent's face was melancholy, Wharton's worried and worn. The president seemed to lose color for a moment, and then an expression of stern determination such as gathers in the faces of resolute men confronting sudden emergencies came upon his. There was a trace of sternness in his voice also, when after looking keenly at Brent for a moment, he inquired:

"Can this be true, Mr. Brent?"

"Yes," answered Brent, almost guiltily, "unfortunately it is true."

"May I ask what you propose doing with this gold?" pursued the president.

"That I do not know, sir. It is to ask your advice that I am here. The responsibility is too great for me. I stand ready to devote it to whatever purpose will best conserve the interests of the country and of humanity," was the reply.

"Thank God for that!" responded the president, evidently much relieved. "For you have in your hands a power for evil greater than I imagined any man possessed. What you have done already has not made me suspicious of your motives, although you will probably admit that some mistakes have been made. Can you tell us the history of this gold, where it is and whether the source whence it comes is exhausted?"

"I will gladly tell you everything except the location of its original bed," Brent replied. "That is a secret which is not mine to share. It was chiefly to prevent the over-running of the region by gold-hunters that I was permitted to take it away. Besides the knowledge is no longer of importance because I assure you that the wonderful deposit is completely exhausted. The gold, some five thousand tons remaining, is stored in a private vault in New York. It will remain there until the soundest wisdom I can avail myself of determines its final disposition."

The president left his chair, walked over to the young man and held out his hand. Brent rose in some surprise and accepted the hand-clasp while the president exclaimed warmly:

"Mr. Brent, I honor you for that sentiment, and the country will honor you. Unless you were governed by a generous spirit, we should be face to face with almost certain ruin. As it is, a more difficult problem it would be hard to imagine. I confess I should not venture to suggest a solution without long and careful deliberation. But it is not a new problem to you two gentlemen. Will you not give us fully your views of the situation?"

"Mr. Wharton is much better able to dis-

cuss the matter than I am," responded Brent, while all four drew up chairs in a close group.

"We have endeavored in the past month to ward off or mitigate such evils as we could in the commercial and financial worlds by various expedients and palliative measures, some of them wise perhaps, and some of them otherwise. We have come to the conclusion, however, that it is beyond our power unaided to restore tranquillity and soundness. We have succeeded in withdrawing about one hundred and fifty millions in cash from circulation. Another hundred millions of the five hundred millions distributed was placed abroad, and at a fair estimate I should judge about fifty millions more had found its way out of the country. So I calculate that the circulating medium in the United States is about two hundred millions greater than it was one year ago, or before we began operations. That is the situation as I understand it regarding the present placing of the gold which I have introduced into the market. For the future, I am anxious to co-operate in any way you may advise for the relief of present difficulties.

"Then comes the larger question of the disposal of the remaining three billions of gold now on my hands. It is as much a matter of concern to the whole world as to America. I should like to submit the problem to a commission, necessarily small and composed of the highest statesmanship and financial wisdom of the world. I know of no way of doing this except through you. It would, I think, be within your power to convene such an international monetary conference. Only the great powers need be invited, and without disclosing the secret even to the heads of governments an intimation of the importance of the matter could be conveyed through diplomatic channels and thus you could secure the selection of delegates of the highest ability and influence. Of course no hint of the truth must be allowed to transpire until this conference has decided upon a final policy and arrangements have been made for putting it into execution."

The president listened to Brent's statement with close attention and manifest interest. He remained for some moments

in profound thought. At length he said:

"On first consideration, Mr. Brent, I am inclined to approve of your suggestion unreservedly. There are difficulties, but I think they might be overcome. I will talk the matter over with the secretary and we will all of us discuss it together again a little later. What is more pressing for the moment is our present policy. The Congress, as you know, meets next week. I was engaged in reshaping my message when you came in. After what you have told me it may be necessary to redraft it entirely. I was prepared to recommend vigorous measures to bring about restoration of confidence, even to the suspension of the free coinage of gold, if such a policy seemed advisable. But with all the other mints of the world still open and with your assurance that no more additions will be made to the unnatural supply of gold, such a course appears to be unnecessary. We have already curtailed the work of the mints. You know they have all been coining gold day and night at top speed for months, and still have been unable to handle a fraction of the metal offered. Hereafter they will run only during regular hours and at ordinary capacity. Have you noticed, by the way, gentlemen, how completely you have solved the silver problem?"

"Yes, sir," responded Brent smiling. "We have almost succeeded in both demonetizing gold and remonetizing silver."

"True," resumed the president, "and you have quite succeeded in demonstrating the folly and futility of trying to maintain by legislation the value of an oversupplied article, be it silver or gold or anything else. We attempted the impossible in this country more persistently than anywhere else and we suffered a heavier penalty. Now your deluge of gold has restored the old-fashioned ratio of the world's production of the two metals, and the price of silver without any legislation or manipulation, simply in obedience to the laws of trade, has risen to its old level. Perhaps it would be more correct to say that gold had descended toward the silver level. If it should become known that you still held five thousand tons of gold ready to turn into money, does anybody suppose

that an act of the Congress or any other fiat of government could maintain gold as the standard of value? I have no doubt, however, that the friends of silver will come forward next week with some interesting proposals on behalf of that no longer despised metal. The situation will be difficult to control, very difficult indeed, pending the solution of your greater problem. I cannot help wishing you had placed these facts before me a month ago. Then I should not have felt it my duty to call an extra session."

The president leaned back in his chair, drummed mechanically upon the desk, and for some time was lost in deep thought. The others were silent likewise. Presently collecting himself, and addressing both Wharton and Brent, the chief of the nation said earnestly:

"Gentlemen, I shall deal with you in this matter with complete frankness and without reserve or formality, just as if you were members of my cabinet. The subject is too great, too portentous, for us to allow any consideration save the best welfare of the country, of the world, to enter into our treatment of it. I hope you will give me the fullest benefit of the most earnest thought you can devote to it. Let it be a personal matter between us, as between men having a common duty. I have absolute faith in your integrity of motive. Your action in coming to me with your momentous secret is sufficient proof of that."

"Now let us have a few hours to digest this tremendous announcement. No man's mind—not mine at least—can comprehend all at once the infinite bearings and significance of such news. The secretary and I will both have a better grasp of the subject after sleeping upon it. Will you not come here again to-morrow afternoon, say at two o'clock, and we will have a long talk? Then we will dine quietly and put our heads together over it again in the evening."

Brent and Wharton heartily thanked the president for his expression of confidence in them, accepted his invitation and withdrew. The secretary remained with his chief. The sun had long set when he left the White House.

The next day's conference at the Execu-

tive Mansion was long and interesting. It is not necessary to report it in detail. It rambled over the vast ramifications of the subject in a more haphazard and cursory way than the matter was afterwards treated by the more deliberate tribunal to which it was eventually referred. The president appeared rather tired and anxious when he greeted his guests, and so did the secretary of the treasury.

"I told you we should be better able to deal with our difficulty after a night's sleep," remarked the president with a smile as he grasped Brent's hand. "I for one did not find it an easy matter to sleep upon."

"Nor I," observed the secretary sententially.

"Wharton and I, on the contrary have enjoyed better rest the last two nights, since deciding to share our responsibility with you, than we have had for weeks," responded Brent with some appearance of elation.

"Probably then your clearer heads have been more fertile than ours in plans for meeting the emergency," suggested the president, adding with a twinkle of humor in his eye. "It would be only fair for you to point out some line of escape from the dangers with which you have surrounded us."

Brent's attempt to smile in response to this sally was not very mirthful. "My poor brain," he said, "is quite callous under any spur to effort in that direction. In fact, I have so completely lost confidence in it, that only the other day I begged my friend Wharton to take the whole load of gold off my shoulders and dispose of it in any way he liked."

"And he spurned the offer? You are indeed a modern Midas, Mr. Brent, cursed with sumless gold beyond even the craving of human cupidity. It is not easy to convince the mind that fable has become reality, that solid, scientific, nineteenth century life is suddenly confronted with a condition which society is utterly unprepared to meet."

The president gave rein to his thought in this strain for a moment longer. Then he turned resolutely to the concrete problem in hand, saying:

"My attitude toward the Congress is, under the circumstances, somewhat embarrass-

ing. I have summoned a special session to deal with the financial situation. The aspect of affairs had very much changed before you came to me yesterday with your startling revelation. Precautions which I would have recommended a month ago are no longer expedient. In view of what you have told me, the less legislation we have just now the better. I have about decided to advise the calling of a monetary conference—the worldwide financial disturbance is sufficient justification for it—and to suggest two or three harmless palliative measures for giving relief to present monetary distress and for strengthening public confidence. Do you think of any better plan?"

The discussion became general and informal and soon drifted into various branches of the subject of temporary policy. By the time the dinner hour had arrived, all were agreed that the president's suggested attitude toward Congress was the wisest that could be adopted. Measures for holding in check erratic and dangerous legislation which might be threatened were also considered. It was arranged that Brent and Wharton should as far as possible influence the tone of finance and speculation in harmony with the policy of the administration and co-operate actively with the government in any emergency which might arise.

It was a quiet, informal dinner at which Brent, Wharton, and the secretary of the treasury joined the presidential household. Finance and other weighty affairs were not allowed to chill the cordial, homelike atmosphere which the presence of womanly tact and grace made particularly attractive to the two bachelor strangers. Sunday evening at the White House is usually the one strictly home hour of the week, but Brent and Wharton were not for a moment allowed to discover that they were unwonted intruders upon a much cherished privilege. The meal was not a long one, and when it was over the gentlemen withdrew for their cigars to the president's "den," as he termed it.

There the conversation soon drifted back to the greater feature of Brent's golden problem—the proper disposition of his hidden billions. Aside from the obvious escape

from the dilemma by casting away the whole treasure and the secret with it, no one had any positive plan to advocate. Various tentative suggestions were discussed as they arose in one mind or another, but there seemed to be strong objections to all of them. Although it was midnight before the discussion became wearisome nothing definite had been arrived at beyond a general conviction that the problem which would confront the proposed convention of the wise men of finance would prove to be many times deeper, higher, broader, weightier than any unexpected obstacle which had yet arisen in the path of civilization.

Brent and Wharton returned the next day to New York. They prepared to co-operate with the administration for the maintenance of financial and commercial tranquillity in every possible way. Then came the assembling of Congress. Some disappointment was expressed in many quarters over the president's message. More had been expected of the administration in the way of relief legislation than it suggested.

But if there was any lack of financial panaceas Congress speedily supplied it. The variety of schemes and measures for accomplishing all manner of desirable ends seemed infinite. The deluge of private bills soon disappeared in committee archives, most of them attracting no attention on their rapid path to oblivion. The president proved a true prophet in the matter of propositions regarding silver. Most of the low grade silver mines of the West which had shut down two years before, owing to the demonetization of the metal and its low price, had reopened and were producing at their utmost capacity. There had been much investment and speculative buying of the metal for a few months, in consequence of the decline or superabundance of gold. The champions of the silver interest now came forward with proposals that the free coinage of gold should be suspended and that at least one half the production of the mints should be silver, at the re-established ratio of fifteen to one which for centuries had marked the relative value of the two metals.

The attitude finally taken by the adminis-

tration party, as it came to be known, was not one of direct opposition to the silver men. It was urged that the whole question was too widespread in its bearings for the American Congress or any other single legislative authority to attempt to give it independent solution. The world had grown too small, and all its interests were too closely interwoven for any country to be able to maintain an individual monetary policy. Unity of principle and of action had become indispensable. The United States had learned this lesson at sore expense only two years before and to seek its repetition would be a stupendous folly.

The argument prevailed. The opposition to silver on the old grounds had disappeared. The demand simply for international co-operation could not be reasonably resisted. The suggestion of an international monetary conference speedily received unanimous approval. The invitation was issued by the president to only the principal European Powers late in November. It received a promptly favorable response in every case and it was soon decided that the conference should meet in Paris on the second week in January of the following year, 1896.

Congress turned its attention to temporary and special measures for mitigating commercial and industrial distress. The general paralysis of business continued, and everybody felt that the suspense would last until the united action of the nations had settled the world's monetary policy. There was therefore a widespread feeling of impatience for the assembling and the decision of the Paris conference.

Wharton and Brent found plenty to do in these intervening weeks. After all they had done during October in fighting panic and distress and under Brent's determination not to use any fresh capital from his store, they were no longer able to dominate all markets with controlling hand as they had done for months before. They accomplished much, however, in steadying prices in the stock market, the loan market, and some of the markets for staple produce and manufactures, and the lapse of time without fresh serious disasters begot a sort of confidence in the public

mind. The administration partly by means of its alliance with the authors of the financial crisis, was able to do much in the same line. Brent and Wharton were in constant communication with the secretary of the treasury and the president, and they made frequent trips to Washington for consultation.

On one of these occasions, the president invited Brent to act as one of the American delegates to the monetary conference. The young man promptly declined.

"I want to keep out of the public eye as long as I possibly can, sir," he explained. "There are to be only two delegates from each country and the natural selection will be a leading statesman and a great financier. If you should select an unknown man for a post more important than even a seat in your Cabinet, the country would be amazed and then a great hue and cry would be raised against you and against me. It would also distinctly imperil the secret of the existence of this gold, which we must guard at any cost. No, sir, I must not attend the conference in any official capacity. I am prepared to go there and explain my position to the members in secret session. That will naturally be expected of me. But I must not be publicly identified with the conference and its *raison d'être* in any way whatsoever."

"You are entirely right, Mr. Brent," responded the president. "You are, however, fully entitled to sit upon this board if you choose. I can afford to ignore any public criticisms of my action in appointing you until events bring my justification. But, as you have said, we cannot afford to increase by a feather's weight the danger of discovery of your secret. I have decided to ask the secretary of the treasury to go as one American representative. Can you suggest the second? Mr. Wharton might be named with propriety. He has come before the public so prominently during the last year as the director of vast financial schemes that his selection would be regarded as appropriate."

"No, sir, I think not," said Brent thoughtfully. "In the first place, it will be necessary for him to remain in New York in charge

of my affairs, while I am abroad, and then, too, the selection of an older and better known man would be more acceptable both to the American public and to the foreign members of the board. Wharton and I, you know," Brent added smiling, "are part and parcel of the case. We are the accomplices of the defendant treasure which is to be tried and we cannot sit upon the jury."

"Would that more of our countrymen were as diffident of renown and power!" exclaimed the president with a fervor born of a ripe experience with clamorous American ambition.

For nearly a month before sailing for Europe late in December, Brent was busy night and day. Not only did the demands of the monetary situation occupy much of his time, but he was obliged to give his personal attention to the fitting out of his first annual shipload of supplies which according to his compact with the chieftain of the Caillitichets must arrive in Patagonia on the first of January. He chartered a stanch steamship of about four thousand tons and loaded her with a large and valuable cargo. He made his purchases with a great deal of care. Arms and ammunition of the latest patterns, he sent according to stipulation. Clothing and fabrics appropriate to primitive wants in a severe climate, he supplied liberally. Large quantities of food stuffs in various non-perishable forms were put on board.

He included also a collection of simpler labor-saving implements and agricultural tools, in hope that they might encourage new industrial ambitions among the stern and valorous people of the far South. The cargo when completed quite filled the ship and represented an expenditure of nearly a million dollars.

To Captain Penniman of the *Mystery* was entrusted the command of the expedition. His instructions were to clear for Buenos Ayres, and after re-coaling to proceed to the natural harbor on the coast of Patagonia, which Brent indicated upon the chart. Minute directions were given for navigating the inlet and the exact spot for anchoring was pointed out on the special chart which Brent supplied. He was to remain there until a

native should bring to him a document of which Brent furnished a facsimile. Then he was to discharge his entire cargo upon rafts which the natives would bring alongside. This accomplished, he would receive from the native who produced the original document a sealed packet. Thereupon he should sail at once to New York and deliver the packet to Brent or his representative at Strong and Co.'s office in New Street. The steamer sailed from New York on its mission in due course, December 7.

During the last few days before his departure Brent made an emergency agreement with Wharton and the president. It seemed wise to take some precautions regarding a course of action in case of the disclosure, accidental or otherwise, of the secret of his treasure house during his absence in Europe. Each of the four who had knowledge of the facts was convinced that a premature betrayal of the truth would plunge the world into financial chaos, unless the danger could be removed by a single stroke.

It was therefore arranged that if necessity should arise, every one of the wooden cases in Brent's vault would be loaded as quickly and quietly as possible under protection of the United States authorities upon one or two men-of-war to be kept in readiness in New York harbor. These vessels would at once put to sea and their cargoes would be thrown overboard in mid-ocean. As soon as this had been accomplished, the president would issue a proclamation setting forth all the facts and assuring the world that all danger had passed.

All the quartet who considered the matter one afternoon at the Executive Mansion heartily approved of this arrangement, and they one and all felt a large measure of relief when the dreaded emergency had been provided for.

On Saturday, the 28th of December, Brent sailed for Europe, in company with the secretary of the treasury and the great banker who had been named as the second representative of the United States at the international monetary conference to meet in Paris two weeks later.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE VERDICT OF THE WORLD'S WISE MEN OF FINANCE.

THE *grand salon* of the French Foreign Office was once more the meeting place of a great international tribunal. Four years before, an imposing bench of famous jurists had sat in the same chamber to arbitrate the differences between two peoples who wisely preferred the impartial judgment of a court of nations to the arbitrament of war. The lofty *salon*, with its fine tapestries, its historical works of art, its soberly rich furnishings, had not at all the appearance of a high judicial chamber. As the sittings of the Behring Sea Arbitration Board had suggested, it seemed arranged rather for the assembling of the privy council of an emperor. A high, throne-like seat for the presiding officer was placed at the end of the room farthest from the entrance. At each side of the president's chair was another place of honor for one of the two members who were to act as secretaries. Grouped in a large semicircle were eleven richly carved desks, each provided with a great leather chair.

The members of the monetary conference were but fourteen in number. They represented Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria, Italy, Russia, and the United States. They assembled on Thursday, the 9th of January, for their first business session. The previous day, they had been welcomed by the president of the French Republic, and had been entertained at the Elysée. At their brief meeting for organization they had made choice of one of the German representatives as president and of an Italian and an Englishman as secretaries. Now that the formalities were over, the fourteen men were anxious to undertake the rather vague task which they understood was before them. All the European members had received intimations from their respective governments that matters of the gravest importance would be brought before the conference by the American delegates. They had gained no hint as yet about the nature of the proposals or disclosures. A statement from the representatives of the United

States was awaited therefore with keenest interest and curiosity by all the other members.

Their solicitude had been increased by an earnest request from the Americans that not only should all the sessions of the conference be held with closed doors, but that no officers outside the membership of the board should be appointed, and that no stenographic or other records be kept save such as might be made by the official secretaries. When, therefore, the men great in statesmanship and finance who composed the small but august body found themselves ready for the performance of their official duties, they looked for some explanation of these extreme precautions.

As soon as the president had called the conference to order just after twelve o'clock, the American secretary of the treasury rose to address the members. His manner even before he began to speak was extremely grave, and his opening words were so ominous that the faces of the men who listened, accustomed though they were to dealing with great affairs, became anxious and apprehensive. This was what he said:

"Mr. President and Gentlemen: It is known to most of you that the United States government has followed a somewhat peculiar course in taking the initiative for the summoning of this conference. You will expect, therefore, some explanation of its action from the representatives of that government, and such explanation it is my duty to place before you. We bring to you a task so difficult and yet so delicate that if its nature should be but suspected outside this chamber all hope of its successful performance would disappear. You will pardon me, therefore, if I preface my message to you with a word of warning. I am about to make known to you a fact so ominous, so threatening to the world's prosperity and the financial systems of all countries, that the president of the United States has deemed it wise in summoning this conference to withhold it even from the governments which you represent. I beg of you at the outset, therefore, that not only shall the ordinary obligations of secrecy, which of course we

all recognize, be imposed, but that for a time at least we shall restrict ourselves even from communicating the subject of our deliberations to our official superiors. I know that I am making an unprecedented request, a request which some of you on first consideration will feel yourselves powerless to grant. I shall not press the suggestion upon you for decision, until the facts which seem to me to justify it are fully before you. The nature of those facts will reveal to you a peril, which not only warrants, but impels the assumption of an authority and responsibility which under ordinary circumstances we should seek to avoid.

"I now come to the burden of my message, which is soon discharged. It relates to the sudden influx of gold in the markets of the world, chiefly in America, during the last year. All of you are familiar with the effects of this extraordinary increase in the supply of the standard monetary metal. Every market in the world has felt its influence, while in the United States the foundations of our financial and commercial welfare have been severely shaken. Since the assembling of this conference was proposed a few weeks ago, there has been some subsidence of the general disturbance and the monetary world has shown a tendency to adjust itself to the new conditions. It is my painful duty to destroy such confidence as you may have in the security of the present financial or monetary situation.

"The quantity of gold which was added to the world's monetary supply during the first nine months of 1895, in addition to the normal output of the mines, was no less a sum than five hundred millions of dollars, one hundred million pounds sterling. This was native gold, all coming from a single source. The owner of this metal has since withdrawn from circulation about one half this sum, either in gold or legal tender. This action partly accounts for the checking of the financial disturbance in the United States. The danger which we have already faced is bad enough, but it is insignificant in comparison with that which I have to reveal to you. It is this:

"There remains in the same vault from

which these millions have been taken the equivalent of nearly three billion dollars, six hundred millions sterling, in the crude gold of nature."

The effect of this announcement upon his hearers was so great that the secretary of the treasury stopped speaking for a moment. Some faces were pale, others flushed, all bore evidence of intense feeling. All the dignity of a great international court vanished. They needed no explanation to carry to their minds the full significance of the speaker's words. The personal application of the sudden news came home first to some of them. One man of many millions, who, a few minutes before had appeared the embodiment of the conscious power of wealth, seemed stricken with an agony almost of death. His face turned haggard with sudden age. Unconsciously he wiped away the cold drops that gathered upon his forehead, muttering aloud :

"It is ruin, ruin, for us all!"

A great French banker sitting next him heard the words and sprang to his feet in sudden passion.

"It is not ruin," he cried hotly. "Who is this man that threatens the world with his gold? Let him be seized. Let the gold be taken from him. Let it be destroyed. No man can crush us all in this fashion. Desperate conditions demand desperate remedies. It is a case for a *coup d'état*."

The outburst evidently found sympathetic listeners. The looks of dismay, of terror even, began to give place to returning self-possession after the first shock of surprise was over. The president, himself almost as much overcome at first as any of his associates, rose to his feet, and in rather unsteady voice begged the conference to listen further to the American representative. The secretary of the treasury had remained standing, watching with keen solicitude the effect of his revelation. Every man turned instantly to him and gave to his following words most intense attention.

"I am glad to be able to assure you, gentlemen," he resumed, "desperate measures are quite unnecessary. The owner of this gold is as anxious as you are to avoid bringing any calamity of financial evil upon

his own or any other country. It was indeed at his suggestion that the president invited the Powers to send delegates to this conference. With unparalleled generosity and laudable sagacity he desires to place the fate of his vast treasure in your hands. That is the task which I bring you, gentlemen, and I know you will give to it the unselfish and sagacious consideration which its importance demands. I renew now my suggestion that all knowledge of our deliberations shall be confined strictly to the actual members of this Board."

An English delegate took the floor the moment the secretary sat down.

"I desire, Mr. President, to second the motion of the United States secretary of the treasury," he said impressively. "I do this in direct violation of the instructions of my government, but it is a responsibility which I do not hesitate for a moment to assume. The emergency demands it so clearly in my mind that the question seems scarcely debatable. I am still so far overwhelmed by the stupendous revelation to which we have listened that I am not prepared yet to discuss it beyond taking this obvious precaution for guarding against the terrible calamity which a disclosure of this secret would bring upon us."

The proposition was at once adopted unanimously by the conference. The representative of the United States Cabinet again took the floor, saying :

"I have purposely refrained, gentlemen, from saying anything about the history of the enormous treasure which I have described, or about the details of what has thus far been done with it. The owner of the gold has come with me to Paris. I much prefer that you learn from his own lips all that he has to impart about his past policy and his plans. I move, Mr. President, that Mr. Robert Brent of New York be invited to attend the sessions of this conference and that he be privileged to take part in all debates."

The motion was instantly passed, and the secretary left the room to secure the attendance of the man of whom these great men of statemanship and finance found themselves in sudden awe.



BOULEVARD DE LA MADELINE.

LIFE ON THE BOULEVARDS.

BY THOMAS B. PRESTON.

PARIS is the gayest and most lively city in the world, and whatever it has of gayety and motion is concentrated on the grand boulevards. Here all the life and fashion and wit of the French capital are to be seen on sunny afternoons during the spring and autumn seasons, and not only of the French capital but the English as well, and even far New York sends her quota; while occasionally one may see the imposing form of an eastern rajah or the green-turbaned, white-draped figure of some high functionary from Stamboul.

Paris is in the highest sense of the word a cosmopolitan city and the current of its vigorous, composite life flows ceaselessly through the grand boulevards like the blood through the great arteries, its course most

active where these boulevards meet the busy, bustling cross-streets on the Place de l' Opéra, which like the heart in the human organism is a little to one side of the city's center, that being located at the Palais Royal.

Paris is the seat of wit in Europe, exhilarating as her beautiful summer weather, bright and sparkling as the champagne that flows so freely. And all the wit of France bubbles and effervesces in never-ending exuberance on the grand boulevards. Here the latest plays are damned or eulogized, the newest books discussed, the last *bons mots* uttered, and fresh words coined. Indeed, to be a *boulevardier* is synonymous with living the acme of a Parisian existence. Persons residing within ten minutes' walk of the boulevards will laughingly apologize to

visitors that they live so far from the city.

The grand boulevards *par excellence* are three in number—the Boulevard de la Madeleine, the Boulevard des Capucines, and the Boulevard des Italiens. These three form a straight, wide street about three quarters of a mile long. Then come other grand boulevards, continuing these and joining in more or less obtuse angles, passing the place where the Bastille once frowned over the eastern gate of the city, going on to the Seine, which is crossed at the Pont d'Austerlitz, and concluding with the long Boulevard des Invalides. These streets are constructed on the site of the ancient fortifications which surrounded the city, the name boulevard having the same etymological root as the word bulwark. Traces of their origin remain in the Porte St. Martin and the Porte St. Denis, gates in the ancient wall which still stand in the middle of these modern thoroughfares, looking very picturesque but forming a decided obstruction to traffic. Then, too, the north side of the Boulevard de la Madeleine has a different name—the rue Basse du Rempart, or street at the base of the ramparts, for it was once a favorite walk just outside the walls.

The general appearance of the grand boulevards is that of a wide, smooth street, the sidewalks on each side planted with trees and interspersed with numerous little booths for the sale of newspapers and period-

icals and with hexagonal columns for advertising purposes. The houses are rather



LE PALAIS DE LA CHAMBRE DES DEPUTES.

tall, generally of six stories, and are of a dirty cream color, more or less dingy according to their age, owing to the peculiar kind of stone from which they are built. It resists the weather excellently but is so soft that it can be easily cut and it is no unusual thing to see on the site of a new building two men with a long hand-saw seated on each side of a huge block sawing it into the proper size. It grows harder with age and is quite as good as brick, which is now very little used.

Let us take a walk along these beautiful boulevards from the Madeleine to the Bastille and endeavor to photograph the scenes upon our memory. First is the Madeleine itself, an imposing edifice resembling a Greek temple rather than a Christian church, surrounded by a broad colonnade, the roof supported by massive columns. The space on either side is used as a flower market where Parisians flock to buy flowers, of which they are very fond. Flowers are cultivated to a wonderful extent, a circumstance largely due to the climate. Although there is no city in America as far north as Paris, the eastern Atlantic is protected by the Gulf Stream from Arctic currents, and the south wind from Africa, which blows in spring and summer and burns up Spain and Italy with the sirocco, here turns to a warm zephyr which fructifies every green thing, tints all the fields, and brings out two crops of horse-chestnuts every year on the trees which line the Champs Elysées and parts of the boule-



PORTE ST. MARTIN.

wards, bud, flower, and fruit being frequently seen at the same time.

Looking up the boulevards one cannot fail to see bicyclists rolling along, in and out among the cabs and omnibuses and private vehicles. There is no city, except perhaps Washington, which is such a paradise for wheelmen. The streets are all well made and the boulevards with their wooden paving, smooth as a billiard table, offer unusual advantages to the patrons of this mode of locomotion. It is a beautiful sight to witness them, several score in number, early on a summer morning, wheeling along right in the face of the ascending sun, accompanying some famous expert to an eastern gate of the city, to bid him *bon voyage* on a race against time to Vienna or Rome. As the day grows and the omnibuses and cabs fill up the street, the cyclists become fewer and the pedestrians throng the sidewalks rendering them almost as crowded as the lower part of Broadway, New York, but the crowd going in either direction is about equal, not all hurrying one way in the morning and back again in the evening. This is due to

so many stopping-places where the conductor's book has to be examined and other formalities fulfilled that it is hardly worth while taking them. Perhaps this is one reason why the cab service is so expeditious and so cheap. Paris ranks next to London in this respect. These light cabs are darting about all over at all hours of the day and night. As soon as one "fare" is left at his destination, the coachman looks for another so that one only has to hold up a hand to get a cab and one can be taken anywhere within the city for thirty cents and a *pour-boire*, the practice of tipping being universal.

Passing through the bustling throng we come to the Boulevard des Capucines, so called because here once stood a convent of Capuchin monks who owned a very large piece of ground within the city. On the left is the Grand Hotel, one of the largest and most expensive in Paris. An attractive feature of many of the hotels here is that they are built around a central court or have wings enclosing a garden space where beautiful shrubs and flowers are cultivated and occasionally a band of music plays during dinner.

On the corner of the Place de l'Opéra is the Café de la Paix, the



BOULEVARD DES ITALIENS.

the oval shape of the city and the fact that there are many centers of traffic so that the business portion of the population is more evenly distributed than in the American metropolis. The omnibus system is tedious and indirect. The vehicles are cumbrous, heavy things, with seats on the top and there are

most extensive and best known of the Paris cafés, except perhaps the Café de la Régence, which is one of the oldest now existing, having been founded in 1718. The latter is



BOULEVARD DES CAPUCINES.

situated opposite the Palais Royal, at the other end of the Avenue de l'Opéra. Both are fine points of observation to watch the human tides that ebb and flow. It is difficult for an American to understand all at once

at once. The poorest women exhibit a taste in dress that is attractive, no matter how plain or how old the material. Bright colored silks and those known as "changeable" are worn ordinarily in the streets, and on great



LA PLACE DE L'OPERA.

this café life that forms such a large part of Parisian existence. Probably owing to the uncomfortableness of their homes, everybody living in flats with small rooms and iron shutters like a prison, the Parisians seem to prefer to live out-doors, using their residences chiefly as dormitories. Hence the cafés in the afternoons are generally crowded with men and women talking, reading, sewing, joking, playing cards or dominoes or checkers, or else simply watching the other people. Between five and seven o'clock the cafés extend their limits, placing little round tables with three or four chairs each far out on the sidewalk. This is called the "*terrasse*" and the seats, especially at crowded quarters like the Café de la Paix, are all occupied and there are frequently people standing waiting for some one to vacate a chair. Indeed, on fête days I have seen the cafés stretch out beyond the sidewalk and occupy the roadway itself with their little tables, forcing the cabmen to go around by some other street.

The extreme taste of Parisian women in dress and the variety of colors worn render the scene very gay and at first a little bewildering. *Chic* is something which is hard to describe but which impresses the beholder

days like that of the Grand Prix you will see ladies wearing the most delicate shades and the most expensive brocaded silks even in muddy walks in the Bois de Boulogne. There is a fashion too in hair and eyebrows, the former light and the latter dark, while the hats are covered with flowers and feathers of all kinds and a white veil frequently hangs from the front like a little curtain. Of course, there are women who carry these things to an extreme, painted and perfumed to excess, and who frequent the cafés on the boulevards in large numbers, at whom a single glance is sufficient to indicate their mode of life. But on the other hand numbers of perfectly respectable ladies, *bourgeoises* and mothers of families, are seen at the little tables, drinking, and thoroughly enjoying the hours of interlude between work and dinner.

Sometimes they bring their children with them and meet the father at some café on his way home and the little ones climb over the chairs and sip grenadine (pomegranate) or currant juice while the elders will take their bitters or absinthe. The latter is the customary drink before dinner of fully one third of the adult population of Paris. Taken to excess, that is, habitually four or

five glasses a day, there is probably no more brain-destroying liquor in the world. Few however go beyond one glass and this does not seem to do any harm. In fact, the French as a whole are a remarkably temperate nation, and it is a very rare thing to see an intoxicated man who is not a foreigner. So universal is the use of absinthe that the time before dinner has come to be called the

triangular pediment behind. It claims to be the largest theater in the world, which is true as far as the ground covered by the building is concerned, but so much space is taken up by the ballroom and the *grand foyer* that the auditorium itself will seat but two thousand two hundred persons. On opera nights a mounted dragoon sits, motionless as a statue, about the middle of the Place with

his horse's head pointed toward the central door of the main entrance and a sentry paces along the broad portico at the head of the flight of steps. Time was, less than five years ago, when Wagner's operas were produced



STATUE OF THE REPUBLIC.

"absinthe hour." Business is generally suspended about five o'clock and the whole population dines at seven. So these two hours are devoted to loafing with the assiduity that only the Parisian *flaneur* knows. Then the afternoon papers are read and the latest political or literary or artistic gossip indulged in. After that comes the dinner, frequently taken at a café and not rarely at one of the outdoor tables with the pedestrians on the sidewalk brushing by. Whole families may thus often be seen at the cafés along the boulevards, the invariable bottle of red wine beside the plates.

From the corner of the Place one has a fine view of the Opera House, an imposing building, perhaps rather over-decorated, with the peculiarity of a dome in front with a



LA PLACE DE LA BASTILLE.

here, that the government had to furnish a regiment of troops to protect the building. But all that has changed now and German music is rather better patronized than any other—a significant triumph of art over the baser passion of revenge.

There are many theaters strung along the boulevards but the character of French plays generally and the acting is below the average either of the American or English stage. The pieces, when not downright immoral,

are what is termed "vulgar." Honorable exception must however be made of the Théâtre Français at the other end of the Avenue de l'Opéra, where classical pieces are played, the Renaissance, where Sarah Bernhardt portrays the tragic phases of dramatic art as no other woman can, and the Vaudeville, where Mme. Réjane has made a tremendous hit in the Napoleonic play of "Mme. Sans-Gêne."

Just beyond the latter theater begins the Boulevard des Italiens, a street of fine hotels, expensive stores and restaurants, and gorgeously decorated cafés, of which the Café Riche is a good representative. The grand boulevards are continued by the Boulevards Montmartre, Poissonnière, Bonne Nouvelle, St. Denis, and St. Martin to the Place de la République.

One feature of these streets is the covered arcades for foot-passengers leading from the boulevards to the side streets. At one end of Boulevard St. Denis stands the Porte St. Denis and at the other the Porte St. Martin. These gates were erected under Louis XIV. and are ornamented with inscriptions and reliefs to commemorate his victories. Colossal affairs, right in the roadway, they form an obstruction which the revolutionists of 1830, 1848, and 1871 were not slow to take advantage of, with the aid of overturned omnibuses and furniture from the surrounding houses transforming them into formidable barricades, around which some hot battles were fought.

The Boulevard St. Martin has a peculiar appearance owing to the fact that the sidewalks run along over a gentle incline about ten feet higher than the driveway, the latter having been made level to facilitate the passage of vehicles. The beautiful Place de la République at the end is planted with trees and fountains and in the center rises a colossal statue of the Republic. Here the boulevards diverge more to the south toward the Seine and traffic becomes less until we

come to the Place de la Bastille. The site of the bastions of the ancient fortress is indicated by curved lines in the paving of the square and in the center is the Colonne de Juillet erected in honor of those who died in the revolution of July, 1830. It is a beautiful structure, one hundred and fifty-four feet high, surmounted by an elegantly poised figure of the Genius of Liberty.



LA MADELEINE.

Two wide boulevards run to the Seine, which we can cross at the Pont d'Austerlitz and go by the interior boulevards of the southern bank to the Pont des Invalides, but they possess little of interest except the Hotel des Invalides, or retreat for aged and infirm soldiers, and the church with its gilded dome built over the tomb of Napoleon First.

It is more interesting to take a shorter cut from the Bastille by the Boulevard Henri IV., the Pont Sully, and the Boulevard St. Germain. The latter in its eastern half is surrounded by a network of streets where most of the eleven thousand students of the University live and which is known as the Latin Quarter. The Boulevard St. Michel, irreverently called the Boul' Mich', is the students' favorite promenade and is lined with cafés of a Bohemian and literary air.

The western half of the Boulevard St. Germain is in the center of the Faubourg St. Germain, the aristocratic quarter, filled with private mansions, with their iron shutters and high walls making the streets seem dull and lifeless. Here live some old families who still dream of a royal *régime* to come and whose dainty ladies would consider it degrading to rustle their skirts in the parlors of the Elysée. The Chamber of Deputies satirically sits at the end of the boulevard, every year voting the nation deeper into democracy.

Such are the boulevards of Paris. They change with the changing year but are ever full of life. They are least agreeable, perhaps, when a wet snow is falling and the

mists are thick and the days are short. They have not the happy bustle of Christmas, for that festival is scarcely noticed here, nor the rosy glow of a good, cold American winter. But they make up at other times for these deficiencies. Even in the hottest summer they are cool, for they are always shaded by trees and the streets are watered several times a day.

They are seen to best advantage in Carnival times or on a national holiday. Then the trees grow strange fruit, huge Chinese lanterns as big as pumpkins hung on every bough. From Venetian masts at the street corners strings of lights are pendant, while flags float from every window. The street is given up to revelry at night, masked dancers everywhere, while during the Carnival crowds of pleasure seekers march up and down throwing *confetti*. These are little round pieces punched out of colored paper and are carried in bags by the women or in their coat pockets by the men and thrown in handfuls in the faces of unsuspecting strangers and defiant citizens alike. It is useless to get angry as you are pelted all the more and it certainly is fun even if it savors of the school playground.

Sometimes two crowds meet and there is a battle of *confetti* and the air is clouded with colored snowflakes of paper. There are few pictures more *piquante* than that of some Parisienne as she emerges from one of these encounters, her face aglow with excitement, and her veil, hat, and cape dotted with these

confetti. Then from the houses people endeavor to lasso the passers-by on foot or in vehicles with long rolls of colored paper tape, cut like that used on the stock exchange indicators in America. These are called *serpentins*, and all day long the spiral coils may be seen unwinding as they descend from windows and balconies. They generally catch on the branches of the trees and break off until the chestnuts and maples are covered with a perfect network of red, blue, and green bands of paper. The fun goes on far into the night until *confetti* cover the ground to a depth of two or three inches and to walk in it is like wading in loose sand.

Then there are occasions when the boulevards try to be solemn, as at the time of the late President Carnot's funeral, when draped flags were the rule and a few houses had crape over their windows. The funeral of Marshal MacMahon from the Madeleine was more impressive but in neither case did the city or private tokens of mourning, at least as far as the draping of houses goes, equal those in America even in small towns on the occasion of the death of Lincoln or Garfield. For the character of the French is not one that easily lends itself to grief. They shun the somber and prefer the light. They do not as a general rule think deeply enough to worry much and as a consequence are happier than other nations where life is reduced to a keen business competition or becomes a dull, plodding routine.



CAFÉ DE LA RÉGENCE.

THE EDUCATION OF A PRINCE.*

BY EDWARD EVERETT HALE.

IN all the work of education, there is nothing more interesting than the education of a sovereign. The old writers—nay, the writers of our time—delight in considering it. When the prince of Wales was born we had poems and essays, even romances, devoted to it. Fénelon wrote his half epic, half novel, “*Telemachus*,” for the good of the young prince under his care, who died, too soon it seemed, before the world knew whether Fénelon could train a benevolent autocrat. No wonder! We all know what has been done for the world—for good or for evil—by its selfish Louises, its stupid Georges, its God-fearing Oliver, its intense Napoleon, or its wise Cæsar. And, knowing this, we cannot look on any innocent baby born to a throne, without the eager hope and prayer that those who train him may know how great is their work, and how eternal its consequences.

We know of the training of a man of wealth, that the best training is given to him when he does not know that such is to be his fortune. In that remarkable Providence which guides America, nothing is more remarkable than the training of Washington to be the chief magistrate of a newborn state, and, many men say, the director of its destiny. He was to be the richest man in America. But he did not know that when he was a boy, nor did his mother know it. His father died in the boy's early childhood, and George Washington was then educated, indeed until he was a man grown, as one who would have to fight his own way in the world. He was to be the commander of armies unused to discipline. And in youth he prepared for this, he gained that noblest power,—that he could command himself. He needed vigor and clearness of expression, that he might deal with Congresses, state governments, and watchful enemies.

And he gained—by a training quite unlike that of the colleges—a strong and easy style of writing. He often had to address men by the living voice. And he gained this great faculty in those critical years of his life which are least studied, those ten years when he was leader of the House of Burgesses in Virginia. He had no knowledge of any language but his own, unless you rate as such the use of a few words of the Delawares or Shawnees, whom he met on the frontier. But, from the well of English he had drunk deep. He had been taught to use it by Fairfax, the friend and literary companion of Addison and Steele.

In those governments, like Germany and Russia and Austria, where the throne rests on bayonets, it is interesting to see that the boys born in the royal families are put into military uniforms as soon as they take off their baby swaddling clothes. You read of a colonel of a regiment who is but ten years old. It is, as you see in the old museums, the plate armor which was made for princes who were not four feet high. Here is a hint, given in practice, as to what the reigning houses there think important in the education of their princes. A prince there is to keep his people under; he is to do this by handling an army. Therefore he is to be trained to war.

Of course they would tell you he must be trained to every accomplishment. I met, once and again, in 1873, when I was at the great International Exhibition at Vienna, the prince imperial of Austria, a boy of fifteen, as he studied the exhibition with his tutors. That bright-looking lad had been already trained, I was told, to speak nine of the fourteen different languages of the Austrian Empire. When the poor fellow killed himself, a few years ago, I did not wonder. The mania for cramming young people with facts, as they cram a goose with walnuts at Strassburg, the mania which calls

* Oration delivered before the C. L. S. C. Class of 1894 on Recognition Day at Chautauqua, N. Y., August 22, 1894.

this cramming "education," seems to be at its worst in the training of European princes. And they, most of all men, perhaps, suffer from that superstition which gives half of young life to the learning of vocabularies—dignified by the false name, the study of language.

It is clear that the young sovereign must be trained to purity, courage, honor, truth. These are the essentials, the foundations in all education. Useless and mad is any training of the intellect, or any gymnastics of the body, any physical or mental accomplishments, which are not enlivened by the infinite life, and inspired by the Holy Spirit.

And what for his intellectual training?

1. Clearly, he must know the history of the country he is to rule. She must not, while he reigns, repeat her old errors. He must know what are her dangers and where are her friends.

2. Clearly, also, he must know the science, and the history, of her government and administration. In the reign of an English prince "the South Sea madness" must not repeat itself, nor the Gunpowder Plot, nor the murder of Becket.

3. Clearly, and for the same reason, he must know what his people are, what are their passions and hopes, where they have succeeded and where they have failed. An English prince must have by heart the ballads of the Armada, the stories of Wolfe at Quebec, of Wellington at Waterloo, of Nelson at Trafalgar.

4. It does not follow that he must be able to calculate an eclipse or to analyze a tear-drop. But he must know who can work such marvels. He must know how Watt called the giant from the sealed casket and set him at work for mankind, that he may know how to look for other Watts, for new Edisons, who shall work, for his time, like miracles.

5. He must, therefore, learn the great lessons of mutual help and of tolerance. He must learn that God makes tall men and short men, bright men and dull men, poets, and men of affairs and men of research, each to do his own duty. The prince must learn how to respect each of them, how to

call each out from his separate cell, and make him serve the nation, as Michael fought for the kingdom of God, or Uriel waited for it.

Here are five points where we are sure what we will do. On the other hand, we are sure that we will not try to make him merely a student of languages or indeed of any one science. There will be philologists enough, and men of science enough. We shall not crowd him, as a prince, with Latin, Greek, or Sanskrit, with quaternions or ultimate analysis.

Least of all shall we be satisfied with the education he receives as a boy. From sixteen to twenty-five will be the most important years in which to train him.

And that man would be stoned by all the people, or ought to be, who should hint that it was enough for our prince, if he had learned when a boy to read, to write, and to cipher. We should say, "This is enough for a slave—but not for a master." The sovereign of this land must know its people, its history, its poetry. He must know the history of mankind and its literature. He must know MEN.

He must be ready to be his own chancellor of the exchequer, his own foreign secretary, his own secretary of agriculture, his own postmaster general. For this he need not be a banker, a linguist, a farmer, or a post office clerk. But he shall know how to judge of bankers, linguists, farmers, and clerks. He shall know men. He will have to choose them.

I have given you for an object lesson this little study of an imagined duke of Burgundy, taught by an imagined Fénélon in the real America.

Let us apply our object lesson in our own time, in August, 1894, in the end of the nineteenth century in America.

We have our sovereign to educate.

And who is our sovereign?

He appoints the president and the Cabinet.

He chooses the Senate and the House of Representatives.

He selects the foreign ministers who represent us in Europe and Asia.

He names the governors of states, their

judges, and their legislatures.

He determines and prescribes the policy of this nation. And, from the president in the White House to the boy who carries a special delivery letter, hundreds of thousands of men meekly obey this sovereign.

We have this sovereign to educate. To educate; not to cram with facts merely. Not to flatter or pet with sugar-plums; but to educate him, to teach him how to rule America.

The sovereign of America is the people of America.

"We the people of America" ordained the constitution of America, and if ever that constitution is threatened, "we the people of America" take the field, as a true prince mounts his horse, seizes his arms, and goes forth to battle against his enemies.

And, in the happy centuries when the constitution is not endangered "we the people of America" choose our chief magistrate and give him our orders. And he obeys.

We appoint our Congresses and our Legislatures. And, if they do not obey, we change the men appointed. That Congress never meets again.

An English traveler, blind with the mists of feudalism, said to me that he had been honored at Washington by an interview with the "ruler of America." I said to him in my wrath, "General Harrison never told you that he was the ruler of America. He knows better. The people of the United States is the ruler of America. It has chosen him to be the chief of its magistrates. And of all men he knows this best."

Now let us apply our object lesson to the education of the sovereign of America,—of the people of America. This sovereign has the great duty which, as Cromwell said to his son, is "that to which a man is born." He is to rule the nation. We have to do this with the more care because so many careless persons do not know what the great word people means.

As late as the time of Shakespeare, the people were spoken of as we speak of the "slums" or the "unwashed"—as the drudges or drones, who lived in cities on

the pauper "bread and games" which their betters provided for them. It is just as the Pharisees at Jerusalem said, "This people which knoweth not the law is cursed."

Those persons who suppose that knowledge is more essential than virtue in government make their fundamental mistake here.

They say, as the Dutch governor said, in "Knickerbocker," "Will you entrust your state to the man who cannot mend your watch?" Will you give to this dirty, ragged drudge who lays your sewer pipes, who wheels coal to your furnace, the same power in the state as you give to George William Curtis, or to Mr. Edison, or to Dr. Vincent?

"No," I reply, "and Curtis or Edison or Vincent has ten thousand times the power in America which that man has who can only lift and dig with brute muscles, the man who can do nothing with other power than an ox has or a mule."

I may say in passing, however, that we do not find this drudge to be the worst citizen. He may toil only with his muscle and nerve, without intelligence, without spirit, to direct him. He may give us only the service an ox gives us. But such a drudge may be true to God and true to man. He may live a life of purity, honor, and truth. If he do, he is a better citizen, and a voter more reliable than the dainty dude who does not soil his hands with a ballot, or the well-read assembly man who sells his vote to a syndicate. The drudge who does not know how to work and is compelled therefore to labor is not the best of citizens. But he is a better citizen—as the heavens are high above the earth—he is a better citizen than either of the other two.

But I pass that by. I had rather meet our feudal critics, the people who believe in government by caste, on their own ground. We are following the distinction between labor and work. Labor is of the brute. God works and man works. Labor wears us down. Work is labor inspired by the Holy Spirit. Let us see to it first that we make the laborer to be a workman. Child of God,—he shall cease from his labors, but he shall be a fellow-workman with God through eternity.

While we are thus engaged we will remind

our dainty critics that in all the civilized states of America,*—the proportion of the working force, which has only its muscle and nerve to bring to the common weal, is but eleven in a hundred of the whole working force. Count them all, hewers and diggers, stevedores on the wharves, street laborers in the cities, count them all, make the number of what Shakespeare calls groundlings as large as you can, and it is only eleven in a hundred of the whole.

The rest—and it is this ninety per cent which governs America,—use the intelligence which shows that man is child of God.

It is to this ninety per cent, or, to be accurate, eighty-nine per cent, that our second effort, and it is by far our largest effort, is directed. Here is the sovereignty of America.

Here Chautauqua is prepared with the answer. We will educate our sovereign as princes should be educated. We will give to him all that belongs to a liberal education.

1. He shall be trained to purity, honor, justice, truth.

2. He shall enjoy the whole range of history, especially the history of America, his own land.

3. In this he shall have the key of the treasures of literature, that till he die he may enter that treasure-house when he will.

4. He shall have the key as well to the treasures of nature. Not that we teach him all her secrets. God alone knows them. But we do teach him how to learn. It is not the business of a liberal education to teach men their specialties. Its business is to teach them the language of their time. This Chautauqua proposes to do, as I said.

It teaches how to learn. When the sovereign needs to learn of plants and their growth, he shall understand the botanist whom he summons. When he needs a detail of history—in the annals of the past—he shall know what cabinet to open.

This is a liberal education. It is not the knowledge of ancient languages. It is the training which teaches man to understand

the language of his time. This education involves his training in courtesy—in the manners of the court. And the courtesy of a republic is larger and nobler than that of any empire. He who goes and comes in a republic has not two etiquettes, or ten, as he meets a beggar, or a workman, or a judge, or men of ten different classes. His courtesy has the same forms, and those of the simplest and noblest and purest of all, for each and all his brothers and sisters, for each and all of the children of his God. It is the noble etiquette of the Golden Rule.

He speaks as he would be spoken to.

He welcomes as he would be welcomed.

He meets his brother just beyond half-way.

If I may use a colloquial expression, he who undertakes this work "takes a large contract." I am not speaking of reading, writing, and arithmetic. I leave them to the state and nation, who attend to them sufficiently well. I speak rather of the twenty million people between sixteen years old and forty-six who rule this nation. These twenty million people are to receive a liberal education. The annual class of new students will be approximately one thirtieth of that number—three hundred and thirty thousand people.

I asked just now how many persons had attended the different summer schools of Chautauqua this year, to be told it was more than seventy-five thousand. The average number of students whom Chautauqua has enrolled in the last fifteen years is almost fifteen thousand a year. And I suppose it is fair to say that besides every such enrolled member, her books and lectures and classes call into the ranks of learning at least as many more.

Chautauqua has fellow-workers in the great field; we do not say rivals, for we welcome them all. There are at least three hundred colleges in America, with an average number of fifty graduates a year. Not to count smaller schools, here are fifteen thousand men and women a year bearing diplomas, and with a solid training pledging them to continue in the work of a liberal education; almost as many as the new class which we hope to enroll this autumn.

*I use the term "civilized states" when I make this comparison, with no invidious distinction. I mean those states which have civilization enough to care to inform us on these matters.
—E. E. H.

We shall rejoice most heartily if our Roman Catholic friends of the Columbia Reading Circle and all the other reading circles enroll as many students in the courses of a truly liberal education. And let us hope that our friends and allies of the university extension system may see their way clear to complement their admirable system of lectures by a system of regular reading where each shall help each, in a course covering a series of years. Let them enroll as large classes as ours, as the universities and colleges, as the different reading societies. Let them be a system which can be fairly spoken of as offering the methods of a liberal education to our sovereign; as from his school-days he steps out in his manhood, and begins life.

But these are our least allies. We have again the great underlying determination of the people expressed in its great motto, "Get the best."

It is illustrated in the steady advance of our unsubsidized allies, the leaders of the eight-hour movement, who seek to rescue every day two hours from craft and mammon and dedicate them to faith, hope, and love.

Most of all is it illustrated in the readiness of the national government to help in higher education.

For in its mail service, in the Smithsonian Institution, in museums, in government surveys, and in its other contributions to science and literature, the United States to-day devotes more money every year to the higher education of America than is spent by one hundred colleges.

If the four agencies of which I have spoken should each come up to the standard I have suggested—the standard of fifteen thousand new students every year—we could show—on their rolls only—sixty thousand of the men and women of America, every year joining the army of those who seek a liberal education. Here are sixty thousand out of the three hundred and thirty thousand men and women for whom we seek this prize. And

we all know how many thousands—how many hundreds of thousands—there are, seeking the same higher life, without requiring this machinery.

This is not the whole. It is not one half the whole. But for our sixteenth anniversary it is not a bad showing of what is. When I had the honor to prophesy some such successes, speaking here seven years since, the prophecy was laughed at by those who heard it, as a good-humored exaggeration.

But I meant what I said then. I mean it now. There shall be no upper class in the possibilities of education, and no lower. God and His world are for everybody. What John Adams said of Massachusetts shall be true for all the United States. It is not enough that every boy and girl shall be taught to read, to write, and to cipher. Every man and woman, the land through, shall be tempted, shall be helped, to secure the joy and daily new delight of a liberal education.

Here is the larger life. It is a necessary part of the "life more abundant" which the Savior of men promised to mankind.

"I am come that they might have life—and that they might have it more abundantly." This is not the life of the oyster which sleeps, of the ox which eats and ruminates, it is the life of man, the child of God, who can be fellow-worker with Him, can enter into His joy, can penetrate His nature.

"How shall we train our prince? To love his land,
Love justice and love honor. For them both,
He girds himself and serves her, nothing loath,
Although against a host in arms he stand,
Ruling himself, the world he may command,
Taught to serve her in honor and in truth,
Baby and boy and in his lusty youth,
He finds archangels' help on either hand!

"The best the world can teach him, he shall know,
The best his land can teach him, he shall see,
And trace the footsteps where his fathers trod,
See all of beauty that the world can show,
And how it is that freedom makes men free
And how such freemen love to serve their God."

CHINA AND JAPAN AT WAR IN COREA.

BY WILLIAM ELLIOT GRIFFIS, D. D.

THE peace of the world in 1894 has been broken in the far East. The armies of China and Japan now confront each other on the old battle field of Corea. What are the causes of the strife? Who is the aggressor? Why must Corea suffer the presence of two hostile armies?

Besides these questions, still another interrogation is oftener made, "How can Japan dare to attack China?" It is presumed by most people that Japan is the aggressor and the disproportion in land, men, and resources being about one to ten, it seems to the level-headed Occidental like a bantam's challenge to a Shanghai rooster.

In reality, however, it may turn out that the Chinese rooster will find in Japan a game-cock with sharp spurs and a terrible tenacity of purpose. The real purpose of Japan is not necessarily to make war upon China, much less to conquer her. Japan fights for an idea and a principle, as well as for material gains, and to secure a basis of peace by which future relations may be harmonious.

Ever since 1864 Corea has been a menace to the peace of the Orient, and, we may say, of the world. Now that anarchy and lawlessness have reached an intolerable height in the Peninsular Kingdom; now that China has again and again broken her treaties with Japan; now that Japanese interests are threatened and Corea is in danger of becoming a Chinese province, Japan finds it necessary to assert her rights. The uprising of the whole Japanese nation at this crisis reminds us of our days of 1861, or of the awakening of Germany when the Franco-Prussian war broke out. In order to see the facts of the case clearly, let us review recent history.

Corea used to be called the last outstanding and irreconcilable scoffer at western civilization. She proudly called herself the Hermit Nation. Professing a civilization as

old as that of China, introduced by Kishi the ancestor of Confucius, she despised all western innovations and looked only to the Middle Kingdom as the one nation worthy of her regard. Against Japan she cherished a bitter hatred because of the great invasion of 1592-97, when the armies of the great Hidéyoshi overran her soil, ate up her resources, and, after being expelled by the allied Chinese and Coreans, transported almost bodily her arts and industries to Japan. Against the repeated attempts of European nations and the United States, she had opposed a surly refusal, allowing scarcely the courtesies of wood and water to foreign ships that came to proffer the olive branch. In the seventeenth century she kept as slaves the men who were so unhappy as to be shipwrecked on her shores, but in the modern days of treaties and steam, she carefully returned overland to the consuls in China all alien waifs.

In 1864 the dynasty, founded exactly one hundred years before the discovery of America, came to an end for lack of an heir, and the present king, while still a boy, was chosen as successor to the throne of Great Cho-sen (morning calm). His father was made regent, taking for his title the term "tycoon," or great prince. His full title is Tai Wen Kun, which means great prince of the royal household, that is, the king's father. An intense believer in "Corea for the Coreans" and opposed to everything that would make his country dependent even upon China, he was especially defiant of any foreign interference. Because of this ultra-patriotic zeal and his bigoted Confucianism, he was a bitter hater of Christianity and the native Christians. He immediately began a relentless persecution of the converts made by about a dozen French missionaries who were then living in the country in disguise. Men, women, and children were seized and led by thousands to the execution grounds

by the river side or on the dry torrent beds, while the leaders and influential members of the Catholic church were clapped into the circular stone jails so common in Corea. From all the sources of information in our possession, we should not feel justified in putting the number of executions for conscience' sake at less than twelve thousand. Nine of the Frenchmen were captured and after horrible tortures were on March 8, 1866, beheaded.

Then followed the descent of the French fleet, which, after a battle or two, had to retire, accomplishing nothing—a result which was logically followed by the Tien Tsin massacre of June 21, 1870.

When the American schooner *General Sherman*, whether on a piratical or a commercial expedition, was stranded in the river opposite Ping Yang, and her crew put to death, our government decided to send out an armed expedition. It was commanded by Admiral John Rodgers, but was directed by our minister at Peking, Hon. F. F. Low, who was offered the olive branch first. The results were, no treaty, a brilliant naval attack, and four hundred Coreans slain.

So vigorous was the Tai Wen Kun's rule, so awful was his name, that even in Japan men who observed the signs of the times began to feel that their own country was in danger from such a ruler, and that the next thing would be the abolition or degradation of the trading stations at Fusan. When further, as it is alleged, as is generally believed, and as is most probably true, the government in Seoul sent insulting letters to that in Tokio for abandoning Chinese civilization and adopting western ideas and customs, the wrath of the Japanese war party rose to fever heat and the cry, "On to Corea," was heard, especially in the south and west of Japan. Fortunately, however, the Tokio statesmen who had finished their tour round the world and saw the need of concentration, development, and peace, crushed the project. The result, however, was seen in uprisings which culminated in the Satsuma rebellion of 1877, which cost Japan \$50,000,000 and ten thousand lives.

In 1873, the young king of Corea attained

his majority. He had married a lady of the renowned Min family. This great clan of nobles had been for centuries one of the most forceful in Korean politics. They own vast estates, are closely allied in ancestry and by marriage to old families in China, have great influence at the Imperial court in Peking, and in every way are the devoted adherents to Chinese culture and tradition. Between the Mins and the family of the Tai Wen Kun there is the most bitter hostility. Through the influence of the Min faction, now headed by the queen, Cho (which means butterfly), the Tai Wen Kun was retired from office. Whatever may be the real character or ability of the present ruler of Corea, his force is that of a little finger compared with his father's ponderous iron hand.

Both China and Japan were quick to see this. Li Hung Chung soon began to move the frontiers of China toward Corea. Hitherto, during two centuries, there had been a strip of about fifty miles of debatable land between the Chinese province of Shing King, and the Yalu or boundary river of Corea. On the plea of exterminating robbers, Li Hung Chung sent a body of troops and a gunboat up the river and had the land surveyed and thrown open to settlers. In 1877 China, with more vigor than justice, and thoroughly generous to herself, annexed the whole of the debatable strip of land, with an area probably equal to that of Maine, and her frontiers joined Corea. Japan now pressed her claims on the other side, but in a new and a more commendable manner. She sent a fleet of ships to the outlet of the Han River near the capital, and on February 27, 1876, concluded a treaty in which Corea was recognized as *an independent nation*. Later on, the United States, May 7, 1882, and European powers following, imitated the example of Japan in making treaties and acknowledging the *independence* of Corea.

Meanwhile the old tycoon was alive and unsleeping. He was determined to maintain Corean independence, first against China and the Min faction and next against foreigners and Christianity. He took advantage of a favorable concourse of circumstances. On July 23, 1882, largely at his instigation,

the unpaid soldiers with a Korean mob attacked the Japanese legation. Seven Japanese and four ministers were actually murdered.

Japan at once sent back her minister to Seoul with a military guard, while China, that is, Li Hung Chang, despatched several regiments of Chinese troops. After enticing the Tai Wen Kun on board a man-of-war, the Chinese kidnaped him and kept him in prison in China for several years. The Mins were now again in full force.

The writer had the pleasure of meeting in New York, November 27, 1883, a part of the Korean embassy that had come to exchange ratifications of the American treaty. One was Min Yong Ik and the other was So Kwang Pom, each of them being a leader, respectively, in what may be called the pro-Chinese and pro-Japanese party, or the Seclusionists and Progressionists. Meantime, in Japan, Kim Ok Kiun, an extremist in his advocacy of progress, and about a dozen young men of good Korean families were studying the military art and the applications of western civilization, as seen in Japan, which country was to them an enormous object lesson.

When the embassy which had gone around the world arrived home, the Min faction, on the one hand, soon obtained the full control of power; while Kim Ok Kiun and the party of Progress soon found, as they believed, that affairs would come to a crisis; an attempt would be made to assert pro-Chinese ideas in their extreme form. The ideals of western civilization had been rejected. Intoxicated with what they had seen in Japan, eager to make their country great and to reform the awful abuses of ages, Kim Ok Kiun and his friends determined to strike a blow.

In a country where there are no town meetings, no representative government, no written constitutions or popular elections, craft, violence, assassination, must be the tools used. To make a long story short, Kim Ok Kiun followed the usual plan in Seoul, of incendiarism and assassination. During the public excitement, by fraudulent means and in the name of the king, he em-

ployed the Japanese legation guard of one hundred and twenty men to "defend" the latter. In reality he seized the royal palace and the person of the king and had the conservative ministers beheaded. Then followed the uprising of the people who with the Chinese troops rushed to the palace. A battle began, in which Japanese valor and marksmanship made fearful havoc with Chinese bones and flesh. The result was great slaughter, the flight to Japan and America of the conspirators whose plot had failed, the riveting anew of the Chinese chain upon the Korean court and country, an increase of the power of the Min clan, and a treaty at Tien Tsin between China and Japan in which each country bound itself not to send troops to Korea *without first notifying the other*.

This is the background out of which has risen the present imbroglio. The unbridled power of the Min faction caused vast increase of official corruption. The exactions of the tax payers began to be too much for even Koreans to bear. In this unhappy country, with its hopelessly antiquated social system, in which are only two classes, office holders and tax payers, the people when unable to give blood after having paid sweat, rise in rebellion and kill the local extortioners. This was the case in the month of May of this year, 1894. In the fertile province of Chullo Do, tens of thousands of men ranged themselves under a banner inscribed, "Eastern-Civilization Party." By this war cry they meant that the old days, bad as they were, were preferable to the days since the foreign treaties; or, more accurately, the times of Tai Wen Kun, whose "blood and iron" reform were in the interests of the common people as against the Min extortioners and those who in the name of rank and office wrung the people's blood. Utterly impotent to quell this uprising, the Min clan requested Chinese help. Early in June, Li Hung Chang in direct violation of the treaty of Tien Tsin, sent over into Korea two thousand Chinese troops; *then* he notified the Japanese government.

At this time the Japanese feeling against China and Korea had reached fever heat,

and for these reasons. Twice, after nobly recognizing the Koreans as independent and equal, the Japanese had had their legation in Seoul burned to ashes; their people driven out of the capital; the treaty repeatedly violated; trade interrupted; and, last and worst, the Chinese allowed to have an influence which utterly neutralized the idea of Korea being an *independent* nation. To crown all, after the Korean refugees and reformers of 1884 had been for nearly ten years, according to the code of international law adopted by Japan, strictly guarded against assassins, feudalism and barbarism triumphed. Kim Ok Kiun, decoyed to China, was shot in his hotel at Shanghai, May 29, while in Tokio a plot for further assassinations was unearthed by the Mikado's ministers, the would-be assassins taking refuge in the Korean legation. As if this were not enough, the subsequent behavior of both the Chinese and Korean governments added insult to injury; the former sending the assassin with honor on a Chinese man-of-war to Korea and the corpse of the assassinated in a box over which was an odious inscription. Following out the barbarous customs approved in Chinese Asia, Kim Ok Kiun's body was decapitated, and his hands and feet cut off. These ghastly proofs of the human butcher's art were first publicly exposed in the capital and then in other parts of the country.

The Japanese minister, Mr. Otori (who was last year speaker of the House of Representatives), with a regiment of soldiers reached Seoul June 9 and one week afterwards a complete army corps of five thousand men followed. This time the Japanese were not to be overwhelmingly outnumbered by Chinese troops as in 1884. The first step of Mr. Otori was a demand to his question, "Is Korea an *independent* state?" After several days, the answer was given in the affirmative. Then in the name of the Japanese government, Mr. Otori demanded that certain reforms should be carried out where-by Korea would cease to be a menace to each.

These reforms were equitable taxation, the limitation of clan rule, such measures as should secure stable government and the

maintenance of treaty stipulations. After several days of deliberation, the Korean government finally agreed to these propositions and all seemed favorable for a new life to the nation and people. Furthermore, in order to be sure of her position and the justice of her demands, Japan made propositions to China to unite with her in order that both countries should co-operate in securing the needed reforms and that thus Korea should become a link in the chain of peace.

This idea, however, was not in accord with Chinese tastes or traditions. In the eyes of China, Japan was a traitor to Asiatic and Confucian ideas. She had, scarcely a generation ago, cast away the Mongolian (lunar) calendar—that emblem of Chinese supremacy and of a pupil nation's inferiority. Japan had deliberately turned her face from Chinese ideals and had adopted, at least outwardly, the principles of occidental civilization. In Chinese eyes, Japan was an apostate, a pervert, who was offensively jealous in propagating the new creed which he had zealously adopted.

Furthermore in Seoul was the young and impetuous Chinese minister, Yuan, of ultra-Confucianistic ideas, intensely opposed to all western notions. It was he who had led the Chinese troops to battle against the Japanese in 1884, and who had presumed to give the Korean king advice about rejecting all Japanese and western notions.

Through Chinese influence, the Korean government wavered, and when China curtly and flatly refused on the 13th of July to join Japan in a neutral plan of reform, the result was soon visible in Seoul. With Chinese help promised to the Min faction, the latter clan, not willing to give up its grasp upon the vitals of Korea, made formal requisition of troops from China and through one of their number secured it. The Chinese regiments in Li Hung Chang's "private army" began mobilization in English chartered transports.

On July 20, the Korean government sent its answer to the mikado's minister, Otori. It preemptorily refused reform. It had changed its mind.

This at once drew out the ultimatum of Japan. Corea must sever all relations with China which interfered with her independence. The Chinese troops on the soil raised early in June must be withdrawn from Corean soil and Great Cho-sen must keep both the articles of the treaty of 1876 and also the recent promises of thorough reform. If no answer was given Mr. Otori by sundown of July 22, then it would be considered that Corea had rejected Japan's ultimatum.

The next day was one long to be remembered in Corea's history. American correspondents writing from Seoul say that it will ever be reckoned as the day of Corea's regeneration. At four o'clock on the morning of July 23, the Japanese minister with a military escort for defense presented himself at the palace gate. His troops were fired upon by the palace guards at the instigation of the Min faction. A short and sharp fire from the Japanese rifles, which put four score Coreans *hors du combat* with a loss of seven of their own men, secured admittance. The king, on being informed by the Japanese minister of the state of affairs, determined to make his father regent of the kingdom. The Tai Wen Kun was sent for and safely reached the palace under a Japanese escort, to begin at once the proposed reform.

War had now actually broken out between China and Japan, for already the Chinese troops were on their way on the men-of-war and the transports chartered from English merchants. The two thousand troops who had been in the country for nearly two months were reinforced by a body of five thousand men of all arms. The strong military position of A-san (the seat of a Catholic Christian congregation), between the two arms of Prince Jerome Gulf, about fifty miles below the capital, was fortified and became the chief Chinese camp.

The Tokio government at once began to transport twenty thousand men in the vessels of the Japan Transportation Company,—most of these being first-class steamers owned and controlled by Japanese. Several splendid iron-clads and other modern war ships were already in Corean ports. On July 25, two notable events happened. On land a

great Chinese army crossed the northern frontier and began its march toward Ping Yang with the ultimate view of reaching Seoul. At sea three Japanese war ships met the same number of Chinese vessels and besides capturing the cruiser, sunk a transport, the *Kow-Shing*, on which were probably one thousand five hundred men *who refused to surrender*. On August 3 came the formal declaration of war from the mikado, following that of the Chinese emperor. On July 29, at the battle of A-san, the victory rested upon the flag of the Rising Sun, the loss of the former being about five hundred and the latter about eighty. Amid the mass of conflicting reports and telegrams it is not safe at this writing to detail further the campaign. The Japanese have at the present time about fifty thousand trained troops in Corea.

What will be the outcome of the present struggle, no man can foretell. It is a struggle for principle. At bottom, it reduces itself to this: has an Asiatic nation the right to ally itself with western civilization? China has almost unlimited resources, but her people are unmilitary and it is doubtful whether she could continue a long war without being disintegrated. Japan is as a unit; has heartily adopted modern civilization; has three hundred and twenty thousand men trained in modern tactics, with arms and ships of the best kind. Her military preparations and education are at least twenty years old. She can easily afford to keep an army in the field for several years and it is doubtful whether China can drive her out of Corea. If she seems to be a rather too enthusiastic propagandist of western ideas as against oriental stagnation, it must not be forgotten that she represents civilization as against semibarbarism, Europeanism as against Asiaticism.

Americans, who are not so prone to judge foreign questions from the standpoint of trade and commerce, will be very likely to hope that the present conflict will issue in the independence of Corea; in the acknowledged right of both Japan and Corea to accept freely and fully western civilization; in the better keeping of sacred treaties, and in the larger and richer preparation of all Asia for the gospel of Jesus Christ.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

THE DUTY OF YOUNG PERSONS TO MARRIED PEOPLE.

BY ANGELINE BRYCE MARTIN.

SOCIETY has found it safe and useful to draw a very distinct line between married and unmarried people, so that even in the simplest and commonest social experiences the young married woman takes precedence of the girl, although the latter may in fact be the older; and the same rule in a narrower way holds good with married men and bachelors. Indeed married people, whether the heads of families or not, are looked upon as the conservators of social order.

A little observation will convince any young person that it is important to be able to command the fullest respect and confidence among the home-controllers of his or her acquaintance; for, in our country especially, social success begins and ends in the home, and there is no royal road to the happiness looked forward to by youths and maidens save that which leads through the flowery gateway of a suitable marriage.

It is to married people then that young persons must look for introduction, instruction, and advancement, and from them they must receive almost everything preliminary to a full draft of rational and healthful amusements, pastimes, recreations, as well as all of those broader yet more formal opportunities to see life at its best in the season of greatest receptivity and capacity for enjoyment. This is the practical basis upon which rests the social obligation binding the young to treat married people with a certain formal respect and to concede to them leadership and at least conventional precedence and superiority. The moral obligation holding young people to the strictest reverence of age and wisdom need not be considered here. The rule of social life is that, for all practical purposes, married people are not to be classified by age. What is due to one is due to all. A woman of twenty, married and the mistress of a home, is a queen, and her

husband, though a mere youth, is a king, so far as absolute power in that home is concerned. Marriage has invested the twain with a dignity which demands the respect of all the world and has given them an influence in society which can be of immense benefit to their young unmarried friends.

The respect due to married people from young persons, considering it with the most practical view to social economy, and leaving ethical elements out of sight, is a debt of honor; in paying it youth shows both prudence and fine business tact. It is one of those obligations which when discharged turn themselves into life-long annuities of profit.

But somehow sound economy is always found taking up its best substance, so to speak, from the depths of morality; that is, moral economy is the soundest and strongest prop of every social relation, and we have not far to look for the ethical reason upon which rests the duty of respect which young persons owe to married people. The fairest human tradition and the most authoritative written records define this duty and bear witness to an immemorial acknowledgement of it; and at present it is a sort of datum line from which social levels are computed; for there can be no respectable standing for him or her who neglects it, because such neglect impairs the sanctity and the divine distinction of matrimony, and because it cuts young people loose from the perfect protection afforded by mother, father, and home. This may at first glance seem overstatement; but it is not. Every good father, every good mother, belongs to the social community. They are father and mother to all the young people in their circle, their home is open, their moral influence is for all, their hospitality makes possible the free intercourse of the young.

You may safely calculate the value of a

young man by his bearing toward the married ladies he meets. If his heart is right, no matter what may be the limitations of his training, involuntary and absolutely sincere respect will mark his manner. He will show the courtesy of elementary manhood. With a difference the same may be said of the right-minded girl's bearing toward married men of her acquaintance. She never treats them with familiarity, but shows her appreciation of their friendship by that high, sweet reserve of manner which is to her what perfume is to the flower, at once the guaranty of preciousness and the essence of distinction.

In this day when young women are forced into business life and must form business relations more or less intimate with men, it is of the last importance that this beautiful barrier of respect should be kept up so that the mothers and fathers, the home-holders and arbiters of social conditions, can rightly wield their influence. Any weakening at this point will result in calamity. We must never cheapen the thought of marriage,

fatherhood, motherhood, home. Every young man must bear on toward marriage, a wife, a home, and meet his fate in fulfilling the life-dream of some noble girl. Every girl must wait for the day when she shall be a true lady of the land. This is the basis of respect due from young persons to married people; and it is pleasant to feel so safe in pursuing a course which every practical social consideration so imperiously demands.

Young people, in tracing out the details of what I have but suggested, will not fail to observe how nearly identical are familiarity and disrespect. What we regard with highest respect we cannot lay careless hands on and we like to invest it with sanctity. We Americans, like our English ancestors (for we, as a people, are of English breeding), make the home our unit of civilization and dedicate it to all that is holy. In respecting married people our young men and young women, our girls and boys, are but expressing the sweetest meaning of our social economy.

A BUNCH OF WALLFLOWERS.

BY HEINRICH LANDSBERGER.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

NOT at home? Not at home? With a decidedly nonplussed mien Schlettaan twisted his moustache, then said to the courteously smiling John,

"Where has she gone?"

Smiling still, John hastened to reply,

"To the zoölogical gardens, probably. She turned into Linden St."

"On horseback?"

"Yes."

"When did she start?"

"About a quarter of an hour ago."

"Hm."

Claygate shook his reins, blew out his great wide nostrils, the unmistakable mark of his noble ancestry, and turned his fiery light yellow eyes around to his master.

"She left no message for me?" Schlettaan asked.

"None!"

"Hm—That was pretty clear!" He lingered a minute then quickly gathered up the rein and drove Claygate forward, the sound of hoofs on the asphalt pavement ringing through the silent street till horse and rider vanished around a corner from the view of the smiling John.

It was in May. The spring was putting forth its green leaves and from the spongy brown mold by the roadway rose the fresh fragrance of new life.

Claygate trotted now at a moderate gait over the ground snuffing with his nostrils. He scented in all his members the new buds and showers. Then with each step he flung himself farther and more spiritedly. But he felt every time his master's hand at the back of the rein, and again went along with gentle

composure.

Of what was his master thinking?

It was in the opera house and they were giving Auber's "Masquerade." Schlettaan sat in the orchestra, more especially to hear the music, for he knew the opera.

The melody was good, but the tragic stuff and the rendering of the music he did not like, but he decided to remain till the end of the second act, the best part of it all, then he was to go to the English ambassador's and the evening would be pleasantly spent.

A few measures of the overture had sounded forth and Schlettaan took his opera glasses in his hand. After one glance around his eyes remained fixed directly on the proscenium box opposite. Naturally it was a young lady and a beautiful young lady who attracted him. A rather peculiar and very piquant beauty, brunette. Of what did she remind him? Decidedly of the Maria Mancini by the master Mignard. She sat directly behind the pillar, her face turned toward the stage; only a few in the house could see her. Close beside her in the shadow was discernible another woman's form; trademark, companion. So the attractive young lady was single. That was interesting.

Suddenly it became dark. The curtain went up and on the stage the royal palace of Stockholm appeared and the people and conspirators began their chorus.

A terrible contrivance this province of Bayreuth, with its accompanying darkness of the audience room! Yet there are always people who rave over Wagner and declare him a genius.

At last the act came to an end. The beautiful unknown still sat behind the pillar. Now she conversed with her companion. Now she smiled. Always the brown childish eyes of Mancini. On her breast she wore a little bouquet, mignonette it seemed to be. Really, when it came to that, the beautiful Maria in her godlike negligee would have no place for it whatever. Then the curtain rose again. This time it was the hut of the fortune-teller and the witch began her Beelzebub song. But the second act seemed to be the last, for now came the

grand chorus and then the finale.

Schlettaan rose, and what luck! She rose too. The companion reached her her wrap and muff and without once looking around both left the box.

"Open your hand to fortune," had always been his motto, and a minute later he was walking up and down before the entrance quite cheerfully.

There she came. A form worthy of the face that looked out free and open above the otter fur. She did not observe him. A carriage rolled up and very distinctly he caught the order, "Viktoria St., 3c." So she was going to Viktoria St., 3c. Just as the carriage rolled away he caught sight on the asphalt of something white, a lace handkerchief, apparently of Flemish weave, with a fragrance of Parma violets. That sufficed!

From the porter of the house whose number he had overheard, he next day learned that this young lady had taken there a suite on the first floor, in October, and that she was a foreigner. She came from Holland and called herself Jeanne d' Eryv. That was all that the servant knew. Then he gave in his card: "Gregory Baron von Schlettaan of the Linden Estate, Lord of the Manor, Member of the Royal Council of Ceremonies, Introducer of the Diplomatic Corps," and a minute later she stood before him. She was in a riding habit. Thus attired she looked more graceful than ever.

"Pardon me, miss," he said. "Fortune has put this lace handkerchief into my unworthy hands. A second fortune has permitted me to hear—I stood just by the opera house yesterday evening when a lady all wrapped up called out to the cabman her house number, Viktoria St., 3c. From my card you see I am a diplomatist, to combine is my calling and since, moreover, this handkerchief has a monogram on it, I will ask if it is your property."

She smiled.

"Yes, it is. And many thanks to you, sir. I am obliged to you."

She spoke with a slight accent that sounded very pretty, at the same time without any affectation extending her hand to him. Alas, the riding glove covered it. But he was not

to be repressed by that. According to the Russian custom he turned the glove back a little and kissed her wrist. That did not seem to surprise her. She smiled again with all candor and they separated with the customary words.

Then he watched her with the servant boy go around the corner. From the porter he learned further that at this hour the young lady rode out every day, the weather permitting, and went to the zoological gardens regularly. He noticed that she wore a little bouquet again, another bunch of mignonette. This time it meant something to him: she loved flowers.

Schlettaan had with his estimable sincerity confessed that this beautiful alien had pleased him to an unusual degree and piqued his curiosity. The result of this discovery was that the very next afternoon at about the same hour, he mounted Claygate and repaired to that favorite resort of all riders, the zoological gardens. He did not have to wait long. In the chestnut drive he saw her coming and again the green bloomed on her breast. Politely he lifted his hat, politely with the whip she returned his greeting, and they had passed one another. So it happened the next day and the third. Finally on the fourth he made up his mind that something would have to happen, and immediately devised a plan as she came toward him. In an instant he leaned over the bridle and buckled the check rein about two holes shorter. Claygate could not endure that. Now he bowed, she lowered the whip and at the same time with stealthy but resolute grip he pulled on the reins. Claygate gave a great leap, shied, and barred her way. It was a success.

"Pardon," he exclaimed, "but these careless hostlers! Surely the beast must be reined too tightly."

She was a horsewoman and was interested to account for the halt. "Really, it was the check rein! The poor creature!" she said pityingly.

He laughed. Claygate was all right again.

"These dreadful hostlers, miss! I warn you against the whole race of them!"

"Ah! If only people would give a little

attention to things themselves!" She smiled and went on her way.

"A reproach, my lady? You are right. It is one which I deserve. But what will sadden me forever is a reproach from such lips."

He said these words so honestly and so drolly that not a trace of pretension lurked in them.

She took them well, too, for, serene and with all the candor which from the beginning had attracted him to her, she replied,

"Thank you! Is that not gallantry for you?"

It is proverbial how soon people on horseback get acquainted, and a few seconds later he was by her side, and both, followed by the servant, rode leisurely between the unleaved trees that arched above the road.

So he had not displeased her. They talked and laughed gaily. Almost as if it had been a privilege long denied and long desired, she seemed to welcome the opportunity to converse.

"From Holland?" he asked very diplomatically and pointed to her fawn-colored horse, whose long back and rather heavy build indicated its Friesland origin.

"Yes. I well know that you Germans do not value our horses as saddle horses. But Niquet is from my native country and she is very dear to me."

Niquet neighing turned her head about as if to emphasize her mistress' words.

"Ah, you are a Hollander?" he asked in much surprise.

Yes, she was indeed from Holland, though French according to her family tree. A D' Ervy had been minister under Louis the Fifteenth. Her father, through inheritance, had come into possession of a great calico-printing establishment in Amsterdam, and since as a Royalist he was willing to serve neither the emperor nor the republic, and on the other hand hated idleness, he had gone to Holland and taken the management of the factory into his own hands.

Then he died and she came to The Hague to boarding school, where she had learned her German. There were no relations to see to and as she was of age she decided to enjoy

her golden freedom while she could and above all to see a little of the world. Leaving the factory in the care of an old trusty man who had served her father many years, she went first to Paris, then to London and thence to Berlin. Though they had overpraised Berlin to her yet it pleased her here very much; besides what more could one ask for than these excellent driveways and this at once so lovely and so conveniently located?

They parted, entirely without constraint, directly before the portal of her house. The next afternoon he met her again and so on through the whole week, and when a fortnight had flown he went to meet her at her house. The groom had become superfluous.

Under other conditions Schlettaan would have been vain of the groom's absence. But in this case he did not deceive himself. It signified nothing with her, nothing in the least.

He had readily recognized this character. A nature open and cheerful and lovable, without any affectation or exaltation and of that firmness and self-control that is accustomed to decide for itself,—the true and noble aristocracy such as is no longer found, especially among unmarried women, in these days. And then the perfect artlessness of her whole manner. Yet, in spite of it all, a complete woman. Nothing striking in her that was not compatible with the highest principles of good tone and good taste. And Schlettaan loved good taste; indeed it was his passion.

Three months had passed and daily they had taken their ride. At twelve o'clock he went for her, about two o'clock they returned. Whenever he went about five o'clock to the Parisian apartment of the Casino to dine, he always took away the conviction, "She is a charming, indeed a wholly superior, creature."

One day there came to him the thought of marrying her. His affairs were prospering admirably, so that he need not refrain from marrying on that account. Did he love her? Only in a cold-blooded sort of a way. But what then was love? Surely nothing pa-

thetic. But one thing was sure: a better representative than she was he could not think of, in the parlors nor at court nor in the dance nor in his home at the Linden estate nor in the castle park with the terraces about it and the stone statues—she was the one woman to his liking.

One afternoon, after the others had all gone away from the table leaving him alone with his cigar, he came to a decision to marry her.

Wait, there is one consideration yet. Will she accept his proposal? Great heavens, why not? In all the world, why not? It was decided.

One thing bothered him yet. How should he tell her? A courting, a declaration of love in the regulation manner? Yes, of course, yes. What else could be done?

Curiously, he had a decided impression that this course would not answer. It was too sudden and abrupt, and then—without a bit of pathos or stirring to the depths that he could detect, it would not please him and surely not her. How then could he tell her in a suitable manner? That was what puzzled him.

One day a sudden idea occurred to him that was so pretty and so altogether pleasing to him that it immediately rid the question of all objections and all difficulties, and yet was not commonplace. No stupid devotional indirectness but a piquant arrival at the point. He smiled to himself as he pictured how it would please her. At least it would not be ordinary!

He was rallying her on her love for flowers. She laughingly admitted it and said that it was a trait taken from her Holland home, which was a paradise of flowers. Indeed at the boarding school in The Hague one of the studies to which the young ladies had given the best attention was the language of flowers, and, for the sake of the poetry in it and the amusement it afforded, she too had acquired it. Therefore she liked to wear mignonette because in Holland it signified "truth."

The pretty conceit pleased him and especially that it could serve him a turn.

On the morrow occurred the long expected

and long prepared for flower festival, and she, so she told him, would be there.

"Good," he said, "let us go together."

"Gladly," she replied, "but I—I am going to drive a coach."

"You? And I, a man, sit calmly beside you?"

"You can do as you like about it, but driving is my passion and I am going to drive."

Neither would yield and so it was decided that they would go to the flower festival in separate carriages.

The next day in taking leave of her before her house, he smilingly added,

"Till to-morrow!"

"At the flower festival!"

"One thing more, I have some news for you!"

"What is it?"

"Instead of from my lips you shall learn it from the flowers. You understand the language of flowers. They will tell you to-morrow at the flower festival. And consider well their message. Good-by till to-morrow!"

Then he departed. He went into the nearest bookstore and bought a little lexicon on the language of flowers. Hatred, love, aspiration, tenderness, vexation, esteem, scorn, and every shade of sentiment that the human heart can feel, had their symbols assigned them. There was a perfect maze of proposals *à la jardinière* to choose from. Finally he decided on "wallflower," which signified "cordial love." That sounded at the same time strong and full of feeling. But could he not have something else as good? "Ardent passion for" was decidedly too much and "deepest reverence" was too formal and besides was not expressive enough. "Cordial love," wallflower, it would have to be.

He went to a greenhouse, and there, attracted by their sweet perfume, he found them, tall and short, from bright yellow to a soft velvety brown. He chose a dwarf variety with dark flowers. It was, the gardener told him, a specialty which could be obtained only in Dresden and Berlin. Schlettaan was pleased with this knowledge and took the rare bouquet with him in his carriage, resolving to contain himself with as much patience

as possible till the eventful hour on the following day.

At the appointed time a beautiful, fragrant pageant rewarded his patience. Into his carriage there came a fragrant bombardment, and richly he returned the gentle peltings; only the bouquet of dark brown wallflowers remained on the seat. Among all the crowd his glance searched for her. There was a great commotion. The empress! Drawn by a magnificent team of six, loaded with mayflowers and La France roses, and with the three princes on the back seat. A fresh shouting! The emperor with a team of four white horses! Over his usually serious face there played to-day a satisfied smile as he flung his fragrant gifts in every direction. Then came the mail coach of the militia guards, of the third regiment; officers, ladies, horses, carriages filled with red and white roses, and at last—she.

In a gig entirely covered with snowballs and canopied with alder and apple blossoms, she came, beaming like a flower queen, and what a thundering applause arose from the spectators! How she received it! Then he threw his bouquet. It was well aimed, falling directly into her lap. Then their carriages whirled by each other.

In vain he turned around. He could not see her, she seemed to have vanished completely. Anyhow, on the morrow he was to receive her answer.

The morrow came. This time his heart did beat. How had she accepted the flowers? With what countenance would she receive him? What answer would she give him?

With these thoughts he came before her home and waited.

The door opened, but in place of her, John appeared. John announced that she had not expected him this time and had ridden off alone.

Alone and without him. So she had understood him. Otherwise she would not have ridden off without him. And why had she done it? Apparently because after what had happened she wished to avoid him, which meant that she did not love him, that she refused his hand! That accounted for her

vanishing so suddenly yesterday. It was all clear enough.

In a word he had received her refusal.

Claygate slackened his pace. He seemed to enjoy it and his master let him lag or hurry, just as he pleased. Claygate scarcely felt the rein.

The road was deserted. The spring sky shone blue and a fresh breeze stirred the branches of the trees. The end of an ash-tree limb broke off noisily and its fine green leaves brushed the rider's cheek in its fall. At last he woke from his dream and looked about him in astonishment, grasping the rein tighter. Claygate went along at a slow gait that was unusual to him.

Something very strange dawned on Schlettaan, like a sudden discovery.

"Love is the fear of losing," says a Swedish poet. Now that he had lost her he realized his love. It was indeed love! A bunch of flowers had taught him that he loved her.

Now he looked about. What did he want here, what was he seeking here? Certainly not her? He would not admit that. Away, dream. He never would see her again, never!

He pulled the reins and turned Claygate into a side path. It was the nearest way home.

Of all things! Straight ahead, near the end of the path, where the trees almost interlock overhead—was the form of a rider, a woman, on a fawn-colored horse.

She did not notice him for the spongy ground did not echo with the horse's hoofs.

His eye for horsemanship deserved it and for a moment he would feast his eye on the sight of her. How she sat! The ideal of a horsewoman. Upright and firm she sat there, not stooped and lumpy as are so many riders. Nor had she on the foolish long habit such as the German women wore, but she was habited, after the English fashion, in a short plain garment with her shining boots showing below the skirt, and all the astonished glances and turned-up noses of the good Berlin horseback riders she did not allow to disconcert her.

There was a bend in the street. When they turned around it they would meet people

and then he never could speak to her, never could grasp her hand, and all would be over.

They were steadily approaching this corner.

Suddenly it came over him that he must hear the sound of her voice once more, must look deep into her eyes, must clasp her hand once more, and kiss her lips just once before he gave her up forever.

He leaned far forward and like an arrow Claygate flew along. The hoofs now resounded on the ground, she looked around.

As she saw him she started and hastily turned back. She would outride him. But too late. Already he had caught up to her. Just beyond was the street and observation by the people would be inevitable. So she stopped and he stopped too. What he was to do he did not know. Had he any right to demand what he had intended? Was he a fool then?

"You understood me? But if you did, why do you run away? If either of us ought to flee to hide his confusion, ought it not to be I?"

"You?"

Proudly she took a long breath, her cheeks were flaming and her eyes flashed at him.

"It seems that I have not fully understood you," she replied and her voice trembled, "but yesterday I understood you. What do you want of me now?"

"What I asked."

"Is it not true that you sent me your esteem and friendship? That was what you meant, wasn't it?"

"What?"

"Esteem and friendship. Because more, more you can never give me. I thank you for showing me the truth that I love you. But what now? Let me go, never to see you again!"

She tried to go, but he held her back with a strong hand.

"What is that? Explain it all to me, for I do not understand a word of it."

"Explain? I explain to you? How, were not the wallflowers from you?"

"Yes, Jeanne. They should have told you that I love you!"

"You love me?"

And she looked at him dumfounded.

"Heavens! Wallflowers, what else could they mean? Do they not signify cordial love? O and how cordially I love you!"

Then a strange light dawned over her face, like a ray of sunshine, and she smiled, and laughed with sunny eyes,

"Cordial love? No, unhappily, wallflower, at least according to our interpretation in Holland, means esteem and friendship. It is only cold esteem and friendship you can give me, is it not?"

"What, esteem and friendship?"

"Yes. I will not deceive myself! For we never were lovers! But you did not wish

to compromise me by your constant companionship and so we would better part! That is what I thought you meant."

"What? Jeanne! Such a misunderstanding. And you are vexed with me for it?"

"Why, of course! For before the flowers told me you were lost to me I was not conscious that the sentiment in my heart for you was love."

"Jeanne, Jeanne! Exactly my own experience; is it possible?"

He bent down to her—for the road was silent and deserted—and she leaned over, not away from him, while he told her with unmistakable eloquence the message he had meant the wallflowers to convey.

A TRIP TO DEVIL'S HEART MOUNTAIN, NORTH DAKOTA.

BY EUGENE MAY, D. D.

"WHEN the fretful stir
Unprofitable, and the fever of the world,
Have hung upon the beatings of my heart,
I go where nature's solitude is strong
And list to voices of forgotten pasts."

FOUR hundred and sixteen miles northwest of St. Paul, Minn., one hundred and sixty-five from Fargo, N. D., a few miles from Devil's Lake is a strange and prominent elevation known as the Mountain of the Devil's Heart, or the Devil's Heart Mountain. Its height above the general level around is variously estimated at from 300 to 600 feet. It is easily visible from the railway twenty and even thirty miles distant. I first saw this mountain three years ago and have ever since been deeply impressed with the idea that it is of artificial formation. In July last I visited this region and satisfied myself relative to this conjecture.

The starting point on this occasion was the Devil's Lake Chautauqua Grounds. Here a steamer is taken across the lake for Fort Totten, seven miles distant. The lake itself might well be the theme of an article. It is a great inland salt sea, nearly or quite 70 miles in its greatest length and 16 miles in its widest point. The shores are bold and irregular, the scenery beautiful and

often striking, and many interesting Indian legends are associated with it.

The Devil's Lake Chautauqua is one of the latest Summer Assemblies, being in its second year. It is largely attended and will doubtless become in a few years one of the most prosperous. An Indian reservation is on the opposite side of the lake from the Chautauqua grounds, and from this fact arises a contrast that is certainly one of the quaintest and most suggestive that ever occurred. While the Assembly is in full blast the Indians have a great reunion, encampment, and dance near Fort Totten. The circle of tents this year was more than two miles around and one thousand five hundred Indians participated in the dances. In the morning we may attend the Assembly prayer circle, and the Chautauqua Round Table, and at eleven o'clock listen to a lecture on some popular and scholarly theme, and in the afternoon witness the strange and startling dances of the savages in war paint and wild costumes, mingling colors and fantastic decorations in bewildering mazes, in the grass dance, moon dance, war dance, squaw dance, and, authorities permitting, the celebrated and terrible ghost dance. Certainly this is remarkable, the highest wave of mod-

ern civilization touching the deepest wave of ancient savagery.

On the way to Fort Totten Captain Heerman of the *Minnie H.* pointed out on Sully's Hill two great mounds intersecting each other in the form of a gigantic cross. By whom they were made, or when, is not known. Arriving at the fort we are on historic ground. Near by General Sully was surrounded by the Indians on the hill bearing his name and he and his command narrowly escaped being massacred. On the way to the fort we pass the old log house built by the Hudson Bay Company when this was one of their posts, the ancient port-holes still visible.

It is ten miles from the fort to the Devil's Heart Mountain. The journey is undertaken by my comrade and myself on bicycles. Two miles out we come to a very peculiar rock known as the Devil's Molar. It is several tons in weight, is the shape of a giant tooth, and is very richly colored. Over the way is a ridge known as the Devil's Backbone. Surely the world believes in a devil. I have seen the Devil's Slide in the Rocky Mountains, the Devil's Punch Bowl in Ireland, the Devil's Bridge in Switzerland, but it is reserved for North Dakota to present us with his teeth, backbone, and heart.

A mile farther on from the Devil's Tooth, the rear tire of my friend's bicycle gave out. In vain did we labor with it for an hour and a half to repair the damage. Some tiny leak in the inner tire escaped detection. We were in the hot sun without shade or water near and were compelled to give over the task. Reluctantly I parted company with my companion and pursued the journey alone. The roads were superb for the bicycle and but for the intense heat of the sun on this burning summer day the ride would have been most enjoyable. Over a strange country I went bowling on, riding touching nearly a mile down the slopes without touching the pedals.

Approaching the mountain I made a detour around it in order to observe its appearance from different directions. It is a very impressive object seen from any standpoint. When on the northwestern side I noted that

there are in fact three mounds grouped here. The first is about 50 feet high, the second 80 to 100 feet, and the third, the Devil's Heart, 300 to 400. A mile away, seen from this direction, they resemble the three great Pyramids of Gizeh. They are on a smaller scale, round instead of square, but bearing much the same relation as to distance from each other and having about the same relative proportion. Three sides of the Devil's Heart Mountain are very steep and fatiguing to climb. The south side, however, after overcoming the first 50 feet, is comparatively easy to ascend. Up this way and over a ridgelike formation I pushed my bicycle before me to the top, climbing fence row style.

The extreme summit gives evidence of having once been flat, shaped like a triangle, and 30 or 40 feet to a side. The view from the summit is vast and beautiful. As far as the eye can see in every direction are the round cotahs and the rolling lands, vast prairie regions, little timber in sight, small lakes gleaming in the sun, and a number of towns and villages visible. The mountain is reared upon the highest general elevation for perhaps a hundred miles around. No more commanding site could have been chosen for a mound or monument. The mountain is 300 to 400 feet above the general level, 600 to 700 above the lake, and 1,800 to 2,000 above the sea. The shape has given it its name of the heart. It seems to me to be in the form of a heart lying flat along the earth rather than in an upright position.

In the east side of the mountain is a cave of apparently considerable depth. This has never been explored. I much regretted the lack of necessary assistance to investigate this mystery. Trees of considerable size and height grow out of this cave along the sides, the tops of some of them not reaching the upper borders of the opening.

What was this strange mound or mountain used for? In my judgment for two purposes, that of burial for distinguished dead and also for offering sacrifices to the gods. Perhaps this cave originally was the avenue by which the bodies were borne to the sepulture within. In 1838 in West Virginia a large mound was excavated and two burial cham-

bers found, one at the base and one some thirty feet above the first. Thorough exploration here would very likely reveal something similar.

The builders of the Devil's Heart were a race far superior to the Indians in civilization and having a well-developed religious belief. They were doubtless in the course of time ruined by a dynasty of despots who subjected them to tasks like the building of the pyramids in Egypt and as a result we have these wonderful mounds.

At the Chautauqua Assembly, the day after this visit, came the Indian children from the school at Fort Totten, one hundred and fifty strong, to entertain the audience with their simple songs and exercises. With them on this occasion were the chieftains of the Reservation, Wa-ne-tah and Ta-was-tah. The latter favored us with an impromptu speech, interpreted by a young Sioux Indian.

Ta-was-tah said: "Many, many years ago, I lived on the shores of this lake and then never expected to see a white man here. On the shores of Minnewaukon (the Indians call the lake Minnewaukon, the haunted waters, and will not know it by any other name) the deer, the elk, the bear, and the buffalo were to be seen from one end of the land to the other. Near your grounds here, long ago, a white man was killed by a bear. By this point on the lake the first Chippewa Indian that ever came to the lake was killed by a Sioux warrior. Then we used to hunt the buffalo and drive them upon the lake when it was frozen over. They would slide upon

the ice and could not get away and we killed them in large numbers. Here where you have your Assembly we used to raise our children. It is our land. Now you raise your children here and give us nothing for our land. Once we were very, very many and there were no white men here. Then later we were many and you were few. Now you are very, very many and we are few and the shadow of the Indian will hardly reach to the white man's knees."

Yes, and many, many years ago, it may be, the Indians took from the mound builders this same territory and not less ruthlessly than it has been snatched from them by a mightier hand. The revenge of history is sure to come. Who shall say that God is not the Judge and oft makes man His executioner? The mound builders degenerated until they reached the depth of offering human sacrifices upon the altars of their gods. Despotism and idolatry were in the supremacy and down they go into the ashes of the ages so deep we cannot dig up the records of them. And the white race in the United States has its lesson to learn. Digging in the crumbled ruins of Babylon, among the broken arches of Rome, around the molding mummies of Egypt we read most distinctly, unmistakably, that the nations perish that pander to the aristocracy, the wealthy few, and tyrannize over and enslave the many.

Two thirds of the way down I mount my wheel and finish the descent, the first person who ever rode down the Devil's Heart on a bicycle.

A MODERN CINDERELLA.

BY ANNA HINRICHS.

THE American girl is a modern Cinderella. She is a wonderful creature. Social pet, scholar, artist, musician, cook, seamstress, milliner, all of these qualifications are exemplified in the average society belle of to-day. As seen in the social world she is cruelly misjudged.

Who would suppose those delicate hands

capable of fashioning so bewitching a gown, of preparing delicious desserts, that those rosy palms could mold flakey bread and ply the scrubbing brush and broom with the grace of an artist? That those dainty feet trip cheerily from cellar to garret in the fulfillment of domestic duties of every description? That the queenly head and swanlike

neck bend over steaming suds and soiled linen as gracefully as when saluting her partner in the minuet? Nay, should emergency demand, fair Cinderella would not shirk the most menial of necessities.

She is father's pride and solace, mother's right hand in discharging social and domestic obligations. As sympathetic confidante of the little ones, all childish griefs, disappointments, hopes, plans, and secrets are reposed in her. Who would believe that this dazzling being, whose dancing is a perfect dream of rhythmic poetry, this shining star of the brilliant ballroom, was but a short time ago queen of the culinary realms? Yet, unlike that of her traditional prototype, the transformation of this nineteenth century Cinderella is real.

One-two-three-four-five-six! the town clock calls Cinderella from dreamland. Hastily she dons a pretty, simple morning-gown and noiselessly slips down into the kitchen. The delectable coffee and feathery rolls she herself makes, and invitingly spreads the cloth. She gathers fresh flowers, and lays the morning papers beside father's plate. For the children she prepares a tempting lunch and collects their school books. She gathers the wee one's scattered toys, and arranges the disordered sitting room. Everywhere the tone of comfort and cheer mutely bespeak the touch of her fingers. Then like the first sunbeam of a glorious day, her fresh voice awakens the family.

The morning repeat is over. The children have gone to school, father to his office, and mother and daughter are deep in the occupations of a well-regulated household. It is wash day. The fine linen and laces are not to be trusted in the careless hands of the maid. Cinderella soon has an array of peerless linen on the line and the laces beautifully pressed and ready for use.

Then comes the daily marketing. Mother is too busy to attend to it this morning. Her daughter, however, is an able substitute. Cinderella is quite competent to judge of tender beef, young fowl, fresh vegetables and fruit. The morning-gown is quickly replaced by a jaunty street-suit, and she dispatches her errands with the bearing and

quiet confidence of an experienced woman.

Smilingly she greets her acquaintances. Among them are many who have more than one maid of all work, and hence find ample leisure for a forenoon roll or stroll. The rector's wife meets her and solicits aid for a bazaar. Yes, she will contribute some of her "famous cake and macaroons" and assume responsibility of a booth. It is to be a dress affair. She hastens home to begin her costume immediately.

Energetically she runs the machine. The door bell rings and she is summoned to the parlor. The winter has been severe, and there is much want and sickness. A benefit is being arranged. Will she not kindly allow her name on the program for a vocal number? Certainly for charity's sake, she never refuses. Additional work. A suitable selection must be practiced, and another toilet planned.

Mother is threatened with a nervous headache and must rest. Father has sent word that he will bring some friends to dinner. Cinderella, enveloped in a huge pinafore, seeks the seclusion of the kitchen. She bakes the pastry, and prepares the delicious *entremets* and fancy dishes, directs the maid, and superintends every detail of the elaborate dinner. She designs a novel floral decoration for the table and sees that, upstairs and down, everything is in order. Quickly another change of dress, and the erstwhile cook attired in an elegant house-robe, awaits with her mother the arrival of the guests.

"What a rare woman is our hostess to have reared such a daughter," is the general verdict.

The dinner concluded, Cinderella has a stack of correspondence to dispose of. She is father's private amanuensis. Later on, she is entertaining callers. She is a sparkling conversationalist on almost any topic. Her finely stored mind is the fruit of a preference for solid reading rather than emotional fiction. She has a magnificent voice, plays well, is a connoisseur of art, a critic of current literature, and converses fluently in two languages besides her own. At all gatherings she is hailed as a great acquisition. A considerate hostess, yet with equal charm,

she allows herself to be entertained.

Why this endless and unfeeling criticism of our American society girl? True, she devotes much careful consideration to her wardrobe. The world would be none the worse would more women do likewise. It is a personal obligation that every woman owes herself, her loved ones, and those whose love she would hold. It is her duty to make the best of charms with which she may be endowed, to cultivate those toward which she has an inclination, and invariably to attire herself becomingly, making a study of colors and styles to accentuate her strong points and disguise her shortcomings.

This does not mean extravagance. Neither does it represent an inexhaustible fund of wealth. Cinderella is possessed of an instinctive and peculiar gift. Under her magic fingers old-fashioned and even discarded garments are remodeled into rapturous visions of fresh loveliness. Surely, the most hardened cynic must admit that it is better that she be a disciple of Dame Fashion than of Dame Gossip, better that her mind be occupied with the latest fads and fancies than the latest bit of gossip.

Cinderella is lovable, cultured, kind-hearted, genuine, energetic, plucky, prac-

tical, with just enough romance to make her the fascinating creation of true womanhood—an ideal to which she is ever true. As circumstance dictates, she is in turn the ear-nest speaker, the sympathetic listener, the silent comforter, or doler out of conventional nothings. Gifted in numerous directions, she is inevitably master of some one pre-eminent accomplishment. In time of adversity she does not hesitate to draw from her vast storehouse some resource which she applies with successful remuneration and undaunted determination.

Because seen only in the glittering garb of "Cinderella at the ball," do not think her unqualified in the rôle of "Cinderella in the ashes."

Finally, in sweet accord with the oft-told tale, she meets her "prince" in the ball-room. He is not enamored simply with the daintily beslippered foot. He is captivated by some indescribable magic which seems part of herself. He entertains neither doubts nor misgivings when he leads forth his beautiful Cinderella to reign over his castle. Be it an elegant mansion or an unpretentious cottage, he realizes that under the sway of her mystic wand it becomes his haven of peace and joy—an earthly paradise.

BRITISH AMBULANCE LECTURES.

BY M. A. WADDELL RODGER.

MANY have heard the story told by John B. Gough, of the little English maid who had gone from a humble home to work in a lordly castle. A nobleman was expected at the mansion and the housekeeper called together the retainers to tell them how to address the coming guest.

"If His Lordship speaks to you, you must always say 'Your Grace.'"

The unsophisticated girl knew of but one grace and that the one said by her father before dinner. Next morning as she tripped upstairs, she met the august visitor.

"Good morning, my little one," said the

nobleman, "you look pretty enough to kiss this morning."

The little maid clasped her hands and meekly courtesying said, "For what we are about to receive may the Lord make us truly thankful."

Not even the most loyal Briton will deny that titles are very dear to the British heart, in fact they love to say "Your Grace." This unadmirable trait of character made itself conspicuous on an admirable occasion, in the quaint old city of Bristol, that same Bristol, by the way, in which Southey and Hannah More lived and where St. Augustine first met the British monks.

Near the cathedral is the Merchant Venturers' School, a grammar school with some high school studies for boys and girls. It was founded by some of the merchants of the middle ages who made fortunes by venturing over the seas. This school furnishes some three hundred pupils with an excellent commercial education at a low cost, in combination with manual training in plumbing, carpentering, blacksmithing, and various other trades. Evening sessions for adults are held in the same building, with lectures, classes for dressmaking, etc.

The courteous head master, in cap and gown, showed us with evident pride the complete chemical laboratories and remarked, as if something very rare, that a young woman in the evening classes was taking chemistry. It was with no little surprise that he learned that in all our women's and co-educational colleges chemistry is part of the curriculum.

In the evening we found that graduation exercises were to take place in the hall of this building and that between fifty and one hundred men and women were to receive medals certifying that they had successfully taken a course of study in ambulance lectures, or in giving first aid to the injured.

We attended the graduation of the ambulance lecture students. A portly duke stood on the platform in solemn silence and handed to the graduates their medals, as they filed past in solemn silence. Then the speeches began; in vain we listened for the words that should rouse the students to further study and intellectual effort. The speakers referred incidentally to those who had taken the course of lectures, but with one accord they laid their laurels at the feet of the portly duke for his condescension in gracing the occasion by his august presence.

Now we have no portly dukes to preside over such an occasion, but why cannot we have the occasion minus the duke? In every large town in Britain, courses of lectures are annually given by competent physicians on first aid to the injured. The first two lectures treat of the outline of the structure and functions of the human body. Those following furnish plain and simple rules which may enable any one knowing and un-

derstanding them to act in cases of accident or sudden illness, for the welfare of the suffering patient until the arrival of professional help. The third is devoted to means of arresting arterial, venous, and capillary bleeding; treatment of wounds; treatment of fractures; foreign bodies in eye or ear; treatment of burns and scalds; and bites from rabid animals. The fourth treats of sprains, blood spitting, insensibility, its causes and treatment; poisoning and treatment. The fifth tells what to do for the restoration of the apparently drowned; suffocation by gases, sunstroke, and choking. The sixth and last lecture is devoted to bandaging and directions for the removal of injured or sick persons by bearers, stretchers, country carts, or by trains.

The lectures are illustrated on the blackboard and by object lessons. The pupil is taught to make a tourniquet for cases of severed arteries; he is also taught to bandage properly the different parts of the body.

One cannot fail to see at a glance how valuable such a course of lectures must be. And though for lack of this very knowledge precious lives are sacrificed weekly, how few people, comparatively, know what to do in case of wounding, drowning, or poisoning.

A few weeks ago a child fell into the river near its home; it was rescued almost immediately, but neither the agonized mother nor the sympathizing neighbors knew what treatment to give the unconscious child and before the hour had elapsed which brought the doctor, the little one was dead. Not less sad was the case of the young schoolmaster who stumbled against the buzz saw in the lumber yard and had his leg amputated. Before the physician's arrival he had bled to death. The application of a simple tourniquet would have saved his life. Are not such cases common in every neighborhood?

The cost of this valuable course of lectures in British towns is only about one dollar and seventy-five cents while the saving of life and prevention of life-long deformity is incalculable. Why can we not have just such courses of lectures delivered in every town and city of the United States during the coming winter?

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

TWO IMPROVEMENTS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

A NEW typographical expression is given to THE CHAUTAUQUAN in this issue. We have selected a style of letter which, we think, will be easy to the eyes of young and old; it is plain, not too dark nor too light in its impression, and being new every letter is clean cut, making a marked improvement in the dress of the magazine.

To *Current History and Opinion*, beginning on page 91, we call special attention. This is a much needed putting of the latest news for each month, and will be found instructive and entertaining. It is a difficult piece of work to do, when we remember that on a given subject there may be a dozen quotations, yet no two are allowed to express the same opinion. There will be variety in unity, and under each heading one may find free expression, together with courtesy and manly forbearance. The reader can be the judge, as he ponders the opinions cited, and all may congratulate themselves on the educational work and freedom of the press.

PERSPECTIVE IN STUDY.

WHAT we loosely call science is, perhaps, like a horse with the bridle-bit hard clamped between his teeth, running away with the world. There certainly is such a thing as too much reliance upon the present influence, which urges every thought toward mere practical material subjects, leaving the spiritual tastes unexercised and ungratified. We are far from opposing science, even as the word is most loosely used; what we deem worth considering is whether or not the student of to-day really gets command of that far and liberal perspective which gives the imagination due importance in life.

Extremes are rarely safe; zealots, although useful to the world, never win without great waste of precious materials, and there is always the danger of hypertrophy on one hand or atrophy on the other; that is, the

faculties overworked will be unduly developed and those neglected will shrivel and become paralyzed. Too much imagination may dwarf the cold business sense of a man; but overmuch of this cold business sense may smother out all the delicate moral qualities and the magnetic warmth which are generated in a liberal soul.

The deepest mistake being made to-day by a certain class of enthusiastic men of science is neglect of the imagination; or it may be that imagination is misunderstood and the word is used by them to represent the faculty which deals with unrealities. These earnest and active men seem to overlook the tremendous results accomplished, even in natural science, by the imaginations of such men as Kepler, Newton, Goethe, Franklin, and Laplace. We are all too apt to look upon Darwin as a man devoid of the divine gift; but his theory is none the less a great poem in the abstract because its mountain of dry details shuts off the horizon of enchantment.

The student should be permitted to see and feel something more than mere material substance when he touches the hem of Nature's garment; the contact must bring the thrill of immemorial kinship from the living, quivering body and the luminous soul within it. There is danger that we shall lose the tradition of poetry pure and simple and with it the consciousness of a perspective whose vanishing point is our spiritual origin. There is equal risk in casting aside all else for what we call practical science, of falling into the mill of conscienceless materialism and being ground to the dust of pessimism.

Human life can safely bear a large load of cheer to light its way withal, and there is nothing more delectable than a far view, whether retrospect or prospect, with ravishing glimpses of overpassed countries and distant promise-lands. The cumulative power of experience comes up the generations to us when we stand on a high place of imagination and look back over the road winding along from the shepherds of prehistoric days

to the man who controls the electric motor.

We grow like what we contemplate; it is the inexorable law of evolution; and the survival of the fittest may be the triumph of the undesirable if we persistently choose an arid environment. The students of to-day are the teachers of to-morrow; what if we build hard walls of materialism close around us and higher than our heads, even arched over to shut off the mystery of blue heaven? Shall we gain by this close confinement? It is not mere elbow room that the human soul wants, it is unlimited range for its splendid wings.

We may lay to heart the truth that the student who fails to put his soul into his study—who is satisfied to make a cold intellectual operation of his life-work, can never feel the high value of wisdom. Knowledge he may gain; but he will never hear the bubbling of those sweet fountains that flow from the ancient caves of happiness. To put aside imagination is to shut out the rosy light of a perennial morningtime.

Happy is the student who sets every thought between him and a far horizon and sees it in comparison with all the cognate ideas that he can muster on the field of imagination.

A healthful use of the imagination sets things in the higher light, in the broader atmosphere. Sound thinking is not confined to a hard and fast rule of measure and cut. True, it is anchored to fact and cannot turn away from established truth; but who shall say that there are not beyond every rock-ribbed reef of facts, flowery islands that beckon to the best elements of our being? That there are not, high over every monument of established truth, sweet currents of invisible influence as precious as love itself?

THE C. L. S. C. FOR 1894-95.

THE Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle is now sixteen years old. It was organized in the Hall in the Grove at Chautauqua, N. Y., by Bishop John H. Vincent, when letters were read approving the plan from Lyman Abbott, A. A. Hodge, Arthur Gilman, Howard Crosby, William C. Wilkinson, Charles F. Deems, and W. F. Warren.

William Cullen Bryant wrote the following letter, which was read by Bishop Vincent:

New York, May 18, 1878.

My Dear Dr. Vincent,—I cannot be present at the meeting called to organize the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle; but I am glad that such a movement is on foot, and wish it the fullest success. There is an attempt to make science, or a knowledge of the laws of the material universe, an ally of the school which denies a separate spiritual existence and a future life; in short, to borrow of science weapons to be used against Christianity. The friends of religion, therefore, confident that one truth never contradicts another, are doing wisely when they seek to accustom the people at large to think and to weigh evidence as well as believe. By giving a portion of their time to a vigorous training of the intellect, and a study of the best books, men gain the power to deal satisfactorily with questions with which the mind might otherwise become bewildered. It is true that there is no branch of human knowledge so important as that which teaches the duties that we owe to God and to each other; and that there is no law of the universe, sublime and wonderful as it may be, so worthy of being fully known as the law of love, which makes him who obeys it a blessing to his species, and the universal observance of which would put an end to a large proportion of the evils which affect mankind. Yet is a knowledge of the results of science, and such of its processes as lie most open to the popular mind, important for the purpose of showing the different spheres occupied by science and religion, and preventing the inquirer from mistaking their divergence from each other for opposition.

I perceive this important advantage in the proposed organization; namely, that those who engage in it will mutually encourage each other. It will give the members a common pursuit, which always begets a feeling of brotherhood; they will have a common topic of conversation and discussion; and the consequence will be, that many who, if they stood alone, might soon grow weary of the studies which are recommended to them, will be incited to perseverance by the interest which they see others taking in them. It may happen, in rare instances, that a person of eminent mental endowments, which otherwise might have remained uncultivated and unknown, will be stimulated in this manner to diligence, and put forth unexpected powers, and, passing rapidly beyond the rest, become greatly distinguished, and take a place among the luminaries of the age.

I shall be interested to watch, during the little space of life that may yet remain to me, the progress and results of the plan which has drawn from me this letter.

I am, sir, very truly yours,

W. C. BRYANT.

The C. L. S. C. year begins with the first of October and ends with the last of June. There are five books in the course this year,

which with the Required Readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN make a most delightful occupation for those who will use a little method in dividing their time and then adhere to their plan closely till the work of the year is done. One or two evenings a week spent at home over these readings will do the work; or forty minutes every day.

Any person may read alone. It is not necessary that one shall be identified with a local organization to do the reading, and that is one reason why the course has been so popular.

A local circle may be organized where two, ten, or twenty persons, or more, may agree that they will hold a meeting once a week, or once a fortnight, and at each gathering will review the readings they have done. The division of the work in THE CHAUTAUQUAN where the work of each week is marked off, will be found very convenient. By associating with others who are reading, comparing ideas, making suggestions as to the meaning of an author, receiving hints concerning a character in literature, an event, a place, a time mentioned in the readings, will quicken thought and make active all the faculties. This is the point in the C.L.S.C. work where one gains the same advantage that a student in a recitation room in a college has, by coming in contact with members of the same class, receiving the inspiration that comes from numbers, and by being influenced by the *personnel* of the various members who may be present. Sometimes a local circle may secure an instructive lecture from a prominent citizen on some phase of the work; or, in lighter vein, a social entertainment may be given where conversation proceeds over a cup of coffee.

No permanent organization is necessary. A president may be elected for each evening or for six months or a year. A permanent secretary should be elected in every circle, to keep the records and order of business and give direction to the work of the body. Every reader should be ambitious to extend the C. L. S. C. lines.

We are happy to say that at more than sixty Chautauqua Assemblies during the past summer the C. L. S. C. was the great

and magnificent organization which, like a magnet, drew around itself all other exercises which made these Assemblies a success. The prospect for the C. L. S. C. the coming year is splendid.

LADY HENRY SOMERSET.

THE distinguished Englishwoman who is now on a visit to this country, and who with Miss Frances Willard spent three days at Chautauqua, being present on G. A. R. Day, August 25, is one of the most interesting notable characters of the present time. A powerful factor on the side of right and of reform, the successful work she has accomplished has already passed into history. Of high aristocratic lineage and one of the richest heiresses of England, in her heart she holds with Tennyson that,

"'Tis only noble to be good,"

and has consecrated her life to the work of inducing as many as possible to join her in the work of knighting themselves by their own efforts members of this true nobility.

Lady Isabel Somers was born in 1851. All that the loving care of a model home and the training of superior teachers could do in the development of heart and mind was done and all that was done bore fruit in large and ripened character. In 1872 she married Lord Henry Somerset, and after a few years of brilliant social life withdrew from society with her young son and devoted herself to a study of the serious questions of true living and of duty. Shortly the way in which she was to walk opened out before her, and, following the guidance of the Higher Power, she entered upon her career of usefulness.

Throwing all of her influence on the side of temperance she became an ardent advocate of the W. C. T. U. Speaking in its interests at first before small gatherings composed mostly of her own tenants, her fame grew until great halls in large cities were filled with eager listeners. In 1890 she was elected to the presidency of the British Woman's Temperance Association, which position she still holds. She is also vice president of the World's W. C. T. U., the president of which is Miss Willard.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

FOR THE MONTH ENDING SEPTEMBER 5.

WE present our readers with *Current History and Opinion* as a new feature of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. It will contain each month "the sense of things," much in little, like grains of gold gathered from a mountain of earth, the vast pile of earth thrown aside and the gold gathered for the mint. The voluminous daily and weekly paper—with reports of current events "continued" from day to day, and not always "concluded" with a summary—makes it a laborious and unsatisfactory task for a busy man or woman to keep well posted on passing events. In THE CHAUTAUQUAN we shall summarize in small space the history of each month's activities among men and nations. We begin herewith this new departure.

THE NEW TARIFF LAW.

THE progress of tariff legislation in the Fifty-third Congress from the time of the introduction of the Wilson bill in the Lower House last December until the passage of its substitute, was marked by contention varying in force and degree within the ranks of the dominant party. The Wilson bill having attached to it 634 amendments passed the Senate by a majority of five, every Democrat but Senator Hill voting in its favor. This bill was finally passed in the Lower House on August 13, 174 Democrats and 7 Populists voting in its favor and 93 Republicans and 13 Democrats voting in opposition. The House passed also four supplementary bills providing for free coal, sugar, iron ore, and barbed wire. The president did not sign the bill but permitted it to become a law by the expiration of the time limit of ten days. The duties imposed by the new tariff law are thought to be one fourth lower than those of the McKinley law. The average 50 per cent rate formerly in vogue is reduced to an average of 37 per cent. In but few cases are the duties higher than the McKinley law. The number of increased duties is fifty-one, the most important of which is that on sugar, amounting to a cent and a half a pound, which means an increase of \$4 per year on the consumption of the average family. The free list has been greatly enlarged, the most important additions being wool, flax and hemp, salt, lumber, copper, cotton ties, cotton bagging, burlaps, binding twine, and all agricultural implements. The internal revenue schedules, which form a part of the new law, work several important changes. The former tax of 50 cents per gallon on whisky is increased to \$1.10 per gallon, which will amount to about \$20,000,000 a year in revenue to the government. Other important internal revenue changes are the income and inheritance taxes. The session of the Fifty-third Congress, which adjourned August 28, including that of the special session, is the third longest in the history of the country, covering a period of 346 days. The longest session was that of the First Congress, which was occupied for 431 days, while the second longest session was that of the Twenty-seventh Congress, which closed its deliberations on the 375th day.

(Rep.) *New York Mail and Express.* (N. Y.)

The present Democratic administration has written its own epitaph in characters of infamy. Its cupidity and perfidy place it past pity.

(Rep.) *Chicago Tribune.* (Ill.)

The new law will remain unaltered until the next presidential election places the Republicans in power. Till that time this Senate measure will have to stand, a measure which the people do not want, which Mr. Cleveland has denounced, and which is commended only by the Sugar Trust, the Whisky Trust, and by the Populists on account of the income tax provision which the Democrats took from them and put in their bill.

(Rep.) *The Denver Republican.* (Colo.)

It looks very much as though this settles for a

long time to come the whole tariff question. The Democrats have no hope of doing any better in the next Congress than they have done in this one, and it is not probable the tariff question will be a prominent issue in the next presidential election. This will leave the silver question as the great issue before the country, and upon it the several parties will have to take their stand.

(Rep.) *Syracuse Post.* (N. Y.)

It is said that Abraham Lincoln's first speech on the tariff was remarkable for its brevity. He was called upon to say something on the ever-present subject of the tariff. In reply he disclaimed knowing much about political economy, but he said that he thought he knew enough to know that when an American paid \$20 for steel to an English manufacturer, America had the steel and England had the \$20. But when he paid \$20 to an American manufacturer, America had both the steel and the \$20.

* This department, together with the book, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. Course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

This was the sum and substance of the tariff question as he viewed it.

Mr. Lincoln's plain illustration reflects the whole doctrine of American protection. The Republican party has always insisted that it was better to manufacture goods needed by Americans at home, and thus keep the money paid for them in circulation at home than to furnish a market to foreign manufacturers, and send American money out of the country. The best answer to the fallacies of the Wilson school of politics is Mr. Lincoln's homely arguments on the tariff question.

(Ind.) *New York Recorder*. (N. Y.)

It is confessedly a bill of bargains, which in all its vital features is a tariff bill drawn by the trusts, for the trusts, and beneficial to nobody outside the trusts.

(Ind.) *New York Evening Post*. (N. Y.)

The fight which has begun will go on till the last scrap and iota of protection is taken from it. How the fall elections may turn out nobody can safely predict, but it is not likely that many people will vote expressly in favor of the McKinley tariff or of another general tariff revision.

(Ind.) *San Francisco Chronicle*. (Cal.)

How the California farmer in the vicinity of Alvarado, Watsonville, and Chino must love the Democratic party and the new tariff bill! Having been promised a bounty on sugar by the McKinley bill, and receiving \$5 a ton for sugar beets from the manufacturer, the farmer is now told that the manufactories must stop unless he will take very much less for his beets. The sugar-maker is not to blame. He is willing to do the best he can, but he cannot be expected to make sugar at a loss. In 1892 the California farmers voted very generally the Democratic ticket. We wonder if they will undertake this year to send Democratic Representatives to the next Congress?

(Ind.) *Public Ledger*. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Regarded entirely as a tariff measure, it is radically defective in many of its provisions, inasmuch as they deprive capital and labor of that adequate measure of protection which is essential to their prosperity; but, while it will be commonly, earnestly condemned for that reason, it will be condemned by every just, intelligent American because of the tax it imposes upon incomes.

(Ind.) *Washington Post*. (D. C.)

The measure is as creditable to the Democratic party as it is beneficent to the country at large. There is no ridiculous, impracticable nonsense about it. It does not undertake to exploit the chimeras of dreamers and doctrinaires at the cost of a national calamity. It is not the sort of bill that commends itself to the demagogue or to the visionary. It is simply a plain, sensible, provident measure of statesmanship, inviting the approval of intelligent men, and guaranteeing alike the welfare of private enterprise and the solvency of the public Treasury.

(Dem.) *Boston Herald*. (Mass.)

The complete surrender which the House has made to the Senate is very regrettable, alike in its moral, its financial, and its industrial aspects. We regret it all the more because we cannot think it was necessary.

(Dem.) *The Sun*. (New York, N. Y.)

The McKinley Tariff law, unblemished by an income tax, is distinctly a more desirable, more wholesome, and more American institution, and incomparably more Democratic in its nature, than the Wilson-Gorman scheme, with its income tax.

(Dem.) *New York Times*. (N. Y.)

The party of tariff reform, after twenty years of waiting, comes into a plundered inheritance. It is lord of the fee, but the estate has been ravaged. And the robbers and ravagers are of its own number and joint heirs! The pride and joy of possession are changed to shame and wrath, but if the Democratic party would take vengeance on the spoilers it must strike down its own kin. We are free to say that we hope it will strike them down at the earliest opportunity. To put an end to the political existence of the little group of corrupted senators who have done this harm would be an honorable fratricide.

(Dem.) *Atlanta Constitution*. (Ga.)

The entire country will hail with a sense of relief the ending of the long period of uncertainty in regard to the tariff. While it is true that we have not been able to obtain the revenue tariff pledged by the Chicago platform, we have at least taken a long step in the direction of reform, and we have left some of the objectionable features of McKinleyism behind us.

(Dem.) *New Haven Register*. (Conn.)

What are we getting in the Gorman bill? A modified form of protection, which, acting as a makeshift and sedative, impedes and deadens the vital fires of tariff reform. Party infidelity and party incompetency are recorded in its schedules, which repudiate a solemn promise, and which, with manifold errors and all manner of confusion, make a law where construction alone will be a heavy burden on government officials and government courts, while obstructing business by prolonged uncertainty.

(Dem.) *Louisville Courier-Journal*. (Ky.)

The Democrats of the United States may as well look the situation full in the face and consider it with the tranquillity of wisdom and courage. They have been betrayed by their servants. They have been betrayed in the Temple. But, as soft words butter no parsnips, harsh words mend no broken pitchers; and men of sense will not waste time or breath on empty invective or idle exclamation. The deed is done. The dog is dead. What about the future of the party and the country?

(*Dem.*) *New Orleans Picayune.* (*La.*)

Among the grave shortcomings of the measure is the great injustice it works to the state of Louisiana. In framing the sugar schedule Congress ignored entirely the interests of the sugar producers, and accepted the dictation of the Sugar Trust, the schedule being arranged with every regard to the interests of the monopoly, but with no care for the just rights of the domestic sugar industry. At one blow the sugar growers are deprived of practically one half of the protection they have hitherto been accorded, and in the case of the present crop the protection will be much less than half its former figure, because of the enormous stocks of raw sugar

which the Trust has accumulated in anticipation of the passage of the Senate bill.

(*Tammany.*) *New York Mercury.* (*N. Y.*)

The Democratic party has manfully striven to do its whole duty, and to the extent that it has failed the responsibility and the odium rest upon the shoulders of a mere handful of men who have willfully and deliberately served their own selfish ends at the expense of their party's honor and their country's prosperity.

(*Dem.*) *Philadelphia Record.* (*Pa.*)

The Senate bill is objectionable in many particulars, but in no particular is it so objectionable as the law it supersedes.

THE INCOME TAX FEATURE OF THE NEW TARIFF LAW.

THE income tax is one of the chief features of the new tariff law. By it all net incomes of corporations and individuals in excess of \$4,000 are taxed 2 per cent, and inheritances which exceed \$4,000 are taxed 2 per cent on the excess, an inheritance being considered by law as a part of the income during the year in which it is received.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

The measure is not countenanced in any authorized declaration of faith of either party. To men of intelligence it is enough to say that it is an unequal and a discriminating tax—a penalty set on thrift, a condemnation of industry and providence.

Repudiate the income tax! Let Populists cling to it if they will, for it is the melancholy abortion of their crazy pains, but Republicans should spurn it because it is the very contradiction of Republicanism, and Democrats should join hands against it as against the deadliest enemy of their party's name and fame.

(*Dem.*) *Hartford Times.* (*Conn.*)

It is not good policy for Congress to tax the incomes of men. The principle itself of taxation for government support rests upon the idea of equality in the taxing—of taxing all according to a just proportion; not in concentrating the whole tax upon any one class, and in so doing making it a discriminating tax.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (*N. Y.*)

It is a matter of wonderment that many intelligent men are found who look with favor upon a tax on incomes as an ideally perfect mode of raising revenue in proportion to the ability of each citizen. Putting aside for the moment the broad fact that such a tax never can be honestly enforced, and that it invariably results in gross injustice and the widest inequalities, there is behind all the difficulties of detail a radical objection to the very principle upon which such a tax is imposed. Between the Socialist who aims at the abolition of all property through a gradually increasing tax on the incomes derived from its possession, and the idealist who

would impose burdens only on the few who have exceptionally large incomes, there is no real difference in principle. Each, however unconsciously, regards accumulation of property as a thing to be discouraged and repressed.

(*Dem.*) *Newark Daily Journal.* (*N. J.*)

The worst feature of the tax is its tendency to encourage more radical legislation aimed at property rights. Socialism will not stop at an income tax after that victory. It has larger demands in reserve and will press them from its new vantage ground.

Journal of the Knights of Labor. (*Philadelphia, Pa.*)

A tariff bill has passed. It contains the income tax of two per cent, and establishes the principle in our system of taxation that men should contribute to government according to what they enjoy, as well as in what they consume. The Populists have achieved a wonderful success in securing the income tax, and for that reason they no doubt voted for the bill.

(*Ind. Dem.*) *Brooklyn Eagle.* (*N. Y.*)

The *Eagle* has based its opposition to an income tax on no political grounds. It is as immoral as it is un-Democratic. It is as unjust as it is impolitic. It is as unnecessary as it is unwise. It is as oppressive as it is inexpedient. We have parted company with some esteemed friends because of the importance which we attach to this opposition. They have assured us that no tariff bill can be passed without an income tax. It has seemed to the *Eagle* that no tariff bill should be passed with an income tax. They have assured us that unless a tariff bill with an income tax be passed the party will be beaten. It has seemed to the *Eagle* that the party ought to be beaten if it does anything so wrong.

THE RELATION OF THE NEW TARIFF TO BUSINESS.

THE effect of the new tariff on business and its practical relations to the business of the country as well as the exact influence of the adjournment of Congress are controverted questions. It is certain, however, that the ending of the long period of uncertainty regarding legislation on the tariff has been most beneficial to trade everywhere throughout the country.

Bulletin of the Iron and Steel Association. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Now that the tariff question is settled it is not reasonable to suppose that these hard times can continue much longer without amelioration. Prices cannot advance to the old figures of a few years ago; labor cannot receive its old wages; but the demand for all products must now increase; there is plenty of money to pay for them, and with this increased demand must come better times for capital and labor.

(Rep.) The Omaha Bee. (Neb.)

There must inevitably be a great deal of experimenting under every new tariff that lowers the previously prevailing duties. Manufacturers cannot tell just how their business is affected until they try it for a while and apply the test to their profits. Some of them will gain, but many must necessarily lose, at least during the period of experimentation. For this reason people who expect an immediate revival of business the moment the new tariff law goes into effect are apt to be grievously disappointed.

The Grocer. (St. Louis, Mo.)

The great bugaboo and obstacle to a return to normal business conditions has at last been removed; the industrial and commercial world may now settle down to business methods usually in vogue and know what to expect in the way of duties. Merchants everywhere may now order their imported goods from the custom-house and put them in trade, our revenue receipts will increase, and we may look for industrial and commercial activity all along the line.

Wool and Cotton Reporter. (Boston, Mass.)

The well-known conservatism, business sagacity, and enterprise of the manufacturers afford good ground for the hope that they will have adapted themselves to the situation as they find it before the new schedules become operative. In the meanwhile there is the fact of the vast consuming power of the country, the probability of an increased demand which has been long latent, the comparatively small stock of raw material in sight, and the strong probability that every pound of it will be needed before another clip.

(Dem.) Atlanta Journal. (Ga.)

The tariff has been settled probably for years to come. The signs of the times are cheering and the gloomy expressions of the few who refuse to come out into the sunlight can neither dash the general hopefulness nor shake the confidence which pervades the country.

(Rep.) New York Press. (N. Y.)

The wool growing industry is doomed to annihilation. The woollen manufacturing industry, which supports three quarters of a million people and through which about \$80,000,000 have been paid out yearly in wages, is so disastrously affected that sweeping reductions of wages will be made necessary in establishments remaining open, while many factories will be obliged to close. The great lumber interests, employing hundreds of thousands of workmen, is reduced to competition with the lower wages of Canada; and the salt interest, so important to New York and Michigan, is deprived of all protection. Tin plate, in which Americans have been fast becoming independent of England, is thrown to the British Cerberus.

The Manufacturer. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

This law will not remain in force for many years; but it covers all the possibilities of the immediate future. Every manufacturer in the country is to be subjected to sharper competition from Europe than has been known for half a century. The reductions of duty represent exactly the reductions which will necessarily be made in wages.

(Rep.) The Denver Republican. (Colo.)

It is probable that the new tariff bill will have the effect of abrogating all, or nearly all, the reciprocity treaties negotiated in accordance with the policy inaugurated by Mr. Blaine during the Harrison administration.

The American Grocer. (New York, N. Y.)

In any event, the business interests of the country will give a sigh of relief and go ahead again, and it will be a bold party that will soon again propose further changes in the tariff.

(Ind.) The Recorder. (New York, N. Y.)

The supreme and patriotic duty devolving on every one now is to make the best of the situation, and by deed and word endeavor to aid in restoring the prosperity which the political and economic agitation of the last twelve weary months has reduced to so low an ebb. Confidence is the plant whose growth must now be encouraged. The conditions with which business may be done with measurable safety are nearly all known. The terrible uncertainty in regard to rates and schedules which operated to cut down orders and almost paralyze production is being removed. In fact, the track is clear, the new business time-table is ready, and we should all start ahead.

THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH AND THE LIQUOR QUESTION.

At the annual convention of the Catholic Total Abstinence Union of America held at St. Paul, Minn., the Apostolic Delegate, Mgr. Satolli, rendered a decision sustaining the position taken by Bishop Watterson of Columbus, Ohio, on the status of liquor dealers as members and officers of Roman Catholic societies. The decision of Mgr. Satolli reads in part as follows: "The liquor traffic, and especially as conducted here in the United States, is the source of much evil, hence the bishop was acting within his rights in seeking to restrict it. Therefore the Delegate Apostolic sustains Bishop Watterson's action and approves of his circular letter and regulation concerning saloons and the expulsion of saloon-keepers from membership in Catholic societies."

Catholic Citizen. (Milwaukee, Wis.)

Mgr. Satolli's commendation of such regulations is calculated to have a moral effect beyond the diocese of Columbus. The best the church can do for the average saloon-keeper is to let him occupy a back seat under a *tolerari potest* dispensation.

(Unitarian.) Christian Register. (Boston, Mass.)

The decision at present affects only the diocese of Columbus, and is not mandatory elsewhere. It is not at all likely that archbishops who are jealous of the papal delegate will raise the issue. If they did, the Roman Catholic church would have a large amount of work on its hands.

Wine and Spirit Gazette. (New York, N. Y.)

The Catholic saloon-keepers of New York need give themselves no anxiety. Nothing will be done. Their business will not be interfered with. The Apostolic Delegate's decision will be disregarded by the majority of the prelates of the Church of Rome. Faithful Roman Catholic liquor-dealers may loyally accept the principles laid down by Mgr. Satolli, but they need not worry about their enforcement, no change will be made.

(Baptist.) Journal and Messenger. (Cincinnati, O.)

If Roman prelates had taken that position fifty years ago, the temperance question would have been long ago settled in this country.

(Liquor.) Midas Criterion. (Chicago, Ill.)

The Catholic church has probably over two thirds of the saloon-keepers in the United States in its membership, or at least as adherents, besides a large proportion of the wholesale, distilling, and brewing interest. In the approaching contest, business interests will be brought into conflict with the religious or rather ecclesiastical authority, and the struggle will be an internecine one. The most liberal supporters of the Catholic church in a financial way are the liquor men, and it would hardly be expected that they would continue to furnish the sinews of war to an institution that would ostracise them.

San Francisco Argonaut. (Cal.)

The deed [of Mgr. Satolli] is the braver as the retail trade in liquor, which has kept the Prohibition party alive in twenty states, is mainly conducted by members of the Roman Catholic church—Irish,

French, Italians, Canadians, Germans, and Spaniards. Searching the chronicle of the past for a precedent, it appears that whenever the church attempted to enforce a reform which proved distasteful to the bulk of the faithful, it receded from its effort as soon as it was made plain that perseverance would involve a loss of communicants.

The Congregationalist. (Boston, Mass.)

Much too sanguine expectations, we fear, have been expressed as to the results of Mgr. Satolli's decision against the admission of saloon-keepers into Roman Catholic societies. Different bishops are giving to it quite different interpretations.

The Cleveland Leader. (Ohio.)

It now transpires that the whole discussion has been unnecessary and that Mgr. Satolli's letter to Bishop Watterson was merely intended to sustain the authority of the bishop in his own diocese and was not intended for publication or for any other diocese. Satolli will not be interviewed, but Mgr. Joseph Schroeder, professor of dogmatic theology at the Catholic University in Washington, has given out a semiofficial statement of the purpose and meaning of Satolli's letter to Bishop Watterson and of Satolli's position on the liquor question in general. Says Mgr. Schroeder:

"The church has never in any wise condemned the reasonable and moderate use of spirituous beverages, nor has Mgr. Satolli. Furthermore, the apostolic delegate has never declared it to be a scandal in itself for a Catholic to conduct a saloon, nor has he ever approved of such or any similar proposition. He has never decreed that spirituous liquors should be absolutely banished from Catholic houses or Catholic societies, or that Catholic saloon keepers, because of their business, should be excluded from Catholic societies. He never intended to promulgate a fundamental declaration as to the liquor question, so called, with respect to the advantages or disadvantages, the propriety or impropriety of the manufacture, sale, or use of spirituous liquors, or with respect to temperance, total abstinence, or prohibition."

Undoubtedly Schroeder speaks for Satolli and undoubtedly his statement outlines officially and exactly the position of the Roman Catholic church of America toward liquor drinking and liquor selling.

THE WAR BETWEEN CHINA AND JAPAN.

COREA is the bone of contention between China and Japan and primarily the cause of the war between these two eastern Powers. Reliable information concerning the development of the embroglio is meager and difficult to obtain from the press dispatches. Japan has a modern military and naval equipment much superior to that of her opponent but in point of numbers China is far in the lead. The relations of China, Japan, and Corea with each other and the events leading up to the present conflict are set forth in the article in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN entitled "China and Japan at War in Corea."

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

It is, at first blush, reasonable to maintain that China must overpower Japan in the war which has now begun. When four hundred millions are arrayed against forty, it would seem that there could be but one result. Japan may win victories, but when it comes to losing men it is evident she cannot keep it up as long as her adversary.

The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

In this war Japan has the advantage of an advanced civilization while China has only the advantage in numbers. There is little doubt that Japan will win. They are the enterprising and inventive nation of Asia. Their manufactures have rapidly increased until many articles which used to be imported from the United States are now made by their own machinists. Their printing presses, lamps, clocks, and other perfected inventions are now made in Japan. Wages are higher there than in China, and although the population is only a small fraction of the Chinese population, productive industry is much further advanced.

The Advocate of Peace. (Boston, Mass.)

It is the history of western Europe repeating itself in the East just aroused from its long slumber. It looked at one time as if the eastern nations would come to civilization without going through the seas of blood which have deluged and dishonored western Europe. But it looks now as if this could not be. The present conflict, no matter how brief a course it may run, has already laid the foundation of an international jealousy and hatred which will embitter the years of the next half century. Nations must reap as they sow, and if China and Japan could only be brought to see what a harvest of death and woe they are preparing for the coming generations they would send to their docks every war-ship they have afloat and disband their gathering armies before they are even trained to battle.

New York Times. (N. Y.)

The recent history of the two countries indicates plainly enough that the desire of China is to close all the countries over which China may claim suzerainty, as well as the Chinese Empire itself, to commerce and to western civilization, and that the aim of Japan is to open theirs to the influences of that civilization.

While no public statement of its position in the

conflict that has now been fairly begun can be said to have been made by either Power, and while it may be quite true that the real cause of the war is the inveterate enmity between the two nations, no such statement is needed to determine the sympathies of the enlightened and progressive nations of the world. It is enough to know that the victory of China would be followed by an enforcement of the Chinese policy of exclusion and stagnation, and the victory of Japan by the enforcement of the Japanese policy of commerce and of progress.

Washington Post. (D. C.)

While the duty of the United States government is absolute neutrality in the war now going on, the sympathies of the people of this country must be with the Japanese. There is truth in the claim that Japan represents and China resists progress. If Corea must be controlled to some extent by one or the other of these Powers her future will have something of hope in subordination to the mikado, and only despair in the other direction.

New York Herald. (N. Y.)

Attempts are being made by some of the European Powers to bring about arbitration between Japan and China in the Korean quarrel. Japan would be extremely foolish to listen to such suggestions, which are made entirely in the interest of China.

Japan has opened the ball. She has the sympathy of the strongest Powers of Europe, with the exception, perhaps, of England, and she should carry the great work she has undertaken through to completion. She has the sympathies of Russia, of France, of Germany, and the United States in her fight for western civilization and commerce.

She should take no heed to those who desire peace for their own pecuniary ends. The struggle between Japan and China in Corea must be settled some time or other by the sword, and there is no time like the present to do it in.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Left to themselves, there is reason to hope that the Japanese spirit may prove more potent than China's huge material bulk, and that of this war may be repeated the words of Macaulay on the siege of Londonderry: "The victory remained with the nation which, though inferior in number, was superior in civilization, in capacity for self-government, and in stubbornness of resolution."

THE FOREST FIRES.

THE forest fires in the West and Northwest during the past month caused widespread devastation and great loss of life. Many crops were destroyed, a vast area of timber land was burned to the ground, and much other valuable property was laid waste. A number of villages and small towns were totally wiped out by the fearful ravages of the fires. The states chiefly affected were Minnesota, Michigan, and Wisconsin. Relief measures were speedily adopted and promptly put into effect throughout the burned districts.

The Globe-Democrat. (St. Louis, Mo.)

Forest fires in Michigan and Wisconsin have burned millions of feet of lumber. Losses in northwestern Wisconsin, which will aggregate not less than \$3,000,000, are mostly standing pine on which there is no insurance. The country about Chippewa Falls is devastated for one hundred and forty miles and it is believed that the dead will number one hundred. Cornell University of New York had nearly \$1,000,000 invested around Long Lake in pine lands, and nearly all the standing timber was destroyed. Every county of the upper peninsula of Michigan suffers heavily, and in Ontonagon County, where the heaviest reserves are located, upward of 250,000,000 feet of standing pine were destroyed.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

A large tract of country has been swept by fire as completely as the Sea Islands were swept by flood, and all the houses and belongings of the inhabitants have been consumed. What is worse, nearly six hundred lives have been lost. It is impossible to picture or imagine a more direful disaster, or one appealing more powerfully to human sympathies.

The American. (Baltimore, Md.)

The fearful ravages of the forest fires in Minnesota and Michigan will excite the sympathies of the American public. The people were burned to death by hundreds, and many-millions of dollars' worth of property converted into smoke and ashes. The accounts of the terrible event are punctured with thrilling incidents and individual acts of heroism; but there is underlying it all the fact that many thousands of Americans are left destitute, and a very large section of the country must be prostrated for an indefinite period. These fires are the culmination of a most disastrous and unprecedented drouth, which has extended to nearly every part of the country. It has wilted the crops and parched the grass, and in the great woods of the Northwest the undergrowth was probably as dry as tinder, and as ready to burn when touched by the slightest spark. The greater portion of the property in the towns swept by the flames was uninsured, owing to the high rates demanded, and very much of the loss will be total and almost irremediable. The insurance companies appear to have feared something of the sort.

Washington Star. (D. C.)

Reports from the Northwest tell of death and destruction from the forest fires in Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan. At one time it was feared that the number of deaths would reach one thousand, but the later reports have much lowered that estimate. The work of relief began promptly and offers of free farms and free lumber for homes have been made to the survivors.

Chicago Tribune. (Ill.)

At least five hundred persons have perished in the fires, and those who have watched the course of events believe that even five hundred will not wholly cover the list of those who died in the recent forest conflagration. When it is considered that three hundred and thirty-one have already been buried in Hinckley in addition to the twenty-five or more bodies sent away for burial, and that new finds are being made every day, almost every hour, it is almost idle to attempt to fix a figure. By the time the returns are all in the death list will be simply appalling.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

From revised returns received from the burned regions of Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan, following are the total and partially burned towns and counties:

Minnesota towns. Totally destroyed—Hinckley, Pokegama, Sandstone, Sandstone Junction, or Miller; Partridge, Cromwell, Curtis, Cushing, Mission Creek. Partially destroyed—Finlayson, Mansfield, Rutledge, Milaca. Minnesota counties. Totally destroyed—Pine. Partially destroyed—Kanabec, Carlton, Benton, Aitkin, Mille Lacs, Morrison.

Wisconsin towns. Totally destroyed—Comstock, Benoit, Barronette, Poplar, Merengo, Granite Lake, Partially destroyed—Spencer, High Bridge, Ashland Junction, Fifield, Washburne, Cartwright, Grantsburgh, Turtle Lake, Rice Lake, Musconda, Bashaw, Shell Lake, South Range. Wisconsin counties. Partly burned—Barron, Washburn, Florence, Ashland, Taylor, Chippewa, Burnett, Marinetta, Price, Grant, Douglass, Marathon, Bayfield.

Michigan towns. Partly burned—Trout Creek, Ewen, Sidnaw. Michigan counties. Partly burned—Houghton, Ontonagon (almost total, except in towns), Huron, Macomb.

THE WOMAN SUFFRAGE MOVEMENT AND THE NEW YORK STATE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION.

THE Constitutional Convention of the state of New York which assembled at Albany, N. Y., May 8, organized by electing Joseph H. Choate of New York, the eminent lawyer, as its president. A notable feature of the proceedings was the action taken upon the woman suffrage amendments to the constitution, which were rejected. The defeated propositions cannot be again considered until 1914. The first Constitutional Convention of the state of New York was held in 1777, George Clinton being its president. He afterwards became governor of New York and vice president of the United States. Clinton also presided over the Convention of 1788 called to ratify the federal constitution. Aaron Burr and Daniel D. Tompkins presided over the Constitutional Conventions of 1801 and 1821, respectively, and both were vice presidents of the United States. John Tracy, lieutenant governor of New York, was the president of the Convention of 1846. The law of to-day is practically the work of this Convention. The president of the Convention of 1867 was William A. Wheeler, who afterwards became vice president of the United States.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The advocates of woman suffrage made a splendid fight, the greatest that they have ever made in this state, but they succeeded in mustering only 58 votes against 97 on the other side. The weakness of the women was that they were not united. Some of them are most anxious for it. Others are earnestly opposed to it. The mass of them appear to be indifferent. Until the women make a united demand for the right to vote there will be only male suffrage in this state.

Woman's Journal. (Boston, Mass.)

A great outrage has been perpetrated in the New York Constitutional Convention—the greatest possible outrage upon the principle of representative government—a practical denial of the sacred right of petition, which, even under despotic governments, is regarded as sacred.

Six hundred and twenty-five thousand citizens of New York (about one half as many as usually vote in the state election) have petitioned for woman's suffrage: only 15,000 have petitioned against it. No such body of citizens ever before appealed to a constitutional convention. With rare moderation and sagacity, the suffrage leaders of the Convention limited themselves to a proposal that the question should be separately submitted to the male voters. But by a vote of 97 to 60 the proposal was rejected. Its defeat was directly due to the president of the Convention, the Hon. Joseph H. Choate, previously an avowed woman suffragist, and elected to preside over the Convention on that understanding.

The Outlook. (New York, N. Y.)

The Convention accepted the report of its committee against incorporating the principle of woman suffrage in the new constitution. This decision seems to us a wise one, for, apart from the merits of the question, it would be fatal to the consideration of any other part of the revised constitution to make this fundamental change an integral part of the revision. Nearly every sensible citizen would manifestly be forced to vote for or against all other propositions according as he favored or opposed this one.

Address of the N. Y. Woman Suffrage Campaign Committee.

The deed is done! Ninety-seven members of the Constitutional Convention have determined that the petition, indorsed by over half a million citizens, asking that the word "male" should be stricken from the constitution, shall not be submitted for the decision of the electors of the state. The members of this Convention are all men. True, by the act which called this body into existence, women were as eligible to its membership as were men; but they had no power to elect themselves, and men declined to choose them. Great care was taken to send delegates to this Convention to represent the different vocations likely to be affected by changes in the organic law of the state. Banking, law, commerce, agriculture, labor, manufactures, liquor dealers, etc., were represented, but the interests of women, who constitute more than one half of the citizens of the state, had no representative selected by women among the 175 men elected last November to formulate the constitution by which all citizens, irrespective of sex, were to be governed. Our defeat is not a Waterloo; it is a Bunker Hill!

Union Signal. (Chicago, Ill.)

In adopting the adverse report of the committee on woman suffrage, the Constitutional Convention of New York has "killed the movement" only so far as this Convention is concerned. If "our friends, the enemy," think that this action does more than to postpone the final victory of the cause, they delude themselves. The agitation in New York, though it has ended in temporary defeat, has done much to hasten the day of triumph. The comparative size of the two petitions shows the strength of the suffrage sentiment. The petition for suffrage was a large multiple of the opposing petition. The injustice of thus disregarding the wishes of the large majority seems clear, but there are certain persons who are so very tender and considerate of the feelings of women on particular subjects, that they cannot bear to think of giving women as a class, the suffrage, so long as there is one woman who does not want it.

THE FINANCIAL AND BUSINESS OUTLOOK.

THE prevailing conditions in many sections of the country give promise that the financial and business outlook is improving. The opening of fall trade has had the effect of stimulating business in many lines. As near as can be learned from reliable sources the consensus of opinion indicates improvement in business along the Atlantic seaboard and interior, and greater activity in the South and Southwest where abundant crops are predicted. The West will suffer in a greater or less degree from drought and forest fires. In the main the prevailing conditions tend toward better times.

Journal of Commerce. (New York, N. Y.)

Concerning the financial situation and the general outlook for business, there is continued confidence. Reports from up-town trade circles are better than for many months past. Prices of some descriptions of dry goods are firmer, and trade is of larger volume. These conditions are plainly reflected in the commercial paper market, in which the supply of notes is good. Paper brokers are quite generally talking a firmer loan market and a fairly active fall trade. Foreign exchange closes at only a small fraction above the final rates of last week. There was a temporary reaction, owing to the oversold condition of the market, but bankers took advantage of the rise to sell again. Importers bought more freely for current remittances, and were expected to continue in the market for a time.

Chicago Herald. (Ill.)

The country demand for money has set in with considerable vigor. The big banks which do a country business have recently doubled their shipments of currency. The demand is mainly from the Southwest and Northwest, Omaha and the drought-stricken sections generally requiring but little.

New Orleans Picayune. (La.)

Sept. 1, Secretary Hester, of the New Orleans Cotton Exchange, announced the official figures of the cotton crop of the past season. The crop was declared to have been 7,549,817 bales, as compared with 6,700,365 bales during the preceding season. It will thus be seen that, although 800,000 bales larger than the preceding crop, the crop of the past year was, nevertheless, a million and a half bales short of the largest crop on record, that of 1891-92. This year the price is low and the demand is poor, so that there is nothing to draw out cotton in unusual quantities. Yet the movement is quite liberal.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Most of the leading firms in this city accord completely in their views about trade. They say that there are more buyers than for a twelvemonth and it is next to impossible to supply the demand for goods for immediate delivery. Prices are advancing, and altogether the dry goods district is beginning to show something like the old time bustle and activity. Merchants are greatly encouraged and predict that before another thirty days roll around many mills

will be running on full time, giving wage earners employment and the railroads the largest west-bound tonnage for many months.

San Francisco Chronicle. (Cal.)

There is a good supply of grain bags in the local market, but the demand at present is of small proportions. Standard Calcuttas are being occasionally shaded. There is quite a good inquiry from the North and importers are using every endeavor to sustain prices. Prison-made bags are selling slowly. Receipts of fall wool are coming to hand, the market is quiet. Trade lacks the activity which prevailed two years ago, stocks have been fairly well cleaned up, considering the depressed situation. In the produce markets the volume of trade is quite large, prices low. The supply of peaches is very heavy and the low prices have largely increased the demand. Apricots are in moderate supply, but the inquiry is small and values are no higher. Apples of the best variety are held fairly steady. Plums and figs are not wanted. Berries are in good demand, more particularly to canners, who are now liberal buyers, but at very low prices. Watermelons and canteloupes are abundant and very cheap. Grapes meet with a fair inquiry, but the quoted rates are rather weak. Dried fruits are moving off slowly and values have a very easy tone. Receipts of the new crop are light. The wheat market is inactive and prices are not well sustained.

The Independent. (New York, N. Y.)

General Manager Whitman, of the Chicago and Northwestern Railway, says:

"The outlook for business in the West for the coming year is bad, very bad. I traveled last week all over our lines in Nebraska. It is a most fertile section, one which has heretofore always raised good crops. I do not believe Nebraska will raise 25 per cent of a corn crop, not a bushel is likely to be shipped east from beyond the Missouri River. Other crops are also short. People are going east to spend the winter. Iowa will not have more than 33⅓ per cent crop of corn, but has some small grain. Corn in western Iowa is selling at 55 cents. South Dakota has practically nothing. Nebraska, Iowa, and South Dakota, an empire, is flat on its back. Such complete and widespread failure was never known before in that territory. Will it affect business? Yes, and at once. Farmers will be unable to buy or merchants to sell. I dislike to contemplate what the coming year has in store for us."

THE INVESTIGATION OF THE PULLMAN STRIKE.

A NOTABLE result of the so-called Pullman strike has been the session of the commission appointed by President Cleveland to investigate the Pullman strike and the sympathetic railroad strikes of the same period. This commission, of which the Hon. Carroll D. Wright, U. S. Commissioner of Labor, is chairman, convened in Chicago, August 15. The persons who were examined and gave evidence before the commission numbered 107 and practically represented all the interests concerned in the strike. Most of the testimony was voluntarily given and but few subpoenas were issued. According to the evidence brought out in the investigation the damage to railway property during the strike amounted to \$2,339,626 distributed among the railroad companies as follows: The Chicago and Alton \$286,360, Lake Shore \$5,164, Chicago, Burlington and Quincy \$115,000, Chicago and Northwestern \$572,690, Illinois Central \$740,000, Chicago and Erie \$115,376, Santa Fé \$505,036. The commission adjourned August 30 to meet again at Washington, D. C., September 26. At this session further testimony will be taken, persons will be given a hearing who have plans to propose for the settlement of differences between capital and labor, and it is expected the commission will make its final report and end its labors.

New York World. (N. Y.)

Regarding the close of the work of the commission in Chicago, Commissioner Wright says: "I consider the investigation thoroughly successful. All leading men on both sides, railroad leaders and Pullman officials, freely gave testimony, and the investigation was conducted fearlessly, impartially, and in the most searching manner. I believe it will do great good in the end, and that out of it will come some most valuable recommendations. Our report will be ready by the middle of November and will be submitted to Congress early in the next session. As the testimony taken will cover over two thousand printed pages, octavo, the magnitude of the undertaking becomes apparent."

Rochester Union and Advertiser. (N. Y.)

While the commission has no power to decide anything or settle anything in controversy, its report cannot fail to be a valuable one, and worth far more than it will cost as a history of the most causeless, reckless, murderous, and, so far as the end at which it is aimed is concerned, impotent strike that ever occurred in this country.

Toledo Blade. (Ohio.)

The Pullman experiment has been a failure. It is against the instincts of free-born Americans. There has always been a quarrel between the residents of Pullman and the company because of the restrictions thrown around them. It is a reproduction, on a small scale, of a scene out of the middle ages—a baron's castle, with the huts of his retainers clustered near it. Revoke the charter, sell out the town to individual owners, and abolish this ridiculous revival of feudalism.

Minneapolis Tribune. (Minn.)

Vice President Howard, of the American Railway Union, in his testimony before the strike commission, pursues the policy begun by Debs of disclaiming responsibility for the Pullman strike and boycott. He avers that the American Railway Union central organization never ordered it. The responsibility is thus thrown upon the local organizations. This po-

sition may be technically correct, but morally Debs and his junta cannot escape responsibility. Had it not been for their promise of victory and their telegrams of encouragement no strike would ever have been ordered by local unions.

Seattle Telegraph. (Wash.)

This is the first *bona fide* attempt on the part of the United States government to deal with the controversy between labor and capital and it is to be hoped that the result will be such as will strengthen the hands of those who claim that there is ample remedy under the constitution for all existing evils.

Rochester Herald. (N. Y.)

The opposition of labor organizations to compulsory arbitration was again manifested by the testimony of Master Workman Sovereign, of the K. of L., before the strike commissioners in session at Chicago. Sovereign claims that little can be accomplished by strikes and that government ownership is the remedy for railway labor troubles. It is a remedy not likely to be applied in Sovereign's time.

Philadelphia Enquirer. (Pa.)

The testimony is so strongly contradictory that the only possible report which the commission can honestly make is to reflect severely upon both sides, arraigning the strikers for their sympathy with or participation in the riots and censuring the company for its treatment of its men. Witnesses willing to testify to both of these propositions have appeared before the commission during the last few days and still others are to follow. Which of these is to be believed?

Kennebec Journal. (Me.)

As a business institution the Pullman company may or may not be all right but it isn't to be reckoned as among the philanthropical institutions of the country.

Chicago Herald. (Ill.)

The Rev. Wm. H. Carwardin, of Pullman, author of a book on the strike, was examined at length by the commission. Mr. Carwardin said the causes of the strike were the unequal wages and the dissatisfaction with the local management. He said further:

"There was a feeling on the part of the men that they could get no redress. Neither Mr. Pullman nor Mr. Wickes was as much to blame for the strike as the local management. However, I am free to make the statement that there never would have been a strike at Pullman if George M. Pullman had been in closer touch with his employees, and there never would have been a strike there if rents had been reduced in proportion to the cut in wages."

Nobody was allowed to acquire property at Pullman, not even churches. The rent of the parsonage was so high that no minister had ever gotten enough money to occupy it.

Mr. Carwardin said that he knew sixty families were soon to be evicted from the Pullman houses for not paying their rent.

Philadelphia Public Ledger. (Pa.)

The employees of the Pullman Company voluntarily left their work in the hope that the latter would thereby be compelled to make a readjustment of the wage scale. By this act they virtually left the employ of the company, and have ever since been living, so far as a dwelling place is concerned, at the expense of the Pullman Company. They were simply tenants obligated to pay their landlord a stipulated sum monthly for the use of the properties they lived in. To remain in the houses owned by the Pullman Company, without the payment of rent, would be to live on charity at the hands of the corporation they refused to work for. They are simply in the position of ordinary tenants who refuse or cannot pay to their landlord the rent they have obligated themselves to pay, and, under business principles, should expect to pay the penalty. One may pity their deplorable condition, but the justice of the act of eviction cannot be questioned.

Chicago Tribune. (Ill.)

Ex-Dictator Debs told the strike commission that the term "labor-saving machinery" is a misnomer. He said it should be "labor-displacing machinery." He claimed that with this and unrestricted foreign immigration "we now have the spectacle of 10 wage-workers who have families depending upon their support bidding for the same job of work." There are three important facts which it is evident Debs has not stopped to think about: (1) The labor which is "displaced" by machinery finds other employment, part of it being required for the manufacture of new machines. (2) The wage-worker gets his share of the benefit of reduced cost, in being able to buy more cheaply the products of human labor when it is aided by machinery. And (3) the average wage-worker gets higher pay for a day containing a fewer number of working hours than was the rule before the introduction of the machinery which this short-sighted demagogue complains of. Wages are higher and each dollar of wages will buy more of all kinds of comfort, except house room, than

in the middle years of this century. The industrial depression has been intensified by the strikes which were engineered by Debs and fell through when he ceased to send out daily telegrams to keep up the "courage" of the strikers.

Railway Review. (Chicago, Ill.)

The chief benefit to be expected as the result of the pending investigation by the strike commission, is the ascertainment of the causes leading up to the strike, the part taken by those engaged in it, and the results growing out of it. In other words a sifting from the mass of rubbish the actual facts in the case and presenting them to the public stripped of prejudice and misconstruction. How much of error is included in the general understanding of the incidents of the strike is illustrated by the recent sworn statement of Mr. Debs before the commission to the effect that one of the first actions of General Miles on his arrival at Chicago was to call on and confer with the General Managers' Association, a statement which as to both time and matter is wholly denied by General Miles, he stating that "he did not at any time or on any day go to the headquarters of the general managers, and does not know where such association was located."

St. Louis Republic. (Mo.)

A strike commission which by the law of its appointment is not allowed to study Pullman will miss a great deal of the strike's essence. You have to take Debs and Pullman together to grasp the meaning of the trouble. The thoughtful are very anxious to know whether Duke George tells the truth in his various statements. Public judgment hinges much upon his grace's veracity, and would like corroborative testimony before settling upon a conclusion.

Philadelphia Times. (Pa.)

Perhaps some business men whose ordinary transactions were brought to a standstill by the senseless boycott will be asked to tell what they know about the effect of the striking of men who had no grievance against their employers. Of course the commission has no power to decide things; it can only hear testimony and report to Congress. But the investigation may furnish the public some interesting inside information about the ordering of strikes and boycotts by labor leaders who are well paid for doing everything but work.

Minneapolis Journal. (Minn.)

Howard and Sovereign told the national strike investigation commission that they earnestly desired to see the government owning and running all the railroads. No doubt such a policy would put a stop to sympathy or any other kind of railroad strikes, but the country will hardly consent to allow the government to get its hand on the lever and brakes of what would be the biggest political machine on record, giving the party controlling it a pull such as no party has heretofore possessed in this country.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

August 7. Two lumber companies in Illinois and Minnesota pay state treasuries \$50,000 for pine stolen from government land.

August 8. President Cleveland formally recognizes the new republic of Hawaii.

August 9. Wreck on the Rock Island Road near Lincoln, Neb.; twenty-four persons killed and many injured.

August 11. Attorney General Maloney of Illinois begins action against the Pullman Company to declare their charter void.

August 13. The Chinese treaty confirmed by the U. S. Senate by a vote of 47 to 50.—The House of Representatives passes the Wilson Tariff bill with 634 Senate amendments.

August 16. Annual meeting of the American Association for the advancement of science begins in Brooklyn.

August 17. Chas. A. Culberson nominated for governor by the Democratic party of Texas.

August 18. The River and Harbor bill becomes a law without President Cleveland's signature.

August 22. Joshua H. Marvel nominated for governor of Delaware by the Republican State Convention.—Gov. Altgeld issues a proclamation calling for help to aid the destitute at Pullman, Ill.

August 23. Henry Clay Evans of Chattanooga nominated for governor by the Tennessee Republican State Convention.—U. S. Senator Jones of Nevada indites a letter under date of August 19 to the chairman of the Republican Central Committee of his state announcing the severance of his connection with the Republican party and that he will hereafter act with the Populists.—Thomas J. Majors nominated for governor by the Nebraska Republican State Convention.

August 24. C. H. Sheldon nominated for governor by the South Dakota Republican Convention.

August 25. Ex-Congressman James J. Budd of Stockton, Cal., nominated for governor by the California Democratic State Convention.

Aug. 26. A fire broke out in the Oregon Improvement Co.'s coal mine at Franklin, near Seattle, Wash., where sixty-two miners were at work. Twenty-five escaped; the remaining thirty-seven made an attempt to fight the fire and were asphyxiated or killed by explosions.

August 28. George M. Pullman testifies before the National Labor Commission at Chicago.

August 29. Governor Waite of Colorado arrested by United States authorities charged with opening

and retaining a letter addressed to Mrs. Likens, a former matron at police headquarters.

September 5. Iowa Populists nominate a full state ticket, declaring for the free coinage of silver at a ratio of 16 to 1.

FOREIGN.

August 7. Neutrality declared by Great Britain in the Korean war.

August 11. Cholera reported spreading in western Europe.

August 14. Anarchists arrested at Rome in formulating a plot to assassinate Signor Crispi.

August 16. Santo Caserio, the assassin of President Carnot, guillotined at Lyons.

August 17. Germany loans China \$5,000,000.

August 19. The Japanese government decides on a domestic loan of \$50,000,000.

August 20. The English government seizes warships being fitted out at Glasgow for China or Japan.

August 27. The demonstration of the National League in Hyde Park, London, for the abolition of the House of Lords, at which 10,000 people were present, a failure.

August 30. International Peace Congress opened in Antwerp.

August 30. An anarchist plot to kill the king of Greece revealed to the Milan police.

September 4. Experiments with electric locomotives at Nantes successful.

OBITUARY.

August 7. Frank M. Reeves, Champaign, Ill., of the Illinois experiment station.

August 9. Judge Caswell Bennett, chief justice of the Court of Appeals of Kentucky.

August 12. Col. J. H. Platt, president of the Denver Chamber of Commerce.

August 14. John Quincy Adams, a grandson of the former president of the United States.

August 17. The Hon. Charles Robinson, first governor of Kansas.

August 18. Burton C. Cook, who placed President Lincoln in nomination for his second term.

August 24. Col. J. M. Winsted of Greensboro, N. C., president of the Piedmont and People's Banks of that city, commits suicide by jumping 100 feet from a tower.

August 31. The Maori king, Tawhiao, dies of influenza in New Zealand.

September 5. The Rev. Benjamin F. Gaston, a negro preacher, shot by planters while trying to induce negroes to emigrate from the southern states to Liberia.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR OCTOBER.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First week (ending October 6).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter I.
"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapter I.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "Development of Railroads in the United States."
"Social Life in England in the Seventeenth Century."

Second week (ending October 13).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter II.
to page 32.
"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapter II.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The British Parliament."
"Kossuth and Hungarian Nationality."
Sunday Reading for October 7.

Third week (ending October 20).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter II.
concluded.
"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters III.
and IV.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "Science at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century."
Sunday Reading for October 14.

Fourth week (ending October 27).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter III.
to page 62.
"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters V.,
VI., and VII.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Newspaper Press of Europe."
Sunday Reading for October 21.

Fifth week (ending November 3).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter III.
concluded.
"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters
VIII. and IX.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Germans."
Sunday Reading for October 28.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Map Study of England—Locate all places mentioned in the week's readings.
2. Book Review—"Tale of Two Cities," by Charles Dickens.
3. Questions by the circle on the week's readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

4. Table Talk—The tariff question of the last Congress. (See *Current History and Opinion*, the new department in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.)

KING ALFRED DAY, OCTOBER 12.

"Under the Great Alfred all the best points of the English-Saxon character were first encouraged, and in him first shown."
—*Dickens*.

1. Paper—The development of England as a nation in King Alfred's time.
2. Stories about King Alfred.
3. A Sketch of the Danes.
4. A Character Study—King Alfred.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Trace on map the location of all the peoples mentioned in the week's reading in English history.
2. Sketch—Marie Antoinette.
3. Debate—Should the English House of Lords be abolished?
4. General Discussion—Corea, the land, the people, the government.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Paper—History of the early Irish church.
2. Sketch—The Empress Josephine.
3. Debate—Resolved: That results have proved Napoleon Bonaparte to have been one of the world's greatest benefactors.
4. Table Talk—Is the position taken by Mgr. Satolli on the liquor traffic one which can be sustained?

FIFTH WEEK.

1. Paper—The feudal system in England.
2. Sketch—Maria Theresa.
3. Questions and Answers in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Debate—Resolved: That the woman suffragists have no reason to be discouraged over the action of the New York Constitutional Convention regarding their cause.

A PART of the C. L. S. C. department work follows closely the Required Readings and is designed as a help to the readers. It is purely suggestive in its nature and not required at all.

In the *Outline* will be found as evenly portioned out as possible the amount of reading for each week which will allow of finishing the course within the year. Whenever reference is made in any part of the magazine to *The Lesson* of the week this part of the reading so marked out is meant.

The *Suggestive Programs* are offered simply as aids for the use of Local Circles, and are to be fol-

lowed only at pleasure. The main part of the work of the Circles, *The Lesson*, is not called for in them each week as the repetition of the expression would grow very monotonous. Leaders should be appointed, one for all the readings, or one for each book, or each part of the work, who shall serve as teachers for a specified term, or for only one evening, new ones being appointed each night in turn. Other exercises bearing on *The Lesson* are given in the *Programs* and will serve to furnish variety, collateral help, and interest.

The *C.L.S.C. Notes and Word Studies* are designed to help clear away any difficulties that may be found in the course of study. The notes on the *Required Readings* in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will hereafter fol-

low in the magazine those on the books instead of appearing as before as foot notes on the pages.

The *Questions and Answers* will help fix in mind leading points in the readings.

The *Question Table* may lend spice to the meetings. One set of the questions will always be in line with the subjects treated in the department of *Current History and Opinion*.

In the *C. L. S. C. Classes* that spirit is fostered which binds into the most effective organization, persons having the same objective point in view.

In the *Local Circles* all will find a forcible reminder of the great number of co-workers in the field, and can learn in great measure of the methods employed and the victories won in the different localities.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR OCTOBER.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

P. 9. "Staffa." The island on which is Fingal's Cave, named from Fingal, King of Morven, a province of Caledonia. Fingal, who lived in the third century, A. D., was celebrated for his heroic exploits. He devoted much time to warring against the Romans.—"Iona." The island of St. Columba. Commanded to leave Ireland on account of a revolution which he had instituted against the king, Columba settled on the island of Iona, and, from remorse, devoted himself to religious teaching. Through his labors it is said that three hundred monasteries were founded. See page 37 of the text-book.—"The Holy Isle." The name by which Lindisfarne was known. It was celebrated as the seat of the great monastery of which for many years the famous St. Cuthbert was prior.—"The Isle of Wight." It was at Carisbrooke Castle, on this island, that Charles I. of England was confined after his escape from Hampton Court. After his execution his two youngest children were imprisoned in the same castle, one of whom, the Princess Elizabeth, died there.

P. 11. "The Renaissance" [rē-nā-sāns; the italic *r* represents the obscure sound as heard in the last syllable of the word recent; the small capital *N* indicates the French nasal sound given to that letter, perhaps best described in English as the sound of *ah* uttered with a nasal tone]. The word is from a French verb meaning to be born again. A new birth, a revival. Also spelled *renascence*. See text-book, pages 194-5.

P. 12. "The Occident." From a Latin word, meaning to fall, or to go down. It is applied to that part of the horizon where the sun sets, or to the part of the earth toward the sunset. It is specifically used of Europe as opposed to Asia, and of the western world.

P. 14. "Teutons." Members of a Germanic tribe supposed to have dwelt near the mouth of the Elbe. They are first mentioned in the fourth century B. C. When attempting to invade Rome they were conquered by Marius. Their name has been applied to the ancient Germans in general.—"The Celts." The people who in prehistoric times migrated from Central Asia to Europe—perhaps the first people who did so. Passing westward they settled themselves so firmly in Gaul and the British Isles as to lead ancient historians to suppose them to be the original inhabitants. Both the Teutons and the Celts are branches of the great Aryan or Indo-European division of mankind.

P. 17. "Clwyd" [klwīd].—"Merthyr-Tydfil" [mer'ther tīd'vil].—"Ystradyfodwg" [is-tra-dī-fōd'oog.]

P. 22. "I-be'ri-ans." The original inhabitants of Spain, the ancient Greek name for Spain being Iberia.

P. 23. "Tō'tem." "Among the Indians of North America, a natural object, usually an animal, assumed as the token or emblem of a clan or family, and a representation of which served as a cognizance for each member of it; hence, a more or less similar observance and usage among other uncivilized peoples."

P. 24. "Suetonius" [swē-to'nī-us].

P. 25. "Agricola" [a-grik'o-lā].—"E-bor'acum."

P. 32. "Thegns" [thanes]. The word is often written thanes, as in the play of Macbeth, "the thane of Cawdor."

P. 34. "Compurgators." Latin *com* (con), with, and *purgare*, to make pure. In law, those who bear testimony to the innocence of others.

"The ordeal, or judgment of the gods." Under

certain circumstances, while the court, sheriff, bishops, thegns, etc., declared the law, the ordeal was expected to reveal the facts. The ceremony took place in church. After three days of severe discipline and austere diet, having communicated and made oath that he was innocent, the accused person standing between twelve friends and twelve foes, when a special service had concluded, plunged his arm into boiling water, drew out a stone or lump of iron and had his arm bandaged by a priest. This was the ordeal of water. Or he was called on to seize a bar of iron that had lain on a fire till the last collect of the service had been read, carry it for three feet, and hasten to the altar when the priest promptly applied the bandages. This was the ordeal of iron. If in three days' time the priest could say the arm was healed, the sufferer was pronounced guiltless, if not he was judged as one convicted by God. Minor ordeals were the eating of the consecrated or accursed morsel, and the casting of the subject, bound, into deep water. If the former did not choke, if the latter did not drown, it was taken as a proof of innocence. Walking on burning ploughshares also appears as an ordeal, but seldom."—*Dictionary of English History*.

P. 35. "Woden." Also called Odin, the chief god of the Norsemen. He is the ruler of the heavens and god of war, and commands battles through the Valkyries, virgin goddesses who take the slain to Valhalla, heaven, where they spend eternity in joy and feasting in the company of Odin. From his name comes the English word Wednesday, Woden's day.

P. 37. "Thor." The eldest son of Odin. He was known as "the thunderer," and is the strongest of gods and men. The word Thursday was originally, Thor's day.

"Cædmon, the inspired cowherd." It is told of Cædmon he was so dull that when his companions sought to while away the time by story-telling or song, he could never take part, having nothing to say. Grieving over this, one night he had a vision in which an angelic presence commanded him to sing, and the memory of the words of a poem in praise of the Creator which they gave him remained with him after waking. These he wrote down, and continued writing other poems, which won him great fame. It is said that Milton borrowed some of his ideas in "Paradise Lost" from Cædmon.

P. 39. "Fyrd." The military array or land force of the whole Saxon nation.

P. 40. "O-rō'sī-us." A Spanish theologian who lived in the fifth century.—"Bo-ē'thī-us." A Roman philosopher and statesman of the fifth century.

P. 41. "Churl." An Anglo-Saxon freeman of the lowest rank; a countryman, peasant.

P. 42. "Witenagemot" [wit'e-nā-gē-mōt]. Anglo-Saxon, *witan*, a wise man, *gemote*, an assembly. An assembly of wise men.

P. 47. "Rollo the Ganger." According to Icelandic sagas, Rollo was so tall and robust that no horse could carry him, and hence the application of "ganger" or "the walker." The word, pronounced gang'er, may also mean overseer, conductor, or superintendent.

P. 48. "Charlemagne" [shar'le-mān]. (742-814.) Emperor of the West and king of France.

"The Bayeau [bā'yū.] tapestry." A long narrow strip of needle-work done by Matilda, the wife of William the Norman, and her ladies, representing the battle of Hastings and the events immediately preceding it. It is twenty inches wide and two hundred and fourteen feet long, and is measured off into seventy-two parts, each labeled with a Latin inscription designating the representations.

P. 50. Edgar the Atheling [ath'e-ling]. Edgar the noble.

P. 55. "Whitsuntide." The season of Pentecost, including the whole week after Pentecost Sunday, which is the seventh Sunday after Easter.

"Curia Regis." Latin, the council or the court of the king. The name, at different times, was applied to three distinct bodies: to this feudal assembly described in the text-book; to the Privy Council organized under Henry I.; and to the court of the king's bench, founded in 1178.

"The Domesday Survey." More commonly written the "Domesday Book." "It is said that the English called the book of the survey, 'Domesdei,' or the 'day of judgment,' because of the strictness of the examination."

P. 57. "Henry Beauclerc." The meaning of the latter word, which is French, is fine scholar.

P. 65. "Cistercians" [sis-ter'shans]. The name adopted by the monks of that branch of the Benedictine Order which was established at Cîteaux, France.

P. 66. "Hi-er-arch'y." From two Greek words meaning sacred and leader or ruler. Dominion in sacred things; a body of officials who are ranked in orders, each order being subordinate to the one above it; a body of ecclesiastical rulers.

"Glebe." The land belonging to a parish church.

"Papal bull." An authoritative official document issued by the pope. "It derives its name from the leaden seal, the Latin word for which is *bul-la*—appended to it by a thread or band, which is red or yellow when the bull refers to matters of grace, and uncolored and of hemp when it refers to matters of justice."

"Investiture." "The ceremony of conferring possession of the temporalities and privileges of his office upon a bishop or an abbot by delivering to him the pastoral staff [or crozier] and ring, the symbols of his office. To whom the right of investiture belonged was long a point of conflict between the papacy and the monarchs of Europe."

P. 68. "Vilein." The name given to one who held land from a lord or superior; a feudal tenant.

P. 68. "Mast." A name given the fruit of oak or beech, or other forest trees, which serves as food for animals.

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

P. 10. "Politics." The word is derived from *polites*, the Greek word for citizen, and that, in its turn, came from *polis*, city.—"Revolution" is from the Latin, *re* again, or back, and *volvere* to roll.—"Democracy" comes from the Greek *demos*, the people.—"Nationality." The root of this word is to be found in the Latin verb *nasci*, past participle *natus*, to be born.—"Oligarchy" is a Greek derivative from *oligos*, few. A form of government in which the supreme power is vested in the hands of a few.—"Government" is also a Greek derivative, reaching the English tongue through the Latin. The original verb meant to steer.

P. 11. "Des'po-tism" is from a Greek word meaning master, lord.

P. 12. "Feu'dal." The word is derived from a Middle Latin noun meaning a fief, an estate held of a superior on condition of service. For an exposition of the term, feudal system, refer to the index of the text-book.

P. 13. "Pröl-e-tā'ri-āt." From a Latin word meaning offspring. The class of wage-workers dependent on casual employment; the lowest and poorest class in a community; "those who have only hands to work with and no laid up capital."

P. 15. "Ab'sō-lu-tism." Latin *ab* (*a*), from, and *solvere*, to loose. Sovereignty without restriction in rule and authority; despotism.

P. 22. "Au-to-cra'tic." Derived from the two Greek words for self and strength. Ruling by one's own power. Pertaining to autocracy, or absolute authority.

"Mon'arch-y." Greek, *monos*, alone, and *archein*, to rule. The state in which the supreme power is vested in one person.

"Parliament" [pär'lī-ment]. French *parler*, to speak. A parleying, a discussion; then a conference on public affairs; and then, applied specifically to the houses of legislature in certain countries.

"Reign of Terror." See page 41 of the text-book.

P. 23. "In-tend'ant." One who has the oversight or direction of affairs; used especially in France and some other European countries as the title of many public officers.

"Noblesse." French for nobility.

P. 24. "Mo-nop'o-ly." Greek, *monos*, alone, *polein*, to sell. The exclusive power or privilege of selling a commodity.

P. 25. "Canaille" [kā-nāl]. A borrowed French word meaning a pack of dogs; it comes from the

Latin *canis*, a dog. The word is applied to the lowest class of people, the rabble.

"Prel'ates." Clergymen of the higher order, as archbishops and bishops.

P. 26. "Jacobin" [jāk'ō-bin]. See index.

P. 28. "Lil'lī-pū'tian." Very small, dwarfed; diminutive. The country of pigmies which Dean Swift describes in his "Gulliver's Travels," was called Lilliput and the inhabitants were Lilliputians. Hence the use of the word.

"Dī'et." An assembly, a council; a legislative body in some European countries. "The word is identical in form with that meaning a course of food, but its peculiar use probably arose from connecting it with the Latin *dies*, a day, especially a set day, a day appointed for public business, whence by extension a meeting for business, an assembly."—*Skeat*.

P. 31. "The Two Sicilies." A kingdom of southern Italy including the island of Sicily, several smaller islands, and the kingdom of Naples.

"Stadtholder" [stat'hold-er]. German, *stad*, a city or town, *houder*, a holder. The governor of a province.

"Rotten boroughs." See page 213 of the text-book.

"Régime" [rā-zhēm]. Mode or system of management; character of the prevailing social system.

P. 35. "The genie let loose from the bottle." A reference to "The Story of the Fisherman" in "The Arabian Nights."

P. 36. "So-cial-is'tic." Based on the principles of socialism, which is defined as "any theory or system of social organization which would abolish, entirely or in great part, the individual effort and competition on which modern society rests, and substitute for it coöperative action; would introduce a more perfect and equal distribution of the products of labor; and would make land and capital, as the instruments and means of production, the joint possession of the members of the community."

"An-arch-is-tic." Pertaining to anarchy, "a social theory which regards the union of order with the absence of all direct government of man by man as the political, absolute individual liberty."

P. 37. "Tuileries" [twēl-rē or tü-eel-re]. The royal palace in Paris.

P. 38. "Bourbon." The last royal family of France "took its name [Bourbon] from the ancient signiory of Bourbon (now Bourbon l'Archambault in the department of Allier), and succeeded to the throne by collateral inheritance in 1589, in the person of Henry IV."

"Crusade." The word is derived from *crux*, Latin for cross. A military expedition under the banner of the cross; in a specific sense an expedition undertaken by European Christians for the purpose of rescuing the Holy Land from the Moslems.

Hence "any concerted movement vigorously prosecuted in behalf of an idea or principle or in the interest of reform."

P. 39. "Dumouriez" [dü-moo-rē-ā; the sound of the French ü is described by Webster as combining oo and long e; approximately represented by oo in good or by u in full].

"*En masse*." French for in a body.

P. 42. "Guillotine" [gil'lo-tene]. The word comes from the name of a French physician, Guillotin, who proposed to abolish the ax or sword as the means of criminal execution. A machine in which a heavy knife, raised by cords, slides in vertical grooves, and falls upon the neck of the victim.

P. 44. "*Coup d'état*" [koo-dā-tā]. A stroke of policy; a violent measure of state in public affairs.

P. 49. "Prefét" [prā-fā]. A prefect; a superintendent or governor of a department.

P. 50. "Concordat." An agreement, a compact. Specifically, "a treaty between the see of Rome and any secular government with a view to arrange ecclesiastical relations."

P. 51. "Ul-trā-mon'tane." Literally, beyond the mountains. Specifically, lying north of the Alps as relating to Italy. Pertaining to the party opposed to the Italian party in the Church of Rome; unfavorable to the papal claims of supremacy and infallibility.

P. 55. "Louis the Great." Louis XIV.

P. 59. "Louis XVIII." The son of the preceding king, who would have been Louis XVII. had he lived to ascend the throne, died at the age of ten years. He was proclaimed king after the execution of his father Louis XVI., but died before the troublous times were settled.

P. 74. "Metternich" [met-er-nik. The capital *x* indicates the German sound, guttural and aspirated, which must be heard before it can be learned.]

P. 75. "*Le Congrès danse bien*," etc. The translation of this French sentence is to be found on the margin of the page.

P. 80. "*Causus belli*." A Latin expression meaning a cause of war.

P. 82. "Mēph-is-tōph'ē-lēs." "One of the seven chief devils in the old demonology, the second of the fallen archangels and the most powerful of the infernal legions after Satan. He figures in the old legend of Dr. Faustus as the familiar spirit of that magician. To modern readers he is chiefly known as the cold, scoffing, relentless fiend of Goethe's "Faust."

"Espionage" [ēs'pī-ō-nāzh]. The practice or employment of spies; secret watching.

P. 83. "Patriarchal." Compounded from the two Greek words for father and leader or chief. That form of society which was held together by authority and protection of the oldest valid male ascendant.

"Ep-i-mē-nid'f-ān." Ep-i-men'f-dēs was a poet and hero of Crete who lived in the seventh century, B. C. Many fabulous stories are connected with his life, one of which is that he passed fifty-seven years in deep sleep in a cavern.

"Savants" [sā-vān; the capital *N* indicates the French nasal sound, nearest like *ah* spoken with a nasal tone]. From the French verb *savoir*, to know. Persons of learning, eminent for acquirements.

P. 84. "Au-ton'o-my." The Greek words for self and to hold sway give the origin of this term which means self-government.

P. 86. "In-qui'si'tion." A court or tribunal for the examination and punishment of heretics.

P. 91. "Anachronism" [an-ak'ro-niz'm]. From a Greek word signifying to refer to a wrong time. A mistake in the order of time; the placing of an event too early.

P. 92. "Tri-color." The flag of France adopted during the Revolution, consisting of three equal parts, blue next the mast, red at the fly, and white between.

P. 93. "Thiers" [te-ār].—"Guizot" [gē-zō].

P. 95. "Béranger" [bā-rōn-zhā].

"Invalides" [ān-vā-léd]. An asylum for veteran soldiers founded in 1670, by Louis XIV. The tomb of Napoleon is in the church of St. Louis, which forms a part of the Invalides.

P. 97. "Menage" [mā-nāzh]. French. Household management.

"Bourgeois" [boor-zhwā]. A man of middle rank in society.—*Bourgeoisie* [boor-zhwā-zē]. The French middle class.

P. 98. "Hotel de Ville." The city hall.

P. 99. "Cavaignac" [kā-vān-yāk].

P. 100. "Beauharnais" [bō-ār-na].

P. 104. "Archæology" [ār-kē-ōl'o-jy]. The Greek words for beginning and discourse form this derivative, which is defined as the science of antiquities, such as the remains of buildings, implements, inscriptions, and other relics.

P. 113. "Cekhs." More commonly written Czechs; pronounced chēks.

P. 114. "Windischgrätz" [vin'dish-grätz].

P. 116. "Jellacic" [yēl'ā-chich]. Written also Jellachich.

P. 118. "Görgey" [gor'geh-e, both *g*'s hard as in go].

REQUIRED READINGS IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

"SOCIAL LIFE IN ENGLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

1. "Wattle and daub." "A rough mode of building huts, cottages, etc., of interwoven twigs plastered with mud or clay."

2. "Postle spoons." Spoons having on the handles, usually at the ends, the figures of the Apostles. They were made in sets of twelve that each Apostle might be represented.

3. "Christ Cross Row." [Pronounced kris-kros.]

The English word, crisscross, is a corruption of Christ's cross, the intersecting of the lines suggesting the cross.

4. "Pater noster." The Lord's prayer; so named from the first two Latin words, *Pater noster*, our Father.

5. "Hours." Certain prayers which are to be repeated at certain times of the day.

6. "The Restoration." The re-establishment of the English monarchy in 1660, when King Charles II. came to the throne after Cromwell and the Commonwealth.

7. "Fleet Prison." A famous institution of great historical interest as the prison of religious offenders on both sides under Queen Mary and Queen Elizabeth.

8. "Loving cups." Wine cups intended for several persons to drink from and to pass from hand to hand. They commonly have several handles.

9. "12 Chas. II. c. 23." The twenty-third chapter of the Statutes of Parliament enacted in the twelfth year of King Charles II.

10. "Teste." According to the testimony of; witnessed by.

11. "*Satiro mastix*." A satire on Ben Jonson. The subtitle of the work is "The Untrussing of the Humorous Poets."

12. "Burnt my pype." Put it in the fire to cleanse it.

13. "Prophylactic" [prɒf-ɪ-läk'tɪk]. A preventive, a medicine which protects against disease.

14. "Pelle melle." A game in which a wooden ball was driven through an iron ring or hoop with a mallet. Croquet.

15. "Banstead Downs." The Epsom race course, where the "Derby" is run.

16. "The-ör-bö." An instrument like a large lute, having two necks and two sets of pegs.

17. "Vide" etc. See Pepys here and there, in many different places.

18. "Empirics." Experimenters in medical practice; quacks, charlatans.

19. "Sale rover." So called from the port of Sale on the coast of Morocco.

"THE BRITISH PARLIAMENT."

1. "Heiring." Inheriting.

2. "39 and 40 Victoria c. 59." The fifty-ninth chapter of the Statutes of Parliament enacted in the 39th and 40th years of the reign of Queen Victoria.

3. "Temporal peers." Peers of the rank of dukes, marquises, earls, viscounts, and barons, qualified to sit in the House of Lords; so called to distinguish from the spiritual peers, or the prelates also entitled to the same honor.

4. "Freehold." A term applied to land held by full legal tenure; any absolute ownership or possession.—"Copyhold" denotes a tenure for which the

tenant has nothing to show except the rolls made by the steward of the lord's court.—"Leasehold" is a tenure by lease.

5. "Budget." The annual financial statement which the chancellor of the exchequer makes in the House of Commons.

"KOSSUTH AND HUNGARIAN NATIONALITY."

1. "St. Wenceslas." The royal family of the Hapsburgs were in power in Austria and spread their dominion over several surrounding states, among them, over the lands of the crown of St. Wenceslas, which included Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia; and the lands of the crown of St. Étienne, or St. Stephen, including Hungary. Bohemia was conquered in the sixth century A. D. by the Slavic Czechs who also obtained Moravia, and remained in power until the ninth century when the Magyars conquered Moravia. The Bohemians, then under the reign of St. Wenceslas, their king, sought connection with Germany. In 1547 Ferdinand of Austria, who had been crowned king of Bohemia, made the crown hereditary in his house.—The Magyars in the ninth century conquered Hungary and in the year 1000, their king, Stephen I. (Étienne), obtained from Pope Sylvester II. the crown and the title of apostolic king, and afterwards the appellation of saint.

2. "Bureaucracy" [bū-rō'krä-sy]. "The undue extension of bureaus [or forces for transacting particular branches of public business] in the departments of government, or the use by them of undue influence or authority."

3. "Golden Bull." "A Hungarian Magna Charta of freedom and privileges, including the right of armed resistance to tyranny"; it was extorted from the king by the nobility.

4. "Jacobinism" [jác'o-bin-ism.] Unreasonable opposition to legitimate government. The word comes from a French revolutionary club, the Jacobins, founded in 1789, and named from its place of meeting, an old convent of the Dominican friars, or Jacobins.

5. "Carbonari" [kär-bo-nä're.] Members of a secret political organization founded near the beginning of the present century for the purpose of changing Italy into a republic. The name means charcoal burners; the place for their meeting was called the "hut"; its interior was the "place for selling charcoal"; its surroundings, the "forest"; and the political opponents were "wolves."

6. "Riego" [re-a'go]. The leader of the military insurrection which broke out in Spain for the purpose of restoring the liberal constitution of 1812 which had been declared null and void by Ferdinand VII.

7. "Decembrists." Those who conspired against Czar Nicholas at the time of his accession to the Russian throne in December, 1825.

8. "Young Germany." A literary school led by Heinrich Heine (1799-1856), the celebrated German poet and critic. It partook much less of Heine's poetical gifts than of his political aspirations, which aimed to liberate manners, religion, and politics from the old conventional trammels.

9. "Constituent Assembly." The first of the Revolutionary assemblies, in session 1789-1791. Its chief work was the formation of the constitution, whence its name.

10. "Transleithan" [trans-li'than]. Beyond the Leitha, a river forming part of the boundary between Austria and Hungary; applied to that division of the Austro-Hungarian empire which has its seat at Budapesth.—[Sis-li'than.] This side of the Leitha; applied to that part of the empire which has its seat at Vienna.

11. "Mazzini" [mât-see'nee]. (1826-1889.) An Italian patriot and revolutionist.

12. "*Pesti Hirlap*." The Pesth journal.

13. A florin is equal to forty-one cents.

14. "Intransigentism" [in-trân'si-jen-tism]. The doctrine of the intransigents or irreconcilables. The members of a radical party in Spain which in 1873 fomented an insurrection, were called Intransigentists.

15. "Hegemony" [he-jēm'o-ny]. From a Greek word meaning leader. Leadership, dominant influence or authority.

"SUNDAY READINGS."

1. "Compte" [kont], Auguste. (1798-1857.) A French philosopher of the system of positivism.

2. "Plato." (About 429-348 B. C.) A Greek philosopher.

3. "*Agape*" [äg'a-pe]. The love feast of the primitive Christians, which usually accompanied the communion.

4. "Hannibal." (248-183 B. C.) The great Carthaginian general.

5. "Re-nan," Ernest. (1823-1892.) A French philosopher, critic, and historian.

6. "Lucilius." (149-103 B. C.) A Latin satiric poet.

7. "Lucian." A Greek writer of the second century, A. D.

8. "Horace." (65-8 B. C.) A great Latin poet.

"SCIENCE AT THE BEGINNING OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY."

1. "Treviranus" [trâ-vê-râ'noos], Gottfried Reinhold. (1776-1837.) A German naturalist.

2. "Lamarck" [lä-mark], Jean Baptiste Pierre Antoine de Monet de. (1774-1829.) A French naturalist.

3. "Linne" [lîn-nâ], Karl von. The name is more commonly written Linnæus [lîn-nee'üs.] (1707-1778.) The great Swedish botanist.

4. "Wolff" [wôlf], Caspar Friedrich. (1733-1794.) A German anatomist.

5. "Bonnet" [bon-nâ'], Charles de. (1720-1793.) A Swiss naturalist and philosopher.

6. "Haller" [hâl'er], Albrecht von. (1708-1777.) A Swiss physiologist.

7. "Kant," Immanuel. (1724-1804.) A German metaphysician, founder of the Critical or Transcendental school of philosophy.

8. "Herder," Johann Gottfried. (1744-1803.) A German philosopher, author, and preacher.

9. "Goethe" [gô'teh—the sound of the ô is unlike anything in English, Webster says, "but it is nearest to that of *u* in *fur*, or *e* in *her*"], Johann Wolfgang von. (1749-1832.) "The most illustrious name in German literature and one of the greatest poets of any age or country."

10. "Pseudo" [su'dô]. A prefix derived from the Greek language, meaning false, counterfeit.

11. "Evolution." The word is derived from the Latin *evolvere*, to unfold or untwine; *e* or *ex*, meaning out and *volvere*, to roll.

12. "Epigenesis" [ep-i-jen'e-sis]. A Greek derivative from *epi* upon or to, and *genesis*, growth.

13. "*Theoria Generationis*." Latin; "Theory of Generation."

14. "*Philosophie Zoologique*." French; "Zoological Philosophy."

15. "*Biologie*." German; "Biology."

16. "Cuvier" [kü-ve-ä], Georges Chrétien Léopold Frederic Dagobert, Baron. (1769-1832.) An illustrious French philosopher, statesman, and author and one of the greatest of naturalists.

17. "Pröl-e-göm'e-na." The plural form of prolegomenon, a Greek derivative from a verb meaning to foretell. "A preliminary observation; chiefly used in the plural and applied to an introductory discourse prefixed to a book or treatise."

18. "Physicist" [fiz'i-sist]. One versed in physics, or the science of nature. The word comes from a Greek word meaning nature.

19. "Corollaries" [kor'ol-la-riz]. From a Latin word meaning a garland of flowers—see corolla—or a present. In mathematics it is applied to a proposition which is incidentally proved in proving another; hence, any inference drawn in a similar way. As the present of a garland, or any gift, is something beyond what is due, hence is something added or superfluous, etymologists think the word very logically points to this origin.

20. "Turgot" [tür-gô, the sound of the French ü can be only approximately represented by the English *u* in *full* or *oo* in *good*; it has no exact English equivalent], Anne Robert Jacques, Baron de l'Aulne. (1727-1781.) A great French economist and financier.

21. "Sorbonne" [sôr-bon]. A theological college in the University of Paris, founded in 1252 by

Robert de Sorbon. It was suppressed in 1789.

22. "Montesquieu" [mon-tes-qū], Charles Louis de Secondat, Baron. (1689-1755.) A French jurist and philosopher.

23. "Voltaire," François Marie Arouet. (1694-1778.) A renowned French author, a poet, philosopher, historian, satirist.

24. "Bossuet" [bos-sü-ä], Jacques Bénigne. (1627-1704.) A French bishop and pulpit orator.

25. "Ecraser," etc. "Root out or destroy what is infamous." By infamous is understood superstition, under which name Voltaire included the Christian religion.

26. "Philistine." Uncultured, commonplace. This use of the word sprang from its application by German students in the universities, who looked upon themselves as "the chosen people," or "the children of light," to the people of the towns whom they regarded as their enemies or "the children of darkness."

27. "Rousseau" [roo-sö'], Jean Jacques. (1712-1778.) A French philosopher and writer.

28. "Hamann" [hä'man], Johann Georg. (1730-1788.) A German philosopher.

29. "Winckelmann" [wink'el-män], Johann Joachim. (1717-1768.) A German archæologist.

30. "Connoisseur." [kon'nis-sür]. Derived from a Latin verb meaning to know. A critical judge of art.

31. "Lessing," Gotthold Ephraim. (1729-1781.) A German author.

32. "Wahrheit," etc. "Truth and fiction."

33. "Süssmilch" [soos'milk], Johann Peter. (1706-1767.) A German Lutheran minister.

34. "Storm and Stress." "A name given to a period in German literary history (about 1770 to 1790) influenced by a group of younger writers whose works were characterized by passion and reaction from the old methods; hence a proverbial phrase for unrest or agitation."

35. "Philological" [fil-o-loj'i-kal]. Pertaining to language or to words. Derived from two Greek words meaning loving and speech.

36. "Cosmos." The universe or universality of created things. From a Greek word meaning order, harmony, world.

twenty-five cents in the currency of the United States.

4. "Independence Belge." The Belgian independent.

5. "Petit Journal." The little journal or paper.

6. "Figaro" [fe-gä-rö] is the name of a character in Beaumarchais' comedies who was noted for his adroitness in outwitting all with whom he was thrown in contact.

7. "Temps." The times.

8. "Gaulois." The Gauls; as an adjective, pertaining to the Gauls or the old French.

9. "Eclair." The lightning.

10. "Berliner," etc. The Berlin local advertiser.

11. "Vossische Zeitung." The alert, dextrous, cunning (literally foxlike) newspaper.

12. "Berliner Tageblatte." The Berlin daily.

13. "Nachrichten." The news or tidings.

14. "Zeitung." The newspaper, or gazette.

"THE GERMANS."

1. "Aryan family." The primitive people who are supposed to have lived in prehistoric times in Central Asia, from whom sprang the Hindu, Persian, Greek, Latin, Celtic, Teutonic (or Germanic), and Slavonic races.

2. "Das Alte stürzt," etc. The old decays, times change; and new life blooms from the ruins.

3. To be found in "The Holy Roman Empire," p. 363.

4. "Cinque Cento" [chen'kwä chän'to]. Italian for fifteen hundred. The sixteenth century with reference to Italy, and especially with reference to the fine arts of that period. In this century the Renaissance—the revival of art, literature, etc.,—occurred.

5. "Verona, and other Lectures." By John Ruskin, D.C.L., LL.D.

6. "Hanse-towns." "A medieval confederation of cities of northern Germany and adjacent countries, at one time about ninety, with affiliated cities in nearly all parts of Europe, for the promotion of commerce by sea and land, and for its protection against pirates, robbers, and hostile governments. . . . Its origin is commonly dated from a compact between Hamburg and Lübeck, in 1241."

7. "The German monk who discovered gunpowder." The true origin of the discovery of gunpowder is buried in obscurity. Tradition and literature generally ascribed it to Berthold Schwarz, a German monk who lived in the fourteenth century.

8. "Inventor of the printing press." Johann Guthenberg. (1400-1468.)

9. "Moscovite." Russian.

"THE NEWSPAPER PRESS OF EUROPE."

1. "Ha'penny." The English penny is equal to about two cents United States currency; a ha' penny, to one cent.

2. "La Nacion." The nation.

3. "Shilling." The English shilling is equal to

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

1. Q. How is the life story of a nation largely determined? A. By inheritance and environment.

2. Q. Over how much of the world does the English government hold control to-day? A. One fourth of the land area of the globe.

3. Q. For how long have the English people repelled invaders and maintained their national integrity? A. Since the twelfth century.

4. Q. What gives England, situated in the latitude of Labrador, the climate of Virginia? A. The Gulf Stream.

5. Q. How are the four political divisions of the United Kingdom described? A. As under one government for centuries, yet each preserving a marked individuality.

6. Q. What is known of the original inhabitants of Great Britain? A. Nothing; the only trace left of them is an occasional etching or engraving on rock or on bone, made by cave dwellers.

7. Q. What peoples successively inhabited the islands before the English conquest? A. The Iberians, the Celts, the Romans.

8. Q. For how long did the Romans maintain power in Great Britain? A. Less than four centuries.

9. Q. What bands of sea rovers then in succession forced an entrance into the islands? A. The Jutes, the Saxons, the Angles.

10. Q. When did Britain, under the sway of the last comers, become England? A. In the seventh century.

11. Q. What other great event marks this century in English history? A. The conversion of the people to Christianity.

12. Q. Under what name was there for a time in the ninth century, a United England? A. The Saxon Heptarchy.

13. Q. What common danger kept these hitherto warring states bound together? A. The invasion of the Northmen.

14. Q. Who, belonging to this period, stands out as perhaps the most perfect character in history? A. King Alfred.

15. Q. What was the Witenagemot? A. The council of wise men who made the laws.

16. Q. When and under whom did the Normans become the dominant people in England? A. In 1066 at the battle of Hastings (or Senlac) under William the Norman.

17. Q. What noted building still standing bears witness to one of William's methods for gaining authority? A. The Tower of London.

18. Q. What is meant by the feudal relation?

A. The reciprocal obligations of lord and vassal, the lord granting land and protection, the vassal giving stipulated service.

19. Q. In what did the Conqueror's work reach its climax? A. In the Salisbury oath and the Domesday Survey.

20. Q. What event disturbed the reign of William I.? A. The revolt of the barons.

21. Q. What title did Henry I. gain on account of his maintenance of law and order? A. The Lion of Justice.

22. Q. During the quarrel for rule between Stephen and Matilda, what cruelly oppressed the tillers of the soil? A. The filling of the land with strong castles and castle-works.

23. Q. What intellectual effect had the Norman Conquest upon England? A. It brought the land in touch with the learning of the continent.

24. Q. During the long struggle between the kings and the barons on which side did the church cast its influence? A. As a rule, on the side of royalty.

25. Q. How was the population of Norman England divided between the feudal nobility and the common people? A. In the ratio of three to ninety-seven per cent.

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

1. Q. How is the nineteenth century characterized? A. As the most brilliant in the history of human achievement.

2. Q. What two ideas have controlled the political life of Europe for the last hundred years? A. Democracy and nationality.

3. Q. What event overturned the society of old Europe? A. The French Revolution.

4. Q. What was the general character of government before the French Revolution? A. An autocratic monarchy supported by a privileged nobility and a wealthy established church.

5. Q. What formed one of the most majestic survivals of feudal Europe? A. The Holy Roman Empire.

6. Q. Who formed the National Assembly of the French in which the work of national regeneration began? A. The representatives of the common people, who after a long disagreement with the two privileged orders in a meeting of the States General in 1789, voted themselves to be the Assembly.

7. Q. What formed the beginning of the work

of this Assembly? A. The complete abolition of feudal customs and privileges.

8. Q. How did the king plot to restore the absolute throne? A. He sought to flee and to seek foreign help in reinstating himself.

9. Q. What serious question had the new Legislative Assembly to face? A. The dissatisfaction of all the monarchs in Europe over the changes in France.

10. Q. By what act did the French Revolution begin? A. By a declaration of war against Austria, whose acts had been construed as hostile.

11. Q. How did the Paris mob first manifest its frenzy? A. By the destruction of the Tuileries.

12. Q. In what act before the Revolution had this mob learned its power? A. The demolishing of the Bastille.

13. Q. What formed the war cry of the new crusade? A. The rights of man.

14. Q. What fate did Louis XVI. suffer? A. He was guillotined.

15. Q. In what body was supreme executive power vested during the Reign of Terror? A. In the Committee of Public Safety.

16. Q. What changes in government rapidly succeeded? A. The Directory, the *coup d'état* of Napoleon, the Consulate, the empire.

17. Q. What was the first care of Napoleon after he became consul? A. To systematize the government.

18. Q. What will commemorate the name of Napoleon after his battles are forgotten? A. His codification of the laws.

19. Q. What object secured by the Concordat was deemed of first importance by Napoleon? A. The reconciliation of France with the Church.

20. Q. What occasioned a renewal of war between France and England? A. The refusal of the latter to surrender Malta.

21. Q. How did Napoleon attempt to ruin England after he had conquered Austria and Prussia? A. He compelled the continental nations to cease trading with England.

22. Q. When did the area of the French empire reach its greatest extent? A. In 1810.

23. Q. How was war between Russia and France precipitated? A. By the alliance of France and Austria through the marriage of Napoleon and Maria Louisa.

24. Q. Where did Napoleon reach the limit of his invasions into foreign lands? A. At Moscow.

25. Q. When was Napoleon first compelled to abdicate his throne, and when was he finally de-

feated? A. At the siege of Paris in 1814, and at Waterloo in 1815.

26. Q. By what means was the Bourbon king restored? A. By a million foreign bayonets and not by the voice of the French people.

27. Q. What followed the great social upheaval of the French Revolution? A. The international wars which made the story of Europe so bloody for a quarter of a century.

28. Q. What were the most important results in the relations between France and England in the next few years? A. England wrested Canada from France; France aided the American colonies to cut loose from England; and England gained her maritime and commercial supremacy.

29. Q. In what one word may the permanent results of the Revolution in France be summed up? A. Equality.

30. Q. The history of European diplomacy is marked by what three memorable congresses? A. Those of Westphalia, Vienna, and Berlin.

31. Q. What was the object of the Congress of Vienna? A. To destroy the ideas of the French Revolution and to put Europe back where it was in 1789.

32. Q. Who was the ruling spirit of this Congress? A. Metternich, the prime minister of Austria.

33. Q. What famous American doctrine was promulgated to prevent the interference of European powers in the affairs of the New World? A. The Monroe Doctrine.

34. Q. By what measure did France become a constitutional monarchy? A. By the royal charter of 1814.

35. Q. What brought on the second fall of the Bourbon dynasty? A. The abrogation of the constitution by the king, Charles X.

36. Q. What overthrew Louis Philippe, the citizen king, who reigned for the next eighteen years? A. The electoral reform.

37. Q. Who was elected the first president of the second French republic? A. Louis Napoleon Bonaparte.

38. Q. What was the result of the Revolutionary ideas in Germany? A. The forming of one united nation out of the loose federation of independent governments.

39. Q. How are the Austrian dominions characterized? A. As including the most complicated tangle of races and tongues in Europe.

40. Q. What people have been most prominent in Austrian politics during the century? A. The Hungarians.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—I.

1. What were the early writers of English history called?
2. What is said to have been the first complete philosophical history?
3. By whom was the modern historical novel created?
4. What prominent Englishman wrote a History of the World while in prison?
5. Who is considered the most popular historian of modern times?
6. What noted English author is said to be the most original historian of this century?
7. What historical novel, founded on English history of the sixteenth century, was written by an American?
8. Who wrote a history of his own country for children?
9. For what work on English history was John Arbuthnot noted?
10. What was the first important work advocating free trade in England?

WOMAN'S WORLD.—I.

1. How long a time after there were colleges for boys in Massachusetts elapsed before colleges for girls were founded?
 2. While the colonial fathers still barred the doors of even the unpretentious little schoolhouses of the free public schools to girls, what condition as regards women existed in the Bologna University?
 3. Where, when, and by whom was founded the first female seminary in the United States?
 4. Through the incentive of what woman's efforts was the first appropriation of public funds for the higher education of women made, and by what state?
 5. What one affiliated college in the world has received the full official sanction and recognition from the university with which it is connected?
 6. In what part of the United States is the higher education of women generally identical with co-education?
 7. Who were the first three women members of the American Association for the Advancement of Science?
 8. What was the first college to grant real degrees to women?
 9. What is the first English institution founded to fit women with a thorough professional education?
 10. Through the exertions of what woman were women admitted to the local examinations of Cambridge in 1865 and soon after in Oxford?
- J-Oct.

ART.—I.

1. What connection is there between the words art, arm, artisan, article, articulate, as they all come from one root *ar*, passing through several languages?
2. What is the difference between the words relief and perspective as applied to painting?
3. What is the meaning of the abbreviation *pinx.* often found on pictures after the artist's name?
4. Upon the accuracy of what five elementary traits does the merit of a painting rest?
5. With what aim in view did all primitive races make their first attempts at painting?
6. What was the object of all the first works of art as such?
7. How far back can the earliest attempts at painting be traced?
8. From the wall paintings of what famous grottoes have modern Egyptologists derived most of the existing knowledge of the life of the ancient Egyptians?
9. Papyrus rolls containing paintings and called the "Book of the Dead" were often placed in the graves of deceased persons in Egypt; what formed the theme of the pictures?
10. To what people is due the introduction of landscape painting?

CURRENT EVENTS.—I.

1. What origin has been ascribed to the word tariff different from that given by the leading lexicographers?
2. When did the first tariff act pass the United States Congress?
3. When was passed the first essentially protective tariff act?
4. What was known as the "tariff of abominations"?
5. What clause in the recent tariff bill, placing certain objects on the free list, merits the commendation of all cultured people regardless of party?
6. To what extent did the result of the Debs trial prove the constitutional authority of the nation to extend?
7. What warriors in the Chinese army now fighting against the Japanese are known as the Black Flags?
8. What part of the French anti-anarchist bill recently passed has been criticised as a menace to the foundation of civil liberty?
9. Under whose control is the trial of accused anarchists placed in France?
10. When was the town of Pullman founded?

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1898.

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

"The truth shall make you free."

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CLASS FLOWER—GERANIUM.

THE Class of '95 was unusually well represented at Chautauqua this season. The year preceding graduation often finds few members of a given class at Chautauqua but '95 made a fine showing and took enthusiastic and personal interest in the decoration of the Hall of Philosophy, which it fell to their lot to superintend.

A PLEASANT suggestion has been made by '95's that the cottage holders at Chautauqua use their class flower, the nasturtium, quite generally in decorations next year. This would be a graceful recognition of the graduating class and as the flower blooms in many colors and in great profusion during July and August, a great variety of effects could be produced.

CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

"Truth is eternal."

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CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

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Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; the Rev. James E. Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, South Wales; Charles E. Boyd, Cambridge, Mass.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Dayton, O.

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CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

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Secretary—Miss Elizabeth Brown, Janesville, Wis.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

THE Class of '98 has fairly started on its career and the outlook is very hopeful. More than three hundred and fifty persons joined the class at Chautauqua and at many of the summer Assemblies the enrollment was unusually large.

THE Class of '98 enrolled at Chautauqua is remarkable alike for the long list of its members and for the prominent people found among them. At its head as president is Pres. W. L. Hervey of the Teachers' College, New York, and the new principal of the Teachers' Retreat at Chautauqua. Among the first to join was Dr. J. M. Buckley, editor of the *New York Christian Advocate*. The Rev. G. M. Brown, field secretary of the C. L. S. C., counts himself a member. Dr. Edwin A. Schell, general secretary of the Epworth League, and Dr. S. A. Steel, secretary of the Epworth League of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, are both enrolled, as is also Miss Margaret Mather, president of the Girls' Club. Among the representatives from foreign lands are the Rev. and Mrs. W. P. Chalfont of the Presbyterian Press, Shanghai, China, and Mr. J. L. Ransom of Kingston, Jamaica.

OWING to an extraordinary interest in the South and the request from the new Alabama Assembly that the class might adopt the name of "The Laniers," the class gathered at Chautauqua, whose duty it is to select name, motto, etc., unanimously voted to grant the request of the southern members; and so '98 bears as its name that of two poets whose works have already won their way into the hearts of the nation. Its motto, "The humblest life that lives

may be divine," is taken from a poem by Clifford Lanier and the flower very appropriately chosen is the violet. The full poem from which the motto is taken reads,

"The humblest life that lives may be divine,
Christ changed the common water into wine,
Star-like comes Love from out the magic East,
And Life ahungered finds his fast a feast."

AMONG many pleasant gatherings held by the Class of '98 was the occasion of their welcome into the '90 class room in the Union Class Building. The exercises were informal and the two classes entered into the good fellowship of the occasion most heartily. The '98's became very enthusiastic about their share in the equipment of the Class Building and at one of their later meetings, having already begun to appreciate the advantages of their class headquarters, they subscribed a goodly sum toward the completion of the building.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

CLASS OF 1894.—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

"*Ubi mel, ibi apes.*"

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CLASS FLOWER—CLOVER.

CLASS OF 1893.—"THE ATHENIANS."

"*Study to be what you wish to seem.*"

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Class Trustee—George E. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEM—ACORN.

CLASS OF 1892.—"THE COLUMBIA."

"*Seek and ye shall obtain.*"

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Class Historian—Prof. Lewis Stuart, Lake Forest, Ill.

CLASS FLOWER—CARNATION.

CLASS OF 1891.—"THE OLYMPIANS."

"*So run that ye may obtain.*"

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Class Historian—Miss M. A. Daniels, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWERS—LAUREL AND WHITE ROSE.

IN order to raise funds the Class of '91 has adopted the plan of selling, for fifty cents each, photographs of Dr. Palmer. This likeness is desirable to all members of the class, who may obtain it from the treasurer, Miss C. L. Sargent, 361 Macon St., Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1890.—"THE PIERIANS."

"*Redeeming the time.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Professor D. A. McClenahan, D. D., Allegheny, Pa.

Vice Presidents—Chas. W. Nickerson, Sunbury, Pa.; Miss Carrie McKee, Remington, Ind.; Mr. Z. L. White, Columbus, O.; Mrs. Abraham DuBois, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mr. George H. Iott, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Orpha Lyons, Ashabula, O.; Miss Elizabeth Gunther, Racine, Wis.

Eastern Secretary—Miss L. E. Young, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Western Secretary—The Rev. H. B. Waterman, D. D., Chicago, Ill.

Class Trustee—Mr. William A. McDowell, Uniontown, Pa.

Treasurer—Mrs. P. C. Houston, Jamestown, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—TUBEROSE.

CLASS OF 1889.—"THE ARGONAUTS."

"*Knowledge unused for the good of others is more vain than unused gold.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Miss Laura A. Shotwell, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—The Rev. W. A. Hutchinson, D. D., Jackson, O.; Miss Emma Arnold, Marietta, O.; Mrs. Dora F. Emery, Greenville, Pa.

Secretary and Class Trustee—The Rev. S. Mills Day, Honeoye, N. Y.

Treasurer—O. M. Allen, 351 Massachusetts Street, Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—DAISY.

CLASS OF 1888.—"THE PLYMOUTH ROCK."

"*Let us be seen by our deeds.*"

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. A. E. Dunning, D. D., Boston, Mass.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. D. A. Cunningham, Wheeling, W. Va.; Mrs. G. B. McCabe, Sidney, O.; Mrs. J. W. Salvage, Brooklyn, N. Y.; the Rev. L. A. Stevens, Hornellsville, N. Y.; S. C. Johnson, Racine, Wis.

Secretary—Miss Belle Douglass, Syracuse, N. Y.

Treasurer and Class Trustee—Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn.

Class Chronicler—Mrs. A. C. Teller, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—GERANIUM.

THE Class of '88, which seems to be a most prosperous member of the fraternity of C. L. S. C. classes, reports that it has a snug little sum in its treasury and its members are already anticipating the joys of their decennial four years hence. At a meeting of the class in August it voted to send a set of books and THE CHAUTAUQUAN for this year to the Look Forward Circle in the prison at Lincoln, Nebraska. This gift will be heartily appreciated by the Lincoln friends who are so deeply interested in this work.

CLASS OF 1887—"THE PANSIES."

"Neglect not the gift that is in thee."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Frank Russell, Bridgeport, Conn.

Vice Presidents—James H. Taft, Brooklyn; Dr. G. R. Alden, Mary's Landing, N. J.; L. B. Silliman, Bridgeport, Conn.

Eastern Secretary—Miss Cornelia Adele Teal, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Western Secretary—The Rev. Rollin Marquis, Sedalia, Mo.

Treasurer and Trustee—Dr. Frank Russell, Bridgeport, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—PANSY.

CLASS OF 1886—"THE PROGRESSIVES."

"We study for light to bless with light."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. L. Knight, St. Louis, Mo.

Vice Presidents—Miss Belle F. Cummings, Wellsville, N. Y.; the Rev. R. S. Pardington, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. Groesbeck, Titusville, Pa.; Mr. Babbitt, Vermont; Mrs. S. E. Millington, Cal.; Mrs. F. A. Poole, Rochester, Minn.; Mrs. Adele A. Sargeant, Ga.; Miss S. Soule, Oneonta, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. R. E. Burrows, Andover, N. Y.

Treasurer—Mrs. J. D. Clarkson, Carthage, Mo.

Trustee of Class Building—Mrs. L. Knight, St. Louis, Mo.

Class Poet—Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller.

Class Historian—Miss Belle F. Cummings, Wellsville, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—ASTER.

CLASS COLORS—CREAM AND SHRIMP PINK.

CLASS OF 1885—"THE INVINCIBLES."

"Press on, reaching after those things which are before."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. E. C. Weeks, New York; Mrs. Ryckman, Brocton, N. Y.; Mrs. Brown, Cutting, N. Y.; Miss Carrie Cooper, Montclair, N. J.

Secretary—Mrs. E. C. Elwell, Newark Valley, N. Y.

Treasurer—Mrs. M. L. Ensign, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Committee on Ways and Means—Miss Georgie Hall, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—HELIOTROPE.

CLASS OF 1884—"THE IRREPRESSIBLES."

"Press forward; he conquers who will."

OFFICERS.

President—Wm. D. Bridge, Boston, Mass.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. S. J. M. Eaton, Franklin, Pa.; Mrs.

E. J. S. Baker, Chautauqua N. Y.; Mrs. J. D. Parks, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. Dexter Horton, Seattle, Wash.; George G. Miner, Fredonia, N. Y.; the Hon. John W. Fairbanks, Seattle, Wash.; Miss Nellie M. Stone, Oswego, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. Adelaide T. Wescott, Holley, N. Y.

Treasurer—Miss M. E. Young, Nashville, Tenn.

Trustees—Prof. W. D. Bridge, John W. Fairbanks, Miss M. E. Young.

Executive Committee—Miss Sara N. Graybill, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Amelia H. Faulkner, Hartwell, O.; Mrs. S. E. Parker, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. H. H. Moore, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Lizzie F. Parmelee, Lockport, N. Y.; Miss Nellie M. Stone, Oswego, N. Y.

Honorable Counselors—Mrs. S. B. Holway, Chelsea, Mass.; Mrs. E. C. Dale, Warren, Pa.; Mrs. E. J. L. Baker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. A. A. Warner, Philadelphia, Pa.

CLASS FLOWER—GOLDEN-ROD.

THE "Irrepressibles" are to be congratulated upon having attained their decennial year, and every one who had occasion after nightfall to visit the vicinity of the Union Class Building added congratulations on the pleasing and substantial manner in which they celebrated the event. Appropriate and attractive exercises freely interspersed with humor were observed on the afternoon of August 18, and in the evening occurred the presentation to the Assembly of the Class Electric Light, for which the light mast had already been set in front of the building.

CLASS OF 1883—"THE VINCENTS."

"Step by step we gain the heights."

OFFICERS.

President—Miss Annie Gardner, Boston, Mass.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. A. D. Alexander, Franklin, Pa.; Mrs. M. A. Watts, Louisville, Ky.

Secretary—M. J. Perrine, Rochester, N. Y.

Treasurer—Miss H. E. Eddy, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Banner Bearer—C. Tuttle, Jr., Busti, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—SWEET PEA.

CLASS OF 1882—"THE PIONEERS."

"From height to height."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. B. T. Vincent, University Park, Col.

Vice Presidents—The Rev. J. L. Hurlbut, D.D., New York; Mrs. A. M. Martin, Pittsburg, Pa.; the Rev. J. M. Fradenburg, Union City, Pa.; Judge Elliott, Dayton, O.; Miss Altie E. Cole, Wellsville, N. Y.; Mrs. G. W. Barlow, Detroit, Mich.

Treasurer—Mrs. A. D. Wilder, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. E. F. Curtis, Geneseo, N. Y.

Trustees—Mrs. Thos. Park, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Miss Ella Beaujean, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Judge F. F. Sessions, Jamestown, N. Y.; Miss Annie Cummings, Chautauqua, N. Y.; the Rev. C. G. Stevens, Bergens, N. Y.

Necrologist—Mrs. Delos Hatch, Jamestown, N. Y.

CLASS SYMBOL—A HATCHET.

ORDER OF THE WHITE SEAL.

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. A. F. Ashton, Hamilton, O.

Vice Presidents—Miss M. E. Young, Nashville, Tenn.; Miss C. A. Nay, Indiana; Mrs. Armstrong.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss M. F. Lee, Holliday's Cove, W. Va.

Executive Committee—Mr. F. W. Hewitt, Granville, N. Y.; Miss McArthur, Ohio; Miss Grove, Oil City, Pa.

LEAGUE OF THE ROUND TABLE.

OFFICERS.

President—Mr. W. H. Weacott, Holley, N. Y.*Vice-Presidents*—The Rev. Frank Russell, D. D.; Mrs. A. D. Wilder; Mrs. J. G. Allen.*Secretary and Treasurer*—McSlay H. Lichliter, Delaware, Ohio.*Executive Committee*—Mrs. T. S. Park; Mrs. D. W. Hatch; Mrs. Burgess.

IT was found that several new members during the last year have secured the coveted fourteen seals, thus making them members of this order. Thirty-

eight members of the Guild were present, representing an aggregate of eight hundred and fifty-nine seals.

GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS.

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. Luella Knight, St. Louis, Mo.*First Vice President*—Mrs. W. H. Weacott, Holley, N. Y.*Second Vice President*—W. N. Ellis, Brooklyn, N. Y.*Secretary and Treasurer*—Miss Annie H. Gardner, Boston, Mass.*Executive Committee*—Mrs. Wm. Hoffman, Englewood, N. J.; Mrs. J. C. Martin, New York; Dr. J. J. Covert, Pittsburgh, Pa.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

*"We Study the Word and the Works of God."**"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."**"Never be Discouraged."*

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1894-'95.

W. E. GLADSTONE DAY—February 5.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH DAY—March 15.

ROBERT BROWNING DAY—April 5.

MICHAEL ANGELO DAY—May 10.

HUGH MILLER DAY—June 17.

KING ALFRED DAY—October 12.

OTTO VON BISMARCK DAY—November 19.

JOHN WYCLIF DAY—December 10.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER DAY—January 7.

Now that the Assemblies for the season are over, Chautauquans who were able to attend them are happily industrious in promulgating and adapting for special classes the new plans there discussed. The newly initiated Chautauquans are starting out full of enthusiasm determined to make a record in their own lives if not in the history of circles, while the old Chautauquans are also eagerly viewing the prospects for the new year, with eyes sharpened by experience to detect all points at which improvements may be introduced, and brightened with a realization of the rich and pleasant returns which the work affords.

All of these circles, both the new and those already established, are invited to avail themselves speedily of these columns to impart to other C. L. S. C.'s their inspirations, schemes for improvement and progress, not forgetting to sign themselves in full and to give their addresses plainly.

Though as yet it is too early to report any record made in the new C. L. S. C. year, those engaged in circle work, and especially new Chautauquans, may be interested in the following accounts, which were received too late for publication in the last circle reports.

CANADA.—Eclectic C. L. S. C. of Westport, Nova

Scotia, organized October 1 of last year, has contributed its quota of proof in contradiction of the popular fallacy which attaches bad luck to the number thirteen. With a membership of thirteen the circle met weekly without interruption at the homes of its members. The secretary continues, "We feel that we are receiving great advantage from the course and find it helpful even in reading the current literature of the day."

NEW YORK.—On Decoration Day, No Name Circle of Brooklyn completed the tenth year of its existence. It held its closing session at the home of a family in Woodlawn, N. Y., who were among the first to enroll, and who for many years have entertained the circle on Decoration Day. Here under the whispering leaves of a maple grove a bountiful dinner was served.

From first to last No Name Circle has been a growing success, continuing among the same families with which it started, with, of course, the addition of some new members and the loss of a few from removals or causes absolutely preventing attendance. Many who were children when the circle organized have grown up under its influence and within the last two years have added their names to its roll. At the last regular meeting the youngest

member won the prize for orthoëpy on about a hundred words. Meetings are held every other week at the homes of members, with an attendance of from sixty to seventy-five. The members say they cannot afford to miss them as nowhere else can they get so much profit and entertainment in an evening.

PENNSYLVANIA.—There is an enterprising circle consisting entirely of girls at Germantown. Last year they found a great deal of profit and amusement in conducting a monthly journal, publishing in it original articles as far as possible and falling back on selections for filling in when necessary. The journal contained essays, sketches, rhymes, and stories that show considerable thought and ingenuity. Of especial interest and clearness is a short story entitled "The Contribution Stocking."

TEXAS.—Lone Star C. L. S. C. of Reagan reports excellent work and sustained enthusiasm. The programs, prepared by the members in turn, yield something new each week. A feature of one of the meetings was a guessing contest. On a table were placed a great variety of objects representing the titles of books. A handsome bouquet was offered as prize to the first person guessing the greatest number of titles. Lottery tickets were made to stand for "Great Expectations," an open rose for "A Rose in Bloom," pennies for "Hard Cash," etc.—Walnut Chautauqua Circle at Walnut Springs, has a membership of only seven, but six of these are enrolled workers, and all enthusiastic in C. L. S. C. matters. Meetings are held weekly on Saturday afternoons, and a generous rivalry exists to have the best prepared lesson.

INDIANA.—The ladies of the Chautauqua Circle at Auburn held their commencement exercises, June 29, at the home of one of the members. The lawn and parlors were profusely decorated with flowers and beautifully lighted with Chinese lanterns. About one hundred persons were present. The program, which was excellent throughout, included vocal and instrumental music, roll call responded to by quotations, an address by the president, and by the graduates an oration entitled "Woman" and an original poem on "Chautauqua Years." The poem concluded:

"Ring on, O sweet Chautauqua bells,
Till all the listening world shall hear
Above earth's low discordant tones
The angel's anthem soft and clear.
Whatever hand holds out to men
The olive branch of helpful deed
We own with glad fraternal clasp
And bid the noble work Godspeed."

The literary part of the program closed with an address of welcome by a C. L. S. C. graduate of '91. A social followed and refreshments were served. This is the third class this circle has graduated.

MICHIGAN.—A series of lectures given by a woman five years ago to the women of Dowagiac awakened them to the advantages to be gained by organizing for social and intellectual improvement. The outcome was the Nineteenth Century Club, which a year after its organization, settled upon the Chautauqua course as best suited to its purposes. The club has steadily grown in favor and numbers. Its last annual meeting was a brilliant occasion. Sixteen had completed the four years' C. L. S. C. course, and a special program and sumptuous banquet were given in their honor. Fine papers were presented and the toasts responded to aptly and beautifully. One hundred and eight ladies and gentlemen were present.

MINNESOTA.—The following letter is received from St. Paul:

"Plymouth C. L. S. C. closed a most enjoyable and profitable year of study on May 2. It has been the custom of the circle for many years to disband by the first of May and in order to do so the lessons are doubled for a month or two, so that the year's course may be fully completed. In addition we have reviewed our history, literature, and Roman and Medieval Art, which may indicate our enthusiasm and interest in the 'Roman year.' We have numbered only sixteen this year but our average attendance has been thirteen all winter, and the very conscientious work done by every member has been the secret of our enjoyment and profit. Our history reviews have been a marked feature of our later winter's work, when our mental efforts were supplemented by various ingenious novelties designed by our hostesses. At one meeting our dinner cards were historical and classical questions, the answers to which showed each one her place at the table. Our review of Roman and Medieval Art was greatly enhanced by stereopticon views given us by one of the members. At our final meeting expressions of mutual esteem and appreciation passed between the members and our president, and the class presented her with a beautiful bunch of roses. We all parted with feelings of regret and with the cordial hope of enjoying the 'English year' as well as we have this."

The closing meeting of Hamline Chautauqua Circle, also of St. Paul, held at the home of one of the members, was one of the most successful social and literary events of the season. The rooms were charmingly decorated. About seventy guests were present. After the opening prayer the circle joined in singing, to the tune of Swanee River, the following "Song of the Clover," composed for the occasion by Miss Harriet F. Garvin, one of the circle members:

"Deep down among the dingle grasses,
In forests green,
Kissed by each wooing wind that passes,
Sweet clover blooms are seen,

Close nestled by our own dear doorways,
O'er prairies wide,
Leaning to smile to brooklet's laughter,
On the rugged mountain side.

CHORUS.

"Ah, if God had made but clover,
And no flower beside,
No nook would lack its meed of sweetness,
Where clover blossoms hide.

"Thou welcomest each worn wayfarer
To all thy store;
No niggard thou of all thy sweetness,
Still there is room for more.
Honey distilled from dew and sunshine,
No better fare
Can king to king for largess proffer
Than thou dost offer there.

CHORUS.

"Host thou art, and inn thy blossoms,
Bonny bee thy guest;
'Where honey is there bees will gather'—
Giver and they are blest.

"I stoop to let thy scented breathing
Caress my cheek;
I hush my heart to hear the message
Thy rosy lips will speak.
Softly it comes—I listen, listen,
To catch its fall—
'Know, be ye high or be ye lowly,
The Father cares for all'

CHORUS.

"Take, my heart, the whispered message,
Keep it thankfully;
Remember who for clover careth,
He keepeth ward o'er thee."

In answer to roll call quotations were given from Shakespeare, on "hate" by the ladies and on "love" by the gentlemen. Then followed an able paper on "The Church During the Dark Ages," a vocal duet by two cultured and sweetly blending voices, and a description of Jonah's awful adventure that was pronounced realistic enough for an object lesson. Some very clever charades all bearing on the winter's work were given. Refreshments were served by the ladies of the circle. The toastmaster offered a few words of greeting and of thanks to those who had entertained and aided the circle by lectures and music. Spirited responses were made to the toasts, "Our Circle," "Our Alumni," "Ladies," "Gentlemen," "Why I am a Chautauquan." Instrumental music preceded a delightful social hour, at the close of which the president returned his thanks to the circle and adjourned the meeting.

IOWA.—The circle secretary at State Center writes:

"In October last a class of twelve was organized. After catching up with the work we followed the programs closely. Interest and enthusiasm have been kept up well. Two of the circle are graduates. Our president assigns work for each member. We observed Cicero Day by giving a Roman banquet, with eleven guests invited. Everything was carried on in true Roman style. The ladies wore Roman costumes. The only gentleman of the class was

master of ceremonies, being dressed as and playing well the part of Augustus. The program, which consisted of an extensive menu, music, essays, recitations, and songs, required two hours, after which Roman ceremony was laid aside and the remainder of the evening given up to sociability in the true nineteenth century style."—At Garrison there is a lively circle of four regular members, known as the Monday Club. As the town is small it forms the chief recreation of teachers, housekeepers, postmaster, and bank cashier. Though their mainstay, a minister, was called away they persevered, and, determined to read "not to themselves alone" but to aid others, gave an entertainment for the benefit of the high school library. Unquestioned success crowned their efforts on this Greco-Roman evening, and great credit is due to those in charge, especially the conductors of the drills. The latter exercises consisted of a fine tambourine drill by twelve misses, a series of beautiful Delsarte movements and poses by young ladies accompanied in one number by music, in another by concert recitation, and a charming scarf drill by seven little girls. Other recitations were characterized by superior excellence, and the program was interspersed with delightful music.

WASHINGTON.—The secretary of the circle at Puyallup says: "A circle was organized here last autumn with sixteen regular and nine associate members. The latter took THE CHAUTAUQUAN and succeeded in doing some desultory reading but did not attempt any examinations. The class proved to be very pleasant as well as profitable and there are indications of a considerable growth and better work.

"The history of Puyallup Circle," she continues, "is irretrievably amalgamated with the history of the Commonwealers. We had been planning for a month for a public open meeting to be held in the opera house. Several days before the appointed evening about fifteen hundred Commonwealers from Tacoma and Seattle invaded our town with the avowed intention of remaining until the people of Puyallup secured them transportation to Chicago.

"All was excitement and at 4:47 p. m., just when we were busiest decorating, we were obliged to allow in the opera house a citizens' meeting to confer with the state governor in regard to the presence of this army. The Commonwealers invaded the house almost to suffocation but the meeting convinced them that if they were ever to reach Washington City they would be obliged to walk, and they began to depart in small squads, with blankets on their backs.

"The circle then went upon the stage, which was furnished as a parlor, and a regular meeting was held, with the addition of music by the Puyallup cornet band. The meeting was a success."

THE SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1894.

CHAUTAUQUA. To all standard works time only adds new value; and so it comes about that the story of Chautauqua keeps ever fresh and gains new interest with each succeeding year. Its twenty-first repetition is saved from all the weariness of monotony by reason of two presiding influences which hover over the whole institution and imbue all of its undertakings: viz., the spirit of progress and the genius of success.

The general appearance of the grounds during the summer was more beautiful than ever before. All traces of the disaster which in the form of a destructive windstorm visited the Point at the close of last season, were removed. The whole place with all of its modern improvements in the way of fine public buildings, waterworks, lighting, and paved streets, was in thorough repair, and the well kept grounds form surroundings entirely worthy of the many handsome model cottages which are constantly being erected.

The proceedings in each department throughout the season met the highest anticipations of those interested in it. The Chautauqua College of Liberal Arts and Schools of Sacred Literature, having for principal Dr. W. R. Harper of the Chicago University, counted between six hundred and seven hundred students enrolled in the various departments and representing nearly every state and territory in the Union. Eighteen religious denominations had representatives among the members, as also had forty-one colleges and universities. Those pursuing studies were characterized by a settled determination and persistency to gather as much knowledge as possible from the great storehouse opened to them.

After a vacation of one year, deemed best on account of the World's Fair, the Teachers' Retreat resumed work with a new principal, Dr. W. L. Hervey, and several new teachers. In efforts and results, in numbers and enthusiasm, the session made an unusually high record.

The music was of the highest excellence, and while its directors, Dr. Palmer and Mr. Leason, arranged for many and full programs, the popular clamor was always for more. Both the vocal and instrumental departments produced many fine soloists and many excellent choruses. Prof. Flagler's organ recitals as usual were received with high favor.

The School of Physical Culture under the direction of Dr. W. G. Anderson has merited its great popularity and has won an assured place among Chautauqua institutions. The many miscellaneous departments, including those of painting, wood-carving, photography, oratory, business interests, stenog-

raphy, cooking, kindergarten, etc., report a season of prosperity. Special interests, such as the Ministers' Club, the Political Economy Club, Mothers' Meeting, and the Woman's Club all make a like report.

The presence of Bishop Vincent throughout almost the entire season added much to the general enjoyment. With its Chancellor in its midst, Chautauqua seems to rest in perfect contentment. Vice-Chancellor George E. Vincent in his customary happy manner held a firm control over the proceedings, making all move off in clocklike order. The popular program was unusually full and noticeably well carried out. In presenting their themes the many different lecturers touched on all topics and furnished a pleasing variety to the large audiences. The past, present, and future, all phases and conditions of life, all realms of thought, all traits of character, were laid under contribution to furnish the subjects. The lectures which were given in courses awakened especial interest, prominent among them being those delivered by Prof. R. G. Moulton, of England, Dr. Harper, of Chicago University, the Hon. Carroll D. Wright, United States Commissioner of Labor, and the Hon. C. E. Fitch, of New York. The familiar faces of Dr. Buckley, Profs. H. B. and G. B. Adams, Leon H. Vincent, Frank Beard, and many other well known Chautauquans gave to the audiences immediately an "at home" feeling which is among the most delightful experiences of the place.

The Sunday school normal study conducted by Dr. J. L. Hurlbut is one of the settled features of Chautauqua life, and around no other department clusters more genuine interest. Eager bands of students during the time appointed for this course found their way daily to Normal Hall and were glad participants in the instruction given there in so enthusiastic a manner. Who can measure the amount of good accruing to the world from the influence of this persistent and effective Bible study year after year?

The young people's interests have always received careful attention at Chautauqua. Boys and girls' classes, girls' clubs, and boys' congresses, and other associations in which the young can meet, have been devised and fostered. One of the new events of the season just passed was the celebrating of Young People's Day, a time set apart exclusively for their interests. A procession in which all the clubs were represented, and a fine program held the attention of all, old as well as young.

The C. L. S. C., that powerful agent for the dif-

fusion of knowledge among the people, is chief among all the interests considered at this great summer meeting. A large representation from the vast body of readers of this course was present on the grounds during the entire Assembly. At the special meetings devoted to their cause—the Round Tables, the Vesper services, and Class meetings—their power and enthusiasm were particularly manifested. To understand just what Chautauqua means, a knowledge of this unique organization is requisite. Ever deepening its old interests and ever aspiring to new ones, its capacity for work and growth seems unlimited. The spread of its influence is well indicated by the large numbers who have already enrolled in the new Class of '98. The efficient work of the Rev. G. M. Brown as field secretary of the C. L. S. C. is making itself felt in this particular.

On Recognition Day Dr. Edward Everett Hale, one of the counselors of Chautauqua, was royally welcomed as the orator of the occasion. A class of ninety-four graduates were present to receive their diplomas. The customary beautiful and impressive ceremonies of this glad festival day were well observed.

Taken all in all, its twenty-first year was one of the very best in the whole history of Chautauqua. Not least among the good things with which it was favored was the weather which from beginning to end was propitious. Justly entitled to look back with pride over its glorious past and amply warranted in looking forward with bright anticipations to a still more glorious future, Chautauqua closed the present year in a very grateful and happy frame of mind.

BEATRICE, The seventh annual session of the **NEBRASKA.** Beatrice, Neb., Chautauqua Assembly was held from June 21 to July 4 and was in every sense the most successful session of this flourishing Assembly. The gate receipts met all the expenses of the unusually fine program and a handsome amount was left in the treasury, to make some needed improvements, cancel some obligations, and plan for future work.

The president, J. R. Burks, was indefatigable in his efforts for success. Dr. W. L. Davidson, the superintendent of instruction, serving his fourth year in connection with the Assembly, planned for a splendid program and carried it through to success with his accustomed enthusiasm.

All of the departments of instruction were conducted as previously announced and were helpful to an unusual degree.

The platform talent included Frank Beard, Jas. S. Burdett, Pres. J. W. Hanchard, Dr. A. W. Lamar, Prof. E. B. Warman, Chaplain Lozier, Joseph Cook, Homer B. Sprague, James C. Ambrose, Jahu DeWitt Miller, ex-Congressman R. G. Horr, and others.

Recognition Day was impressively observed. Five graduates received their diplomas. The Class of 1898 was formed with many members and great interest was awakened in the work. The future of the Beatrice Assembly never seemed brighter.

BLACK HILLS, "The attendance was the best **SOUTH DAKOTA.** we ever had," is the report from the management of the Black Hills Assembly, held July 5-13, the leading officers of which are President E. E. Clough and Chancellor J. W. Hancher.

The schools of Bible study, of music, W. C. T. U. methods, and juvenile classes were conducted according to announcement and proved of great benefit and pleasure to the many students.

On Recognition Day there were the usual exercises. One graduate was present to receive a diploma. The chancellor of the Assembly made the address. During the session there were Round Table meetings at which very helpful talks were given by leaders in the work.

The platform speakers were the following: the Rev. B. Beal, Dr. F. Crane, Pres. G. Hindley, Dr. C. C. Fosby, and Dr. P. S. Merrill.

CENTRAL CHAUTAUQUA, The Central Chautauqua of **FREMONT, NEBRASKA.** Fremont, holding its session July 4-19, graduated twelve persons at its recent session. The arches and the golden gate were passed, and the address was delivered by the Rev. Frank Crow. A large Class of '98 was formed. At the Round Tables notes on English travel and English life and essays on the work of the past year formed leading features. The C. L. S. C. department, under the leadership of the Rev. G. M. Brown, the superintendent of the Assembly, proved of great inspiration to all connected with it. All the other departments of instruction were conducted as announced and met with general commendation. During the session there were the following speakers: Dr. S. W. Butler, J. G. Wooley, Dr. A. A. Wright, Charles Underhill, C. M. Ellenwood, Dr. T. Crooks, Dr. D. K. Tindall, and R. G. Horr.

CONNECTICUT VALLEY, The eighth annual **NORTHAMPTON,** session of the **MASSACHUSETTS.** Connecticut Valley Assembly convened July 17 and closed July 27. Dr. W. L. Davidson had been called to the superintendency and the splendid program which had been prepared, attracted from day to day the increasing crowds. Every expense of the Assembly was met and enough money remained in the treasury to meet the deficit of the previous year and inspire the management to plan for larger things at the next session.

The platform talent included Leon H. Vincent, the Hon. B. G. Northrop, the Hon. W. R. Sessions,

Chaplain J. H. Lozier, the Hon. Chas. Carleton Coffin, Dr. James E. Gilbert, S. M. Spedon, Dr. M. T. Whittaker, Frank R. Roberson, Prof. Chas. Lane, Dr. R. S. McArthur, and ex-Congressman R. G. Horr. Prof. J. E. Aborn had charge of the chorus.

An impressive Recognition service with six graduates awakened much interest in C. L. S. C. work. Large plans are being made for next year, with Dr. Davidson as superintendent.

CUMBERLAND VALLEY, Temperance Day, PENNSYLVANIA. Grand Army Day,

Educational Day, and Chautauqua Day, were among the special seasons celebrated at the Cumberland Valley Chautauqua. On the last mentioned one in the list all the usual exercises were carried out. Dr. Hurlbut delivered the address, and diplomas were given to four graduates. The leading questions of the day were discussed at the Round Table meetings.

The chief speakers were Col. H. B. Sprague, Col. G. W. Bain, the Hon. T. H. Mahon, J. W. Dean, J. S. Burdette, the Rev. T. F. Clark, and Prof. A. M. Hammers.

The Bible normal department was in charge of the Rev. J. W. Dean; the children's department was led by Mrs. F. P. Paxson.

The management, presided over by W. D. Means and having for superintendent, A. A. Line, pronounce this one of the best sessions ever held.

DEVIL'S LAKE, At this Assembly, whose leading officers are President H. F. Arnold and Superintendent Eugene May, the attendance during the session lasting from June 29 to July 16, was good, being three times larger than that of the previous year.

The classes in art, in elocution, physical culture, Latin and Greek, and music were conducted as announced in the program and all proved satisfactory. Two graduates received diplomas on Recognition Day, on which occasion the speakers were Prof. C. H. Clemmer, Dr. E. May, and W. J. Clapp. Interesting Round Tables met regularly.

The speakers were Dr. A. J. Fish, E. Anderson, Dr. Marshall, Prof. Bagley, Secretary Taggart of the Y. M. C. A., Prof. Dobbyn, H. B. Dean, J. H. Keeley, and Chieftain Ta-was-tah of the Indian school at Fort Totten. The address of the last was interpreted. He was accompanied by one hundred and fifty students.

INTERSTATE ASSEMBLY, A fine Class of '98 DETROIT LAKE, was formed at the MINNESOTA. Interstate Assembly

July 15-July 30, in which there were representatives from all prominent points between Chicago and Jamestown, N. D. On Recognition Day two graduates received diplomas. The day was observed after the usual manner, Mrs. A. C. Wilkinson, and Dr. C. M. Heard being the speakers. Good

Round Table meetings were held through the session.

The department work embracing Bible study, science, art, sociology, and music was all carried on by able instructors, and many interested students took advantage of the opportunity.

The platform speakers were the Revs. W. E. Gifford, C. B. Brecount, R. P. Herrick, R. H. Battey, P. W. Longfellow, C. W. Lawson, W. S. Cochrane, J. B. Hingeley, H. Withrow, S. H. Young, and J. M. Thoburn.

The leading officers were President V. N. Yergin, and Superintendent L. W. Squier.

KENTUCKY, In beautiful Woodland Park at LEXINGTON, Lexington, Ky., part of the old KENTUCKY. Henry Clay estate, the Kentucky Chautauqua Assembly held its eighth annual session from July 3 to July 13. The enthusiasm was intense and the social life charming. Both the city of Lexington and the state of Kentucky are earnestly in love with this educational enterprise and use every effort to make it a genuine success. The attendance was larger than ever before and an unusual sum remained in the treasury after all the expenses of the Assembly were met.

All of the well conducted department work attracted wide interest.

On the lecture platform appeared such talent as S. M. Spedon, Fred Emerson Brooks, ex-Governor Taylor, Prof. E. L. Warman, Dr. G. T. Dowling, Prof. Chas. Lane, C. E. Bolton, Joseph Cook, Homer B. Sprague, F. D. Losey, and others.

Dr. W. L. Davidson, for the third year, made the program and managed the platform. Joseph Cook gave the Recognition Day address, and six graduates received diplomas. A Class of 1898 was formed and much interest awakened for the future.

LAKE MADISON, The Lake Madison Assembly SOUTH DAKOTA. in session from July 3 to July 24, reports a most prosperous year and greater interest than was ever felt before, despite the fact that the great strike was at its height during the time of meeting. President J. H. Williamson, Supt. C. E. Hager, and all other members of the management, may well rejoice over so happy a condition.

All departments of instruction were carefully and conscientiously conducted and resulted in great good to all participating in them.

Three graduates passed through the golden gate on Recognition Day and received diplomas. The speaker of the day was the Rev. J. W. Hancher. A promising new class of readers was enlisted. The value of the C. L. S. C. course was one of the prominent subjects discussed at the Round Tables.

The Rev. A. A. Willits, Robert Nourse, Dr. E. L. Eaton, John Temple Graves, H. S. Renton, E. P. Elliott, Emma A. Cranmer, Helen M. Barker, Sam Jones, Dr. E. L. Parks, the Revs. S. H. Young and

J. M. Corley were among the speakers of the season.

LONG BEACH, "In spite of the strike, the hard CALIFORNIA times, the drouth, and all unfavorable circumstances," the Long Beach Assembly, "a distinctively Chautauqua Assembly," reports a most successful season. All classes did good work, the interest increasing from the beginning. The program of the departments as prepared was faithfully carried out, including that of Recognition Day, July 26, the last of the ten days' session. Dr. S. H. Weller was the speaker on this occasion. Sixteen graduates received diplomas. A large new class of C. L. S. C. readers was formed. Daily Round Table meetings were held.

Dr. Frost, Dr. Fletcher, the Revs. J. Q. A. Henry, G. T. Weaver, Prof. LeRoy Brown, Prof. A. J. Cook, Prof. E. Fabian, Miss N. Cuthbert, and Miss E. Ashmore were among those who addressed audiences from the platform. Among special features of the season was American Day, the exercises of which were designed to promote patriotism. Dr. S. H. Weller and Prof. G. R. Crow hold the two leading places in the board of management.

LONG ISLAND, The success of the Long Island **NEW YORK.** Assembly during its first session July 15-22, was such as to cause its managers to say, "This Chautauqua is bound to have a future." Daily Round Tables were held which awakened such interest as to lead to the addition of large numbers of C. L. S. C. readers to the new class.

Recognition Day, observed with all the accompanying details of golden gate, arches, flower girls, etc., proved a most encouraging occasion. Ten graduates received diplomas from Miss Teal. Dr. Frank Russell was the speaker of the occasion.

The leading officers of the Assembly are President N. W. Foster and Superintendent C. A. Teal.

An interesting popular program presented exercises which pleased the large audiences which gathered from day to day.

LONG PINE, The double office of president and **NEBRASKA.** superintendent of instruction in the Long Pine Assembly is held by the Rev. G. Hindley, who reports for the past season a very good attendance. It was the eighth in the history of the Assembly and continued from June 29 to July 10.

The educational departments were conducted according to previous arrangements and gave good satisfaction to all.

The usual Recognition Day observances were kept, Dr. F. Crane being the orator of the occasion.

The following is a partial list of the speakers during the session:

Ex-Gov. Robert W. Furnas, President J. W. Hancher, D.D., the Hon. Church Howe, Supt. A. K. Goudy, Dr. A. R. Thain, August Nash, the Rev. A. R. Julian, President George Hindley, J. R. Sov-

reign, G. M. W., Judge F. W. Norris, Prof. F. R. Roberson, Chas. Watts, Miss Etta Fitchie, and the Hon. John Sobieski.

NEBRASKA, The Nebraska Chautauqua Assembly **CRETE,** held its thirteenth annual session from July 3-14, under the presidency of W. E. Hardy. The superintendent was Dr. Willard Scott. The attendance is reported as seventy-five per cent greater than last year. The many departments of instruction, all ably manned by skilled instructors, deserve great praise for their efficient work.

This Chautauqua has not been lacking in a graduating class since its inauguration in 1882, and this year after the address by Dr. C. F. Kent, diplomas were bestowed upon five. A class of twelve members was organized for 1898.

Prominent among the lecturers of the season were Prof. W. E. Andrews, Lorado Taft, Charles F. Underhill, and Frank Beard.

NEW ENGLAND, The fifteenth annual **SOUTH FRAMINGHAM,** session of the New **MASSACHUSETTS.** England Chautauqua having for president the Hon. B. B. Johnson and for superintendent Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, was held from July 10-24 inclusive.

The talent engaged both in the departments of instruction and of entertainment was of the highest order. Lectures were given by Gen. Charles H. Grosvenor, Mrs. Julia Ward Howe, Mrs. Mary A. Livermore, Mrs. Susan S. Fessenden, Leon H. Vincent, Prof. Edward S. Morse, W. Jennings Demorest, the Rev. Robert MacDonald, the Hon. Elia S. Yovtcheff, the Rev. A. E. Winship, James Clement Ambrose, the Rev. Ismar J. Peritz, Prof. Charles Dennee, Dr. A. E. Miller, the Rev. William N. Brodbeck, the Rev. J. W. Hamilton, and many others.

All of the educational departments were well provided for and highly appreciated.

Bishop Vincent was the orator on Recognition Day, on which occasion nearly forty graduates were presented with diplomas. A new Class of '98 was formed, and the Class of '97 is reported as a strong one. Daily Round Tables added greatly to the interest and profit of the session.

OCEAN CITY, The seventh annual session of **NEW JERSEY.** The Chautauqua Assembly of Ocean City was held on July 25, 26, and 27. The attendance was good, the weather fine and the program attractive. The officers at whose head was President C. B. Ogden, who also served as superintendent, were all present and were much encouraged with the hopeful prospects of the future Assemblies. From the opening till the close, every session was more satisfactory and interesting than the leaders had anticipated.

The first day was designated Science Day, the second Bible Day, and the third C. L. S. C. Day.

On the last named, all the usual exercises were observed, one graduate being present.

The platform speakers were Dr. C. Dolly, the Revs. E. Gifford, W. Davis, G. Ireland, L. O. Manchester, and W. MacMullen.

OCEAN GROVE, President E. H. Stokes and NEW JERSEY. Superintendent B. B. Loomis were the presiding officers at the tenth session of the Ocean Grove Assembly, held July 10-20. The attendance is reported as better than in any former year. General enthusiasm regarding the work of all the educational departments is freely expressed.

There were twenty-three C. L. S. C. graduates present to listen to the Recognition address delivered by Bishop Vincent. All the usual ceremonies were held. A goodly number of persons registered as members of the Class of '98. The Round Table meetings were attractive and profitable to all, especially to the C. L. S. C. readers.

Among the popular speakers were Bishop Vincent, Dr. G. K. Morris, Dr. J. B. Brady, Peter Von Finkelstein, Prof. R. G. Moulton, Dr. C. H. Payne, and the Rev. S. E. Young.

OTTAWA, A camp of two thousand, the largest KANSAS. ever assembled at that place; the average daily attendance as great as ever reached before; and the arrangements made by so many for a return next year, all tell a wonderful story of the sixteenth session of the Ottawa Assembly, held June 18-29. A floating debt which had been accumulating for the past four years was entirely paid off. Better than all this was the expression of appreciation on the part of all in attendance for the good program provided in all departments. The president and superintendent were Dr. D. C. Milner and Dr. J. L. Hurlbut.

Round Table meetings conducted by the superintendent were one of the most attractive features of the session. A class of sixteen graduates was present on C. L. S. C. Day, on which occasion Dr. J. L. Hurlbut and Col. F. W. Parker were the speakers. A new class of readers for the year '98 was formed.

Some of the speakers were Drs. McIntyre, Copeland, Col. Parker, Mrs. Cutt, Gov. Hoyt, Presidents Snow, Fairchild, Taylor and Quayle, Mrs. Noble Prentice, Mrs. St. John and Miss Colman.

ROCKY MOUNTAIN, Great encouragement regarding all phases of the Rocky Mountain Assembly was felt by all interested in it during the last session held from July 11 to August 1. There seemed a decided turn of the tide in favor of all things connected with the Assembly. President F. M. Priestly and superintendent W. F. Steele, and the rest of the management have great cause for rejoicing, and genuine enthusiasm in the cause has been kindled.

The departments of instruction were well attended and were universally commended.

The Rev. J. D. Rankin was the chief speaker on Recognition Day. In his audience were five C. L. S. C. graduates, upon whom diplomas were conferred. There were several signers for the Class of '98. The Round Tables devoted most of their time to the discussion of the economic questions of the day.

Dr. A. B. Hyde, President W. F. Slocum, the Revs. C. B. Spencer, J. D. Drake, D. L. Rader, J. Duncan, and F. E. Smiley were among those who addressed audiences.

SAN MARCOS, The tenth annual Assembly of TEXAS. the San Marcos Chautauqua opened July 4 and closed July 22. The attendance was not quite so large as in some years gone by, but financially and otherwise the season was one of the best, for after paying all expenses there was a cash balance on hand which in a year of such stringency is very encouraging.

The following speakers appeared on the program: Ex-Gov. R. B. Hubbard, the Hon. H. W. J. Ham, the Hon. W. A. Shaw, the Hon. J. M. Dunn, Prof. F. D. Losey, the Revs. H. M. DuBose, J. W. Hill, H. D. Knickerbocker, Dr. W. N. Scott, Dr. A. W. Lamar, Homer T. Wilson, Mrs. L. T. Campbell, the Misses C. Belvin, J. L. Woodward, and M. Dove.

The Rev. S. B. Callaway was in charge of the C. L. S. C. and furnished daily Round Table lectures. Recognition Day was duly observed and two graduates passed the golden gate. A good circle will be organized at once to carry on the regular courses of reading as mapped out by the officers of the C. L. S. C.

President E. P. Reynolds and Superintendent H. M. DuBose express themselves as being more encouraged at the present outlook than at any other time in the history of the pioneer Assembly of the Southwest.

SPIRIT LAKE, At Spirit Lake Assembly, which NEW YORK. held its second session July 12-25, all, from the first, felt the impulse of success in the very air.

Five C. L. S. C. readers having finished the course were present on Recognition Day to receive their well earned diplomas. The address was given by Dr. T. E. Flemming. Forty-two new members joined the Class of '98. At the daily Round Tables there were spirited discussions of timely topics; the work of the past year was reviewed, and that of the coming year previewed.

The educational departments were all well patronized and the work was efficiently carried on. The chief officers of the Assembly were President F. W. Barron and Superintendent E. C. Whalen.

Dr. A. A. Willits, Dr. Robert Nourse, the Hon. Ignatius Donnelly, Dr. A. J. Palmer, the Rev. Sam Jones, John Temple Graves, T. J. Beauchamp, Fred E. Brooks, H. S. Renton, E. P. Elliott, and others spoke from the platform.

TEXAS, "A new lease of life" is the result of the past season's work for the Texas Assembly. After struggling along under heavy indebtedness for several years, the pressure was released, and the session closed with bright prospects for a long and useful future. At the head of the new management are Judge T. P. Hughes as president, and Dr. C. C. Cady as superintendent.

The chief lecturers were the Rev. W. B. McClelland, F. D. Losey, the Hon. R. B. Hubbard, Dr. H. M. DuBose, Prof. W. M. Chandler, the Rev. J. C. Midgett, and the Hon. H. W. J. Ham.

The customary program for Recognition Day was observed, a new class of C. L. S. C. readers was formed, Round Table meetings were held, and everything put in readiness for effective future work.

WASECA, July 11-27 were dates enclosing the MINNESOTA. tenth session of the Waseca Assembly. President James Quirk and Superintendent H. C. Jennings are rejoicing with the rest of the management over a year which has been exceeded but once in attendance.

That the well equipped departments of instruction were appreciated was attested by the number of persons availing themselves of the opportunities offered in them.

At the Round Tables the C. L. S. C. work done and to be done was discussed, class organizations were effected, and tourist conferences were con-

ducted. A Class of '98 was formed which has continued to grow in numbers since the close of the Assembly. The Rev. G. M. Brown, field secretary of the C. L. S. C., made the Recognition Day address. Eight graduates were present, and all the customary observances were held.

The lecturers were Dr. W. H. Crawford, Fred E. Brooks, Prof. Charles Lane, Dr. A. A. Willits, H. S. Renton, Bishop C. H. Fowler, the Hon. W. H. Eustis, E. P. Elliott, T. McCleary, Dr. A. J. Palmer, Chaplain Lozier, John Temple Graves, and others.

WATERLOO, Four graduates and a Class of '98

IOWA. formed was the harvest of Recognition Day at the Waterloo Assembly. The usual program was followed and Dr. H. C. Jennings gave the oration. The Round Tables, also under the direction of Dr. Jennings, resulted in great good to all C. L. S. C. readers and awakened interest regarding the work in many outsiders.

From the platform audiences were addressed by Dr. A. A. Willits, Dr. A. J. Palmer, Dr. Robert Nourse, Dr. T. McCleary, Joseph Cook, Sam P. Jones, the Hon. J. J. Ingalls, Dr. F. H. Sanderson, and the Hon. C. H. Blackburn.

The department work was well represented both in instructors and attendants.

The directors, Dr. O. J. Fullerton being president and F. J. Sessions superintendent, look upon the results of the session as most encouraging and think grand work is to be done in the near future.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

A book which will rank as a classic in point of fine execution and true literary taste is Stopford Brooke's "Tennyson."* It is an earnest attempt, by one well equipped, to make a true critical estimate of the spirit and achievement of this great poet. Possessing the independence of thought and the keen discrimination which characterize a true critic, he distributes praise and blame with impartiality, yet avoiding undue didacticism. The book is rich in thoughtful comment and is just and appreciative throughout.

"The Memoirs of an Old German Gallant," "A German Farmer of the Thirteenth Century," "Childhood in Mediæval Literature," are among the fascinating subjects treated in Prof. McLaughlin's "Studies in Mediæval Life and Literature."† They show an alertness of thought, a genial temper, and a broad

knowledge which, added to a winsome style, make an altogether delightful book.

A collection from Mr. Ruskin's writings* with a view especially to show his ideas on social questions and ethics as applied to life is essentially a strong book. The editor's introductory interpretations and annotations will be helpful to the student.

The character and compass of Goethe's genius, his limitations, his religious doctrine, his contemporaries, are treated in scholarly fashion in a little volume † which the author hopes will assist in domesticating this great German among us,—a sound service indeed.

Prof. Gummere's compilation of Old English ballads ‡ is representative in range and quality, and shows the careful work of a thorough student of this class of early literature. An introduction, notes, and

* Tennyson. His Art and Relation to Modern Life. By Stopford A. Brooke, M. A. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 509 pp.

† Studies in Mediæval Life and Literature. By Edward Tompkins McLaughlin. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 288 pp.

* Essays and Letters selected from the Writings of John Ruskin. By Mrs. Lois G. Hufford. Boston: Ginn and Company. 441 pp.

† Goethe Reviewed after Sixty Years. By J. R. Seeley. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 169 pp. \$1.00.

‡ Old English Ballads. Selected and edited by Francis B.

a glossary add to the value of the interesting volume.

That versatile critic, Francis Jeffrey, is now-a-days too little known and it is with pleasure that a book of extracts from his essays* is noted. The editor has limited them to essays on literature, and they are well chosen to show his style and methods, and to give examples of what was considered the best literary criticism at that time. A well executed portrait of Jeffrey forms the frontispiece.

Selections from both the poetry and prose of Thomas Gray are seldom found in one volume, and to meet that want Dr. Phelps sends out a little book† carefully edited and annotated, with a short biographical sketch and portrait. Gray's letters are the best representatives of the best period of epistolary style and the humor and sprightliness of the extracts here given will be a surprise to those who know him only through his "Elegy" and the few other oft-quoted poems.

Some of the best passages in Coleridge's prose have been made accessible in a convenient form by Prof. Beers,‡ a large proportion of the selections belonging to the department of literary criticism. The Introduction is not the least valuable part of the admirable little book.

A convenient book of reference or for use in schools is the "Hand-Book of American Literature."|| The space covered is from the colonial writers to the present time. There are numerous half-tone portraits and the test questions at the close of each chapter are an interesting feature.

Social and Economic Studies.

Many thoughtful lessons gathered from his travels through the Orient, Dr. Trumbull presents in a valuable work.‡ In those conservative lands where the present day customs are the same as those of far away ages, an observant mind finds explanations of many things that before seemed hard to understand. Especially do Bible difficulties lessen when the accounts are reset in their native surroundings; and on this line of Biblical transposition the greatest value of this fine, helpful work lies.

In "The Ills of the South"|| an unflinching study is made into the conditions operating against the de-

Gummere. 380 pp.—* Selections from the Essays of Francis Jeffrey. Edited with Introduction and Notes. By Lewis E. Gates. 213 pp.—† Selections from the Poetry and Prose of Thomas Gray. Edited by William Lyon Phelps. 179 pp. Boston: Ginn and Company.

‡ Selections from the Prose Writings of Samuel Taylor Coleridge. Edited with Introduction and Notes by Henry A. Beers. New York: Henry Holt and Company. 146 pp.

|| American Authors. By Mildred Rutherford. Atlanta: The Franklin Printing and Publishing Co. 750 pp.

‡ Studies in Oriental Social Life. By H. Clay Trumbull. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles and Company. 437 pp. \$2.50.

|| The Ills of the South. By Charles H. Otken, LL.D. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 277 pp.

velopment which ought to be made in that part of the country. In the "lien system" of carrying on business—which like a huge vampire drains the life from all legitimate callings, is found the greatest evil. This credit-method, generally practiced, of settling all store bills at the time of the crop gathering and then paying credit prices many per cent higher than cash prices, clearly shows what hinders financial prosperity. The book gives a good accurate study of negro character and life, and advocates as the best way out of the troublesome race question, the colonization of the negroes in Africa.

"Sketches of Mexico" * is the result of much careful inquiry into all available sources of information regarding the origin, the history, the nature, and the life of the people who live in our neighboring republic. Scholarship, travel, opportunity, and natural ability all unite in lending aid to the production of this excellent book.

"The Art of Living in Australia," † while written primarily with the object of bringing about a change in the food habits of the people of that land, gives much information regarding their social life and their economic measures. A land differing widely in many ways from other lands, and proving often an exception to universal law, it offers many points of interest which have been happily seized upon by the author.

Professor Huxley's Works.

In the new uniform series of the writings of Professor Huxley all persons will find a handsome and substantial addition to their libraries. Firmly bound, in good type, on heavy paper with wide margins, the books in external appearance are very pleasing. Professor Huxley is a unique writer. Of most scholarly attainments and possessing that trend of mind which will allow him to pass over no technicality however trivial it may seem, he yet has a certain freedom and dash and brightness which prove very attractive to those who cannot grasp the deeper and strictly scientific meaning. There is a fine instance of this peculiar style in the preface to "Man's Place in Nature." ‡ The strong, impulsive, witty nature of the author shows clearly in his humorous attempt to justify himself against the attacks on the ground of heresy made upon some parts of this work when first published. Most of the essays composing the volume are well known, having been published in the years 1863-'65, and '71. The last one, written in 1890, treats of "The Aryan Question and Prehistoric Man."—In "Discourses Biological and Geological," || appear a series of popular lectures delivered from 1861 to 1876. While treating on scientific

* Sketches of Mexico. By the Rev. John W. Butler, D.D. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis. 316 pp. \$1.00.

† The Art of Living in Australia. By Philip E. Muskett. London: Eyre and Spottiswoode. 431 pp.

‡ Man's Place in Nature. 328 pp.—|| Discourses Biolog-

matters they are all clothed in such simple and attractive language as to charm the general reader. It is a matter of admiration that the great results of science can be presented in so easy and pleasing a style.—A work more technical in its character, entering more deeply into speculative thought and discriminating analysis, is his "Hume with Helps to the Study of Berkeley."* The merely biographical parts, however, are simply and effectively told.—The opening article in the volume entitled "Methods and Results,"† which is also a collection of essays, is an autobiography, and is full of interest. One is forcibly reminded by it of Dickens' "David Copperfield." The rest of the book is best described in the author's own words: the articles "set forth the results which, in my judgment, are attained by the application of the 'Method' of Descartes to the investigation of problems of widely various kinds; in the right solution of which we are all deeply interested. Hence I have given the volume the title of 'Methods and Results.'"

Religious. A valuable work in the series of Old Testament Heroes is that devoted to the life of Joshua.‡ The spiritual meaning of the book bearing his name, as interpreted by the author, is plainly disclosed. Persons, places, events, are used as types of the true kingdom into which God has promised to lead all of His children. And with this interpretation a striking analogy is found to exist between this book and that of Ephesians. The whole work is one characterized by deep spirituality. It is a strong and beautiful character study full of plain truths which appeal directly to the reader.—Expositions of the Epistle to the Hebrews by the same author bear the title of "The Way into the Holiest."§ The thoughtful, reverent studies of the Divine Word contained in it will open new depths of meaning, all undiscovered before, to readers who seek its pages; and will help them to realize at their true value the things which make for man's eternal welfare.

In "Outline Studies in the Books of the Old Testament"§ the title sufficiently indicates the scope of the work. The key word in each book, its leading characters and events, its design, its peculiarities, its difficulties, are all examined, and defined in a concise and helpful manner for busy people.

Beautiful, practical lessons for the benefit of aspiring Christians are drawn from Bible events, and very briefly, tersely, and impressively rendered in the volume entitled "Broken Bread."¶

ical and Geological. 388 pp.—* Hume with Helps to the Study of Berkeley. 319 pp.—† Methods and Results. 430 pp. \$1.25 each. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‡ Joshua and the Land of Promise. By F. B. Meyer, B. A. 210 pp. \$1.00. —|| The Way into the Holiest. By F. B. Meyer, B. A. 277 pp. \$1.00.—§ Outline Studies in the Books of the Old Testament. By W. G. Moorehead, D.D. 363 pp.—

¶ Broken Bread. By Mr. and Mrs. Geo. C. Needham. 224 pp. \$1.00. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company.

A book to please one's fancy, to satisfy his literary taste, to awaken deep thought, and to stir the higher nature is "The Religion of a Literary Man."** The author divides humanity into two classes: those who have the spiritual sense and those who have not. To the former only does the true meaning of life reveal itself. Clear, sharp questions are propounded regarding many of the fundamental tenets of belief and answered in a consistent, common-sense manner. If in letter some of the Christian doctrines seem to suffer attack, in spirit, the position taken by the author is in accord with that of all religious training.

The volume of "Stoics and Saints"† is made up of a collection of lectures on "the later heathen moralists and on some aspects of the mediæval church." Beginning with a study of Socrates, whose lifelong aim was to make men wise, it passes in critical review the different schools of philosophy and the different religious sects down to the times of John Wyclif and the dawn of the Reformation. The author sees in the development of philosophy, the thread of which he keeps clear and distinct, the agent which was to the world in general what the law was to the Jews, the schoolmaster to bring men to Christ.

Mr. Findlay's book on "The Epistles of Paul the Apostle"‡ is an excellent reference work for all Bible students. From these epistles there is gathered a connected account of the Apostle's life; the chronology and topography of his missionary journeys are fixed; and each epistle is critically examined as to its date and occasion, its character and scope and genuineness, and is followed by a clear analysis and by well conceived paraphrases.

A happy idea put into practice by Dr. Stall was that of preaching "five minute object sermons to children" before the regular Sunday morning service, and a useful book || the same printed sermons make. Plain lessons tending to inspire the little ones with resolutions to live noble lives are embodied in novel and attractive form which cannot fail to impress young minds. Besides thus rendering the Gospel attractive to the young the author suggests to other ministers a means of drawing the young to the churches.

A volume of wholesome addresses to young people is entitled "The Aim of Life."§ With such teaching as it contains engrafted upon the character of the youth the future of humanity would be safe and bright with all nobleness.

—

*The Religion of a Literary Man. By Richard Le Gallienne. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. 119 pp. \$1.00.

† Stoics and Saints. By James Baldwin Brown, B.A. New York: Macmillan and Co. 296 pp. \$2.50.

‡ The Epistles of Paul the Apostle By George G. Findlay, B.A. New York: Wilbur B. Ketcham. 289 pp. \$1.50.

|| Five Minute Object Sermons to Children. By Sylvanus Stall, D.D. New York: Funk and Wagnalls. 253 pp. \$1.00.

§ The Aim of Life. By Philip Stafford Moxom. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 300 pp.

A very clear, comprehensive, and in every way satisfactory work is Dr. Dunning's history of "Congregationalists in America."* To all interested in this religious sect and to all seeking any knowledge concerning it, the book will be found a full storehouse containing all obtainable information regarding the subject. Special chapters are written by several different leaders in this denomination and there are two interesting introductions by Dr. R. S. Storrs and Major-General O. O. Howard.

"The Interwoven Gospels and Gospel Harmony"† gives in continuous form the Bible account of the life of Christ. By simply rearranging the connection, the biography as it is contained in the Revised Version of the New Testament is made to read in chronological order. Where the same events have been recorded by different Evangelists the most complete account is the one chosen to enter into the regular narrative, the others appearing in fine print on the opposite page. The carefully executed work is one of especial value to all Bible teachers. It contains maps, foot-notes, and useful tables.

A work following the same general scope and carried out after a quite similar method as the above, is Dr. Withrow's "Harmony of the Gospels."‡ Where different renderings of the same event by two or more of the Evangelists are given, they are placed in parallel columns.

Dr. Parker's inquiry as a Bible reader, made in his work, "None Like It,"§ is not "What did the prophet mean?" but, "What did the Holy Ghost mean when He spake through the prophet? The prophet is dead; the Spirit lives, and He must be His own interpreter." The quotation gives the trend and the scope of the work, which, in these days of critical assaults upon the inspiration of the Bible, will come as a reassuring message to troubled souls. Leave the difficulties; feed upon Christ; and in time all will be made plain, are the strong teachings of this faith-stimulating, scholarly, and simple book.

The sixth volume in the Library of Biblical and Theological Literature, edited by Dr. G. R. Crooks and Bishop John F. Hurst, treats, as does the fifth, of "Systematic Theology."§ Christology, soteriology, salvation, and eschatology, form the leading themes of the work, and they are each subdivided so as to present all phases in which they appeal to the human mind. It is a very exhaustive, discriminating, and logical study, designed more especially for ministers and students of theology.

"The Student's Commentary on the Book of Ec-

* Congregationalists in America. By Rev. Albert E. Dunning, D. D. New York: J. A. Hill & Co. 552 pp. \$2.75.

† The Interwoven Gospels and Gospel Harmony. Compiled by Rev. William Pittenger. New York: Fords, Howard & Hulbert. 245 pp. \$1.00.

‡ A Harmony of the Gospels. Arranged by W. H. Withrow, D. D., F. R. S. C. 194 pp. 50 cents.—None Like It. By Joseph Parker. 271 pp. \$1.25.—§ Systematic Theology. By

clesiastes"* contains the Hebrew text, a free metrical rendering of the text, a rhythmical translation, a close study of the work as a whole, the authorized and the revised versions with copious explanatory and vindicatory notes. So treated, this in general little understood book becomes replete with new meaning. During his connection of years' standing with Drew Theological Seminary, Dr. Strong annually took classes over this book very carefully and minutely and so became thoroughly the master of that which is presented.

"Footprints of the Jesuits"† is a word of warning written to awaken people to what is claimed to be a danger threatening to undermine civil institutions; the plotting of the Jesuits again to unite church and state. Believing in papal infallibility, they also deem the pontiff endowed with such spiritual sovereignty as to entitle him to make the laws for the government of society and the conduct of individuals everywhere. The Italians are looked upon as heretics for having separated state from church. In the course of his work the author gives a full history of Jesuitism, and shows how in many points it is at variance with true Roman Catholicism. The latter belief he carefully exempts from his censure.

Those Christians who are seeking a satisfactory reply to the question, "Am I saved from sin?" will find much help and comfort in Dr. Stackpole's work on "The Evidence of Salvation."‡ Very judiciously he treats the question, carefully laying his premises and logically deducing conclusions. He warns all against the danger of resting satisfied with false evidence assuring them that to the true child of God there is no uncertainty. How to reach this positive knowledge is the aim of the book to tell, which it does in convincing manner.

Rev. John Miley, D. D., LL. D. Vol. II. 337 pp. \$3.00.—
* The Student's Commentary on the Book of Ecclesiastes. By James Strong, S. T. D., LL. D. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis. 144 pp. \$2.00.

† The Footprints of the Jesuits. By R. W. Thompson. 509 pp. \$1.75.—‡ The Evidence of Salvation. By Rev. Everett S. Stackpole, D. D. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company. 115 pp. 50 cents.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Bible Studies: The International Sunday School Lessons. By Geo. F. Pentecost, D. D. 415 pp.—Foreign Missions After a Century. By Rev. James S. Dennis, D. D. 368 pp. \$1.50. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company.

The Thoughts of the Emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. Long's translation. Edited by Edwin Ginn. Boston: Ginn and Company. 213 pp.

A Broader Christianity. By Philo Hall. New York: Lovell Brothers Company. 52 pp.

Jesus the Nazarene. By Rev. C. J. Kephart, A. M. Dayton, O.: W. J. Shuey. 80 pp. 50 cts.

The Wearied Christ and Other Sermons. By Alexander MacLaran, B. A., D. D. London: Alexander and Shephard. 314 pp. \$1.50.

Epworth Guards, a Manual for the Military Division of the Epworth League. By Rev. N. J. Harkness, Ph. M. 74 pp. 25 cts.—The Organic Law of the Methodist Episcopal Church. By Hiram L. Sibley. 93 pp. 50 cts. New York: Hunt & Eaton, Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis.

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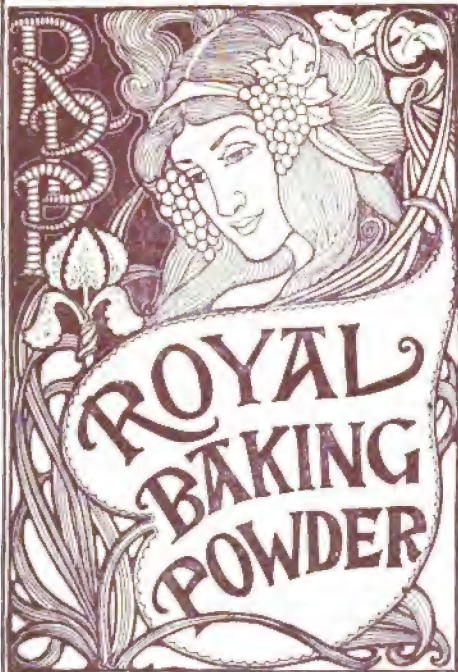
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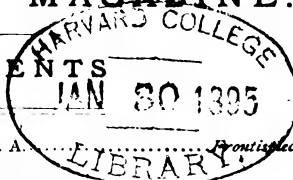
VOL. XX.

NOVEMBER, 1894.

No. 2.

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE.

CONTENTS



Major General O. O. Howard, U. S. A.	<i>Frontispiece.</i>
REQUIRED READING	
Development of Steamships in the Nineteenth Century.....	<i>Lieutenant Commander Uriel Sabree, U. S. N.</i> 131
Social Life in England in the Eighteenth Century.....	<i>John Ashton.</i> 138
The Legislature of the German Empire.....	<i>Professor John W. Burgess, LL.D.</i> 145
Modern Agriculture in France.....	<i>H. Blerzy.</i> 151
Sunday Readings.....	<i>Selected by Bishop Vincent.</i> 157
The Newspaper Press of the United States.....	<i>Franklin Matthews.</i> 162
The Germany of To-Day.....	<i>Sidney Whitman.</i> 166
The Value of Geological Science to Man.....	<i>Professor N. S. Shaler, Sc. D.</i> 170

GENERAL READING	
Blossoms.....	<i>Paul Erwin.</i> 174
6,000 Tons of Gold. A STORY. (Concluded.) Chapter XIII. The Verdict of the World's Wise Men of Finance. Chapter XIV. A Burial at Sea.....	<i>Kenzie Eton Kirkwood.</i> 175
Leaders of the House of Representatives.....	<i>E. Jay Edwards.</i> 186
The Growth of Australia.....	<i>E. Reyer.</i> 193
The Coloring of the Grapes.....	<i>Sarah Knowles Bolton.</i> 197
Major General O. O. Howard, U. S. A.	<i>As interviewed by Herbert Johnston.</i> 198

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE

How Should Parents Regard Children during Courtship?	<i>Lucy Barnard Cope.</i> 203
The "Best Man." A STORY.....	<i>J. Edmund V. Cooke.</i> 204
A Woman Pharmacist.....	<i>Carlotta Perry.</i> 209
The Growth and Care of the Hair.....	<i>Dr. E. Clasen.</i> 211
Afternoon Receptions in Washington.....	<i>Mrs. S. F. Parsons.</i> 213

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK

Do Women Read the Newspapers? The Communion Cup; The Mikado of Japan.....	217
---	-----

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION

The Concentration of the U. S. Army; Work of the New York State Constitutional Convention; Mormon Morals and Philosophy; The National Irrigation Congress; Death of Five Eminent Men; The Comte de Paris, Professor von Helmholtz, Dr. David Swing, Andrew Gregg Curtin, Oliver Wendell Holmes; Politics and the American Protective Association; The Chino-Japanese War; Work of Nineteen Political Conventions; Withdrawal of the Louisiana Sugar Planters from the Democratic Party; New York Police Investigation; Anti-Lynching Movement; What Unitarians Believe; The Minister's Duty to the Social Fabric; General Booth in the United States; The Revival of Business; Summary of News.....	219
---	-----

C. L. S. C. WORK

C. L. S. C. Outline and Programs.....	234
C. L. S. C. Notes and Word Studies.....	235
Questions and Answers.....	240
The Question Table.....	242
The C. L. S. C. Classes.....	244
Local Circles.....	246
The Summer Assemblies for 1894.....	249
Talk about Books 253	
The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle—What it Has Done for Some of its Members.....	258
Special C. L. S. C. Courses.....	260
The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.....	262
The Chautauqua Correspondence College.....	264
How to Keep Abreast of the Times: Announcement of the Chautauqua Current History Course.....	276

DR. THEODORE L. FLOOD, Editor,
MEADVILLE, PA.

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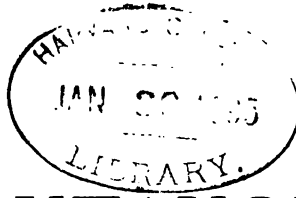
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MAJOR GENERAL O. O. HOWARD, U. S. A.

From his latest photograph.

See page 198.



THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

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NOVEMBER, 1894.

No. 2.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

DEVELOPMENT OF STEAMSHIPS IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

BY LIEUTENANT COMMANDER URIEL SEBREE.

OF THE UNITED STATES NAVY.

ALTHOUGH experimental boats had been propelled by steam previous to the beginning of this century, the first practicable steamboat, the *Clermont*, was built by Robert Fulton in 1807. She was built to run on the Hudson, and originally was like a canal boat. The engine was uncovered and there were no wheel guards. She was 133 feet long, 18 feet beam, and 160 tons. Her speed was 5 miles an hour. Soon afterwards she was rebuilt, enlarged, and a cabin with berths for passengers added. In the next year, the *Clermont* and two other boats built by Fulton and Livingston were making regular trips to Albany, the time being 32 hours and the fare seven dollars.

As showing the development in steamboats for inland waters compare the *Clermont* of 1807, with the *Priscilla*, the latest Sound steamer, built of steel, 423 feet long, over 5,000 tons, with a speed of over 20 knots, and accommodation for 1,000 passengers. The *Comet*, a boat 40 feet long, with a 3 horse power engine, was built at Port Glasgow on the Clyde in 1812 by Henry Bell, and was the first practicable steamboat in Europe. With the *Clermont* and the *Comet* steam navigation may be said to have begun. Fulton's successful trial with the *Clermont* preceded Col. John Stevens of Hoboken with the *Phoenix* by only a few days. In 1809

R. L. Stevens, his son, took the *Phoenix* to Philadelphia by sea, and was thus the first to begin steam navigation on the ocean.

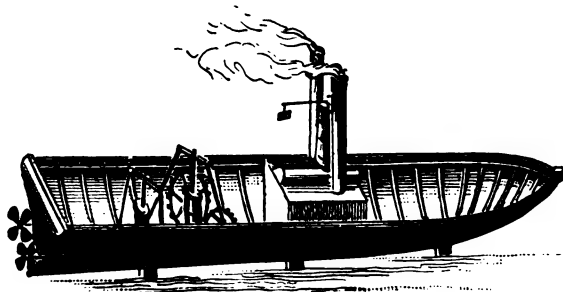
In 1811 the first steamboat for the western rivers was built at Pittsburg. She made a successful trip to New Orleans, passing New Madrid, Missouri, about the time of the earthquake which destroyed that place. In 1815 boats were making the trip from New Orleans to Louisville in 25 days, which was about one fourth the time required by the keel boats previously in use. By 1853 this time had been reduced to 4 days and 9 hours. Steamboats were running on the Great Lakes, the St. Lawrence and other rivers in America, and in England, Scotland, and Ireland before the time of the *Savannah*, the first steamer that ever crossed the Atlantic.

The *Savannah* was built at New York as a sailing ship. An engine was put in her with paddle wheels that could be taken in on deck. After making the voyage to Savannah, she sailed for Liverpool May 26, 1819, and made the voyage in 25 days, being under steam 18 days. She afterwards went to St. Petersburg and back to Savannah, the engine was taken out, and she was used for a sailing vessel.

In 1819 a steamer called the *Robert Fulton* made regular voyages to Cuba and New Orleans but she did not pay. In 1820 steam-

ers were running at sea between Leith and London, and in 1825 the *Enterprise*, a steamer of 470 tons, made the voyage to Calcutta in 113 days, being 64 days under steam.

Although there were many steamers on the rivers and coasts of America and Europe,



STEVENS' TWIN SCREW BOAT. 1805.

there seems to have been no thought of regular steam navigation for the ocean until 1832, when the subject began to be agitated by Junius Smith, an American who had lived many years in London. In a letter written in 1844 to Dr. D. D. Field, the father of the late Cyrus W. Field, Smith gives an interesting account of the difficulties he met in attempting "to establish a system of navigation new in itself against the combined interests of commercial and nautical men." The duke of Wellington, in answer to a letter from Smith, replied, "I will give no countenance to any scheme which has for its object a change in the established system of the country."

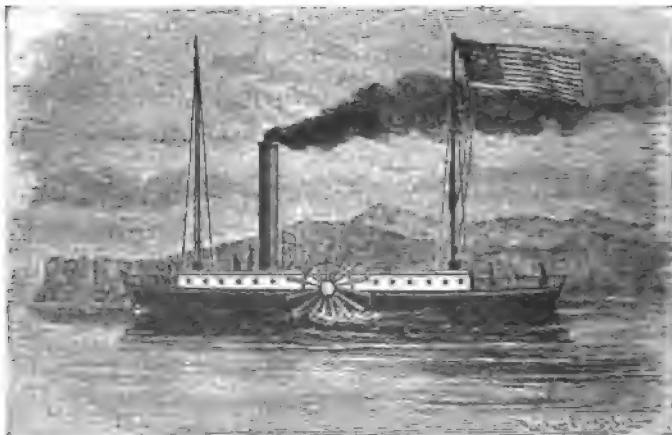
But the company was formed and in 1837 the keel of the *British Queen* was laid. On account of the failure of the firm who were building her machinery, her completion was delayed more than a year. The company chartered the *Sirius*, a steamer of 700 tons, and despatched her to New York from Cork, April 4, 1838. The *Great Western*, a steamer of 1,350 tons built for the Great Western Company, sailed from Bristol April 8 and arrived at New York on the 23rd, a few hours after the *Sirius*.

With the successful voyages of these two vessels, steam navigation across the Atlantic was no longer an experiment, but a plain matter of fact. The service may be said to have been firmly established by 1840, which was about the time of the introduction of the screw propeller and the beginning of the construction of ocean steamers of iron. It was also in this year that the first permanently successful line was established by Samuel Cunard, their first regular steamer being the *Britannia*, which sailed from Liverpool Friday, July 4, and made the passage to Boston in 14 days and 18 hours. An interesting fact tending to show the advance made in steamers

and their appliances is that in July, 1894, the last and largest Atlantic cable was successfully laid from Ireland to Newfoundland in 14 days, or in less than the time of the voyage of the first Cunarder.

A noted vessel built about this time was the *Great Britain*. She was designed by Brunel, who afterwards built the *Great Eastern*. The *Great Britain* was very large for her time, 322 feet long, 3,400 tons, and built of iron, and although designed for paddle wheels, before completion was changed to a screw. After running as a steamer until 1876, she was changed to a sailing vessel and at last accounts was a coal hulk at the Falkland Islands.

The invention of the screw propeller is generally ascribed to Captain John Ericsson,



THE "CLERMONT." 1807.

but while he was the first to apply it successfully he no more invented it than did Fulton invent the steamboat. Both utilized principles and devices that were known and had been used by experimenters before. Fulton's success with the steamboat, as Prof. Thurston says, "was a commercial success

screw steamer in 1837. He invited the lords of the admiralty to take an excursion in tow of his boat, and although the little steamer made 10 miles an hour he received no encouragement. The objection one of the admiralty urged was, "Even if the propeller had the power of propelling a vessel it would



THE "SIRIUS." 1838.

purely." And the same may be said of Ericsson with the screw propeller. In 1805 Col. Stevens had not only tried the screw, but had built a small boat with twin screws, and it was lately said by Col. A. E. Stevens that the fact that there was not enough water to Albany to make the screw boat of 1804 commercially successful "put off the practical application of the screw to navigation some thirty or forty years." But the many advantages of the screw over the paddle wheel on the ocean insured its final adoption, and it is doubtful if there are any ocean-going steamships being built at the present time with paddle wheels. For rivers, inland waters, and shoal harbors there are still paddle wheel steamers, but they are for special service.

Ericsson, in England, experimented with the screw as early as 1833 and built a small

be found altogether useless in practice, because the power being applied at the stern it would be absolutely impossible to make the vessel steer." After building a small steamer 70 feet long with a spiral propeller for Captain Stockton of our navy, which crossed the Atlantic under sail, Captain Ericsson came to New York in 1839, and designed in 1841 the *Princeton*, the first man-of-war fitted with a screw propeller. The *Vandalia*, the first screw vessel ever built for business purposes, was designed by Ericsson in 1841, and built at Oswego, N. Y., for use on the lakes. There were other claimants to the invention of the screw. Charles Petit Smith of England took a patent in 1836 a few weeks before Ericsson, and his propeller was tried on a large scale in 1839.

Iron for the hulls of river steamers had been used as early as 1820, but its general

use for ocean steamers began after the building of the *Great Britain*. By 1870, over 90 per cent of the steamers built in Great Britain were of iron. The slow development of the iron industry and the great supply of

country were the cruisers *Chicago*, *Atlanta*, *Boston*, and *Dolphin*, commenced in 1883. At present, practically all ocean-going steamers are of steel, except small vessels, which are still of wood, used for whaling, sealing, and other special objects.

With the use of iron, it became practicable to divide the vessel into water-tight compartments by bulkheads.¹ These had been used in wooden vessels, in some cases, especially those engaged in arctic work, as early as 1830, but with iron and steel vessels their use has become general. Now



TRANSATLANTIC PASSENGER STEAMER "ETRURIA." 1885.

splendid ship timber in our country delayed the change here. Some vessels were built of iron here, notably the man-of-war *Michigan*, for service on the lakes, and she is now, after fifty years in commission, with no material repairs to the hull in that time, in good condition. Other vessels were built during the war of 1861-5. The advantages of iron over wood are greater strength, lightness, more easily worked, durability, and less cost for repairs. The progress of iron shipbuilding has been concurrent with the development of the steamship, and was essential to that development. With the high power now put in steamers it would be impossible to build them strong enough of wood to stand the racking strains of the engine.

All the good qualities of iron are possessed by mild steel in a greater degree, and as soon as steel could be made of a uniform good quality it supplanted iron as the material for shipbuilding. About 1880 it began to be used for ocean steamers. The first steel vessels built in this

the rule is so to divide the vessel that any two, and in some parts of the ship, three of the compartments may be open to the sea, and still the vessel will float. Although the *Oregon* and the battle ship *Victoria* were sunk by collision, notwithstanding they had bulkheads, the reasons probably were that the doors were not closed. With the later vessels, more attention is given to the bulkheads, and there are not so many doors in them.



TRANSATLANTIC PASSENGER STEAMER "CAMPANIA." 1892.

The double bottom was used by Brunel in constructing the *Great Eastern* in 1854, and is now generally used in all large steamers. It is an inner skin² inside the outer skin from 2 to 4 feet, and extends from one half to three fourths of the length of the vessel. The space between the two skins is divided by water-tight frames, so that an injury to the outer skin does not seriously affect the safety of the vessel.

Large steamers now have no outside keels. The keel is made up of two flat plates, one above the other, and an inner vertical plate, securely riveted to the flat keel plates.

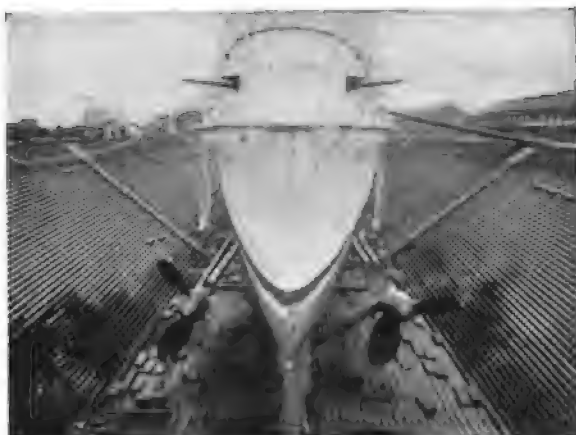
The increase in the size of steamers since 1840 has been very great. The latest Cunarder, the *Lucania*, could probably carry all of the first four Cunarders. The *Great Eastern*, the largest vessel ever built, was a commercial failure, but the later steamers are approaching her size; a steamer now building in Europe will be about 20,000 tons displacement and the *Great Eastern* was about 27,000 tons. According to Bishop Wilkins' estimate of the length of the cubit, Noah's ark was about 21,762 tons, so the present steamers are approaching the ark in size.

The reason for the increase in size is that large vessels are relatively more economical in fuel. For every ship there is a certain speed, depending upon her length displacement and form, beyond which for a small increase in speed, there is a disproportionate increase in resistance, and therefore disproportionate increase in amount of fuel used. The bow wave, the hollow, and the wave near the stern, may be seen in the picture of the triple screw cruiser *Minneapolis* while making 23.07 knots³ (twenty-six and one half miles) on her trial trip in July, 1894.

There has been great improvement in the designs of ships in the last fifty years, and especially in the last thirty years. From experiments with models, by observing the performances of ships already built, and from a much greater knowledge of the subject in general, naval architects can now estimate

much more closely than formerly what must be the size, shape, and power for a steamer, for her to perform certain requirements as to speed, carrying capacity, and coal consumption.

The improvements in the marine engine within the century are the base of the development of the steamship. While the steam engine of to-day is practically in principle what Watt left us, improved mechanism, workmanship, and economy of fuel have made possible the steamship of to-day. From the *Clermont* of 1807 with 24 horse power, we have engines in ships to-day of over 20,000 horse power. The economy of fuel has



TRIPLE SCREW CRUISER "COLUMBIA" IN DRY DOCK. 1894.

been made possible by better workmanship, stronger materials, greater piston speeds, and higher pressures.

A prominent authority states that the workmanship by hand made thirty years ago was as good as is made to-day, but that the workmanship on the average engine of to-day is much better, caused by the greater amount of machine work, which is more accurate. Steel is now used as the material for boilers and engines, and is stronger and more easily worked. Piston speeds in 1838 were about 200 feet per minute, 400 feet in 1860 and to-day they are from 800 to 1,000 feet. On the *Minneapolis*, on her trial trip, the piston speed was about 920 feet. The steam pressures on ocean steamers up to 1850 did not exceed 20 lbs. With the earlier vessels, with only 5 to 10 lbs. of steam,

it was possible to stop a leak in a boiler "by pushing a rag in the hole." As late as 1846 a prominent firm of engine builders in England stated that from 10 to 12 lbs. was what they used for merchant vessels, and they strongly recommended that for the navy the pressure should not be more than 10 lbs. or in extreme cases 12 lbs. By 1880 pressures had increased to from 60 to 90 lbs. and on the introduction of steel for boilers, pressures went up to about 100 lbs. by 1885, and now boilers are being built, for large steamers, to carry 200 lbs. Special types of boilers for torpedo boats and other uses carry much higher pressure.

The first engines were very heavy. The *Powhatan* machinery weighed over 900

and used before, began to come into general use about 1870, and the gain in economy over the simple engine is given at about 30 per cent. The triple expansion engine with steam pressures from 100 to 160 lbs. came into use between 1887 and 1890, and the gain over the compound is about 15 to 20 per cent. With still higher pressures, the quadruple expansion engines have been used, and there are now building at Cramps' yard quadruple engines for two large vessels designed to use steam at 200 lbs.

The consumption of coal per horse power developed has greatly decreased. From 6 to 7 lbs. per hour with the old beam engines, it is now about 2.2 lbs. with triple expansion. It has been as low as 1.7 lbs. for a



TRIPLE SCREW CRUISER "MINNEAPOLIS" ON TRIAL TRIP, JULY, 1894.

lbs. for each horse power developed. The *Ericsson* machinery weighs only 56 lbs. per horse power. This last is for torpedo boats and high pressures, and cannot yet be approached for large vessels. On the trial trip the *Minneapolis* developed 20,812 horse power, and the total weight of all the machinery, with the water in the boilers, was 1,961 tons, so that the weight of machinery for each horse power was about 210 lbs. Had the *Minneapolis* machinery been of the same relative weight as the *Powhatan*, it would have weighed over 8,400 tons, or 1,000 tons more than the *Minneapolis* herself weighed on her trial trip.

The compound engine, although known

trip across the Atlantic. In our navy, on full speed trials, it has been from 2 to 2.6 lbs.

The speed of steamers since 1840 has more than doubled. The first Atlantic steamers made about 8½ knots. In 1870 the speed was about 14½, by 1890 they were making 18 to 19, and in May, 1894, the *Lucania*, the latest Cunarder, made an average of 21.61 knots for 2,873 miles, making the passage to Sandy Hook in 5 days, 12 hours, and 57 minutes. These figures are for the fastest Atlantic liners, which are the fastest steamers in the world, but on other lines and on long voyages there has been a corresponding increase in speed.

The use of steam vessels in the navies be-

gan in England and France about 1820, in small vessels. In our navy, the first steamer was the *Fulton 1st*, designed by Fulton and built in 1814. She made in 1815 about 6 miles per hour. She never performed any service, and blew up in 1829. A small steamer was employed in the navy in the West Indies in 1822-25, but the *Fulton 2nd*, launched in 1837, was the pioneer steam vessel in our navy, under the present organization.

As late as 1859, Capt. Alston of the English navy, in the preface to his book on seamanship, wrote,

"Owing to the great cost of coal, and the impossibility of providing stowage for it, except to a limited extent, the application of steam power for ordinary purposes must be strictly auxiliary and subordinate, and its employment on general service, the exception and not the rule."

But to-day, with the exception of a few practice ships, there are no sailing men-of-war, and unless for special purposes, large men-of-war have no sail.

In 1861, Ericsson's *Monitor* changed the whole idea of a man-of-war. The modern battle ship of 10,000 tons and over, takes the place of the old ship of the line, and fast cruisers, making from 16 to 23 knots, and torpedo boats making as high as 27 knots take the places of the old frigates and smaller vessels. Without an accident, our little *Petrel* of less than 1,000 tons, could alone whip a fleet such as Nelson had at Trafalgar in 1805.

The navies have generally been behind the merchant marine in adapting new devices and improvements. But there are exceptions to the rule. About 1863 Capt. Fox, then assistant secretary of our navy, asked the engineer in chief, Mr. Isherwood, if a steamer could be built that could make 15 knots in moderately bad weather at sea. Isherwood said it could be done, but at very great cost, and at the sacrifice of most of the space in the vessel for machinery and coal. Fox ordered the vessel, and the *Wampanoag*, a wooden vessel of 4,300 tons, was the result. She made 16.76 knots per hour, for 37 hours, at sea, in 1868. At that time, the speed of the fast Atlantic liners was about 14 knots, and they did not reach 16½ until about 1880

or '81. Lately in the German, French, and in our navy, with the *Columbia* and *Minneapolis*, the use of triple screws has preceded their introduction in the merchant marine.

The steamship lines of the world send steamers to all parts of the world where freight is to be had. Although the Atlantic lines own the largest, fastest, and best known steamers, they are not the largest steamship lines. The British Indian Steam Navigation Co. is the largest, owning over 100 steamers aggregating 239,000 tons. Then comes the Peninsular and Oriental; the French Messagerie Maritime, the Bremen Lloyd, a number of other companies, then the White Star with 20 steamers, 95,000 tons, and the Cunard with 26 steamers, 85,000 tons.

The steamships of the world are divided into three general classes, the mail and passenger steamers, running on regular routes, on schedule time, the freight steamers, running on regular routes, and the tramp steamers. The tramp goes anywhere where there is freight, and will run out the sailing ship, unless the distances are too great, doing such work as bringing coal from Australia to the west coast of America, and wheat, lumber, and nitrates from the west coast of America to Europe. A few years ago there was quite a trade for sailing vessels, bringing rubber from the Amazon to the United States, but the tramps ran them out. Some of the freight steamers are very large. One of the later ones is 13,600 tons displacement, and will carry 7,000 tons weight of freight, equal to 14 trains of 50 cars each. One of the late freight steamers of 6,100 tons carrying 4,300 tons of freight and coal, made an average of 9 knots for a long voyage, on 14.3 tons of coal per day. This is less than an ounce of coal per ton of freight per mile.

The economy with the latest engines makes it pay to re-engine old vessels. With our cruiser *Chicago*, designed in 1882 (with an unusual and poor engine for that time), it is proposed to put in new machinery, giving her 10,000 horse power instead of 5,000, increasing her speed 2 knots and still leave room for 300 tons of coal more than she carries now.

There are tank steamers, built for carrying petroleum in bulk. One of the later ones will carry 7,000 tons of it. A novelty in freight steamers is the whaleback, first built on the Great Lakes. It costs less to build and is as economical.

With the development of steamships have come many appliances for navigating and handling them. The largest engines may be reversed by a boy, the helm can be put hard^d over by one man, when going at full speed. Without the steam or hydraulic gear fifty men could not put over the helm of a fast steamer. The heaviest anchors are hoisted at the rate of 30 feet a minute, by anchor engines. Electricity lights, without heat or danger, every part of the vessel. Patent logs^e give the run through the water. The compasses are compensated, so that they are practically right. The depth up to 100 fathoms may be found by the patent lead,^f without slowing down; automatic arrangements blow the fog whistle in a fog; there are steam derricks for hoisting out and in freight, and steam capstans for hauling

into the wharf. With the increased size and speed of steamers has developed the captain who will run them in heavy weather, and the engineer who will keep the engines up to the great speed. To put a captain accustomed to a 10 knot steamer, and an engineer from an engine of 30 to 60 revolutions on a fast Atlantic liner would be folly. Neither man would at first have the nerve to keep up the speed.

The safety on a modern passenger steamer is about the same as on the best trains of the best railroads.

Twenty years ago it was thought by many that the limit as to size, speed, and economy had been reached. At present it seems that the draft of water at the harbors, and the cost, are the limits that will prevent further development on present lines. With different material for construction, with liquid fuel, and other improvements or inventions, it is possible that twenty years from now, one may look back at the *Lucania* with her 21.6 knots as we now look on the *Germanic* and *Britannic* of 1874 with their 16 knots.

SOCIAL LIFE IN ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

BY JOHN ASHTON.

THE physical aspect of England was much altered during this century; the land was fenced in and cultivated, woods cut down and converted into farms, mainly drained by ditches, which, with a wide quickset¹ hedge, took up a great quantity of land which is now available for cultivation, owing to the present system of draining by means of earthenware pipes. Farming was carried on in a most unscientific manner, farmyard manure alone being used, and that but sparsely, and the land had to recoup² itself by being allowed to lie fallow every third year, so that all land capable of growing cereals³ was under cultivation only two thirds of its time. Yet farmers made money, for England, having to rely almost wholly upon its own produce for its consumption, felt acutely the difference between

a good and a bad harvest, and corn occasionally went up to famine prices. Take, for instance, the last month of the first year of the century, December, 1800, the average price of corn in Middlesex was 142s⁴ and, in Gloucestershire 159s. The present price of wheat is 25s per quarter, and the price of a four pound loaf is 5d. When we consider that the purchasing price of money in the last century was about 30 or 40 per cent more than now, we can realize the price of the quarter loaf then; and yet corn was being imported, in small quantities truly, from Dantzic and elsewhere.

In 1795 there was a scarcity which did not amount to anything like famine, yet the papers teemed with receipts for making oat and barley bread; nay, bread was even made from potatoes and rice. Royalty set

a good example, *vide* the following paragraph from *The Times* of July 30, 1795:

"The writer of this paragraph has seen the bread that is eaten at His Majesty's table. It consists of two sorts only, the one composed of wheaten flour and rye mixed; the other is half wheaten flour, half potato flour."

Yet, although wheat was dear, meat was fairly cheap, especially when we consider that feeding off clover and roots was unknown. Even in December, 1800, the whole-sale price of beef was from $5\frac{1}{2}d$ to $8\frac{1}{2}d$ per pound, mutton $6\frac{1}{4}d$ to $9d$ and pork $7\frac{3}{4}d$ to $9\frac{3}{4}d$. Rents of farms were low, and farmers did well.

In the commencement of the century, the roads, the principal means of intercommunication, were in a scandalous state, although by several statutes of William III. and Anne the onus⁵ of keeping them in repair was thrown upon the adjacent parishes. One or two examples must suffice. When Queen Anne came to the throne England was visited by Charles III. of Spain, and his journey from Portsmouth to Petworth, where he was to be met by Prince George of Denmark, is thus described by an attendant: *

"We set out at six in the morning by torchlight to go to Petworth, and did not get out of the coaches (save only when we were overturned, or stuck fast in the mire) till we arrived at our journey's end. 'Twas a hard service for the prince to sit fourteen hours in the coach that day without eating anything, and passing through the worst ways I ever saw in my life. We were thrown but once, indeed, in going, but our coach (which was the leading one) and His Highness's body coach would have suffered very much, if the nimble boors of Sussex had not frequently poised it, or supported it with their shoulders from Godalming almost to Petworth, and the nearer we approached the duke of Somerset's house the more inaccessible it seemed to be. The last nine miles of the way cost us six hours to conquer them; and indeed, we had never done it, if our good master had not, several times, lent us a pair of horses out of his own coaching, whereby we were enabled to trace out the road for him."

Yet another instance in 1722: †

"Going to church at a country village, not far from Lewes, I saw an ancient lady—and a lady of very good quality I assure you—drawn to church in her coach with six oxen; nor was it done in frolic, or

humor, but mere necessity, the way being so stiff and deep that no horses could go in it."

Yet, in many roads, there were toll gates, or turnpikes, which were introduced in 1663; but, except on the main roads, the tolls were pocketed, and the roads were left to take care of themselves, until the middle of the eighteenth century, when the principal arteries were put in better order. Men principally traveled on horseback, and their womankind, if not going a long distance, were mounted on a pillion, and kept their equilibrium by grasping the man's waist belt, which is still conserved in our groom's dress. Carriages were used only by the nobility and upper class of gentry, but Misson, who visited England at the very end of the seventeenth century, writes that there were

"coaches that go to all the great towns by moderate journeys, and others, which they call flying coaches, that will travel twenty leagues⁶ a day and more, but these do not go to all places."

Good descriptions of the early stage coaches and wagons may be read in Fielding's "Joseph Andrews," and Smollett's "Roderick Random." It must also be remembered that, added to the perils of the road proper, was the terror of being stopped by highwaymen, who flourished exceedingly in this century. Later on, the traffic was much accelerated by the post office in accepting Palmer's scheme for carrying the mails by coach, instead of on horseback; and, according to the *Gentleman's Magazine*:

"On Monday, Aug. 2, 1784, began a new plan for the conveyance of the mail between London, Bath, and Bristol, by coaches constructed for that purpose. The coach which left London this evening at 8 o'clock, arrived at Bristol the next morning before 11; and the coach that set out from Bristol at 4 in the afternoon, got into London before 8 the next morning."

So commenced the running of the mail coaches, which in the early part of the next century played so great a part in the development of intercourse in England.

Goods were conveyed on pack horses, or in broad wheeled wagons, drawn by from six to twelve horses, the driver being mounted on a pony, so that he could be all around his team. They were also used by the impecunious for traveling but their speed was

* Add. M. S. Brit. Mus. 27,828.

† Defoe. "A Tour through the Whole of Great Britain." 1724. Vol. 1., p. 59.

snail-like. Still, as trade developed, canals were cut, and this century is remarkable for the number that were inaugurated. Besides the Bridgewater and Grand Junction, I find from 1715 to 1800 forty-one canals begun or completed.

The social customs of the people varied very little from those of the previous century. A great fuss was made, as now, both at baptisms and marriages, although the wedding festivities, as the century grew older, became much more refined. Fleet weddings¹ increased marvelously, and toward the end of the century, advantage used to be taken of the Scotch law, whereby a couple, simply acknowledging themselves to be man and wife before witnesses, were held to be legally married, and a trip over the Border, into Scotland, was of frequent occurrence, a favorite Scotch village being Gretna Green, where a man was always ready to marry a couple—generally a runaway match.

During the whole of this century it was compulsory to bury the dead in flannel, a practice which commenced in the reign of Charles II., who confirmed the act (30 Car. II., c. 3)^a "for lessening the importation of linen from beyond the seas, and the encouragement of the woolen and paper manufactures of the kingdom." Pope, in his "Moral Essays" (Epist. I.) referring to the celebrated actress, Mrs. Oldfield, who was buried in 1730 in Westminster Abbey, in a Brussels lace head-dress, a Holland shift, with tucks and double ruffles of the same lace, and a pair of new kid gloves, says:

"Odious! in woolen! 'twould a saint provoke,
Were the last words that poor Narcissa spoke;
'No, let a charming chintz and Brussels lace
Wrap my cold limbs and shade my lifeless face;
One would not, sure, be frightful when one's
dead—

And, Betty, give this cheek a little red."

This custom was repealed in 1815 (54 Geo. III., c. 10). Funerals were very costly, and the time of mourning was almost excessive; in Anne's reign, for instance, a widow had to keep the house for six weeks, and to take no amusement whatever for a year.

Food, with the middle classes at all events, still continued plain, but plentiful. With

the reign of Anne, tea came into fashion; not yet for a morning draft, but for the evening gossip among the ladies only, for the men were a long time before they took kindly to it, although the effeminate beau did so, as we see in the following:

"Here see we Scandal (for our sex too base)
Seat in dread Empire in the Female Race,
'Mong Beaus and Women, Fans and Mechlin lace,
Chief seat of Slander, Ever there we see
Thick Scandal circulate with right Bohea.
There, source of black'ning Falsehood's Mint of
Lies,

Each Dame th' Improvement of her talent tries,
And, at each Sip, a Ladies Honor dies."

Later on it became a social meal, but it still has the credit of being the medium for circulating scandal. Chocolate was a far more aristocratic drink, while coffee, nominally, kept the coffee houses going.

The preceding century was a pipe-smoking age—this was the age of snuff. Not that tobacco smoking was done away with, far from it, even by the children, as Thoresby relates:

"Jan. 20, 1702. Evening with brother &c at Garraway's coffee house; * was surprised to see his sickly child of three years old, fill its pipe of tobacco, and smoke it as a man of three score; after that a second and a third pipe without the least concern, as it is said to have done above a year ago."

Snuff taking was not general before 1702, when it was not taken between the thumb and fingers, but with pipes the size of a quill, out of small spring boxes. These pipes let out a very small quantity of snuff upon the back of the hand, and this was snuffed up the nostrils with the intention of producing the sensation of sneezing. But, in 1702, Sir George Rooke destroyed the Spanish fleet at Vigo, and captured the town, taking as part of the plunder about fifty tons of snuff. This was brought home and the sailors selling it cheap, it became popular, so much so that women soon began to use it. In Swift's "Journal to Stella" Nov. 3, 1711, he tells her that he sends

"a fine rasp of ivory, given me by Mrs. St. John, for Dingley, and a large roll of tobacco which she must hide."

At that time people used to rasp their own snuff, and these rasps were often works

* At Leeds.

of art. But snuff used not always to be taken with finger and thumb, sometimes a spoon was used, as is now in Scotland, South Africa, and China. In a play called "Hampstead Heath," published in 1706, it says:

"To noddles cram'd with Dighton's musty Snuff,
Whose nicer Tasts think Wit consists alone
In Tonbridge Wooden Box, with wooden Spoon."
Chapters could be written on snuff boxes and snuff taking, the latter especially as a social adjunct to conversation.

The century was not particularly refined in its general manners. Swearing among men was habitual, so much so that an attempt was made to put it down by legislation (19 Geo. III. c. 21), by which it was enacted:

"From and after the first day of June, 1746, if any person or persons shall profanely curse, or swear, and be thereof convicted of any one, or more witnessses, before any one justice of the peace he shall forfeit and lose the respective sums herein-after mentioned; Every day laborer, common soldier, common sailor, and common seaman, one shilling. And every other person under the degree of a gentleman, two shillings. And every person of, or above the degree of a gentleman, five shillings."

Even the ladies had their little oaths, as may be read in the essays and novels of the century.

It was also a drunken age; the vice of drink being indulged in from the highest to the lowest. The two great premiers of the century, Pitt and Fox, were notable examples of this vice, as were Sheridan and many other legislators. To be a three bottle man was to aim at distinction, but we know not how many succumbed, unable to "make their head," as it was termed. Not content with the national drink of ale or beer, the lower classes bemused⁹ themselves with gin, and Lord Hervey, in 1736, describing the state of England, said that the drunkenness of the common people was so universal, by the retailing a liquor called gin, with which they could get drunk for a groat, that the whole town of London, and many towns in the country, swarmed with drunken people from morning till night, and were more like a scene of a Bacchanal¹⁰ than the residence of a civil society.

To attempt to put a stop to this scandal, a

duty of 20s per gallon was imposed, and the vender had to take out a license of £50 a year. This came into force on Sept. 29, 1736, and, luckily, the "funeral of Madam Geneva" passed off without the expected riots. Still gin held its own, in spite of Hogarth's picture of Gin Lane, published in 1751, in which the artist has endeavored to delineate every circumstance of the horrid effects of gin drinking. Idleness, poverty, misery, and distress, which drive even to madness and death, are the only objects to be seen, and not a house in tolerable condition but the pawnbroker's and the gin shop.

Likewise it was a gambling age. There being very little intellectuality among ordinary folk, cards were the great resource in order to while away the evening, and play was universal. Among the upper classes of men, the sums lost at play equaled those now lost upon the turf. Pitt and Fox, again, were bright exemplars of this vice, and women of quasi rank, such as Lady Archer and Lady Buckinghamshire, kept absolute gaming houses, which became such a scandal that they were nicknamed "Faro's daughters," and Lord Kenyon said of them, "They think they are too great for the law; I wish they could be punished," and then continued, "If any prosecutions of this kind are fairly brought before me, and the parties are justly convicted, whatever be their rank or station in the country—though they be the first ladies in the land—they shall certainly exhibit themselves in the pillory."

But there was another social canker eating into the hearts of the English, and that was the state lotteries which were common throughout the century. The excuse was, that the profit made by the government was a voluntary tax which brought in a revenue that would have to be provided for otherwise by direct taxation, no heed being taken of the immorality fostered thereby, and the spirit of gambling it evoked, which bore disastrous fruit in the South Sea bubble¹¹ and other kindred swindles.

Another curious social phase of this century was the prevalence of dueling, toward which the practice of wearing swords greatly conduced. Doubtless, it made men more

careful of what they said or did, but the swords leaped out on the slightest provocation, or on none. In the latter part of the century, public opinion was decidedly against it.

For amusements, the Londoner had the parks, Ranelagh and Vauxhall Gardens, to which they went by water, as well as Richmond and Hampton Court; while, especially for the middle classes, were many tea gardens, in the suburbs, where sillabubs¹² might be drunk, and a game at bowls indulged in. Or, he might see the mad people in Bethlehem Hospital, or the lions in the Tower, or the wax effigies of dead kings and queens in Westminster Abbey, or Mrs. Salmon's wax-work show, the Leverian Museum, and a host of other shows, including the British Museum, which was very exclusive, admission being obtainable only by tickets.

In the country, all the larger beasts of the chase, with the exception of the stag, having been exterminated, there remained but the fox to be hunted, as vermin; and this sport, which has developed into a veritable cult, was inaugurated in this century, and rapidly matured. But it was carried out differently from the modern practice. In the early part of the century, fox-hunting began about six in the morning, which suited the slow hounds of that day, the fox being gorged with his early meal, and only the gentlemen were mounted, the huntsmen being on foot, and carrying leaping poles; in the latter part, fox-hunting had nearly taken its present form, with the exception that the hounds were kept for the amusement of the master, his friends, and the neighborhood generally, not as now, when any one who can afford to hire a horse, and send it on by rail, thinks himself entitled to join any hunt.

Hawking had died out, owing to the enclosure of lands, as had the cross bow as a weapon, and, though the gun was used, it was not a general accomplishment until the middle of the century, to be able to shoot a bird on the wing. Archery was still practiced, but only as a pastime, as now.

The national English game of cricket was in full swing in the latter half of the century, but age has brought many modifications into

the game. Then it was played with curved bats, and there were but two stumps, the third being added by the Hambledon Club in 1775. Matches were made for large sums of money, £500 or £1,000 a side, and ladies used to play.

The manners of the lower classes were brutal, and those above them in station were, decidedly, lacking in refinement. It was the age of rough sports culminating in the disgusting prize fight, which all the boasted civilization of the present century has failed to eradicate. Broughton, Figg, Slack, Humphries, Mendoza, and Belcher were the heroes of the ring in this age, when a nobleman and his brothers were known by the names of Newgate, Hellgate, Cripple-gate, and Billingsgate. In the seventeenth century there were the Hectors, the Muns, the Tityre Tu's, and the Scourers;¹³ in the eighteenth they were worthily copied by the Mohocks, and, later on, by the Bucks and Bloods, mostly young men of good position, who gave unbridled license to their passions, and were the terror of all honest people.

Yet quiet folk had their amusements, music being the chief, as may be imagined in an age which produced such composers as Blow, Crofts, Arne, Boyce, Nares, Handel, Shield, Arnold, and Jackson—while England was honored with visits from both Mozart and Haydn. Not only were there concerts of ancient music founded by Pepusch,¹⁴ but there were others at which sang Mrs. Tofts, Margherita de l'Epine, Mrs. Billington, and Mrs. Crouch. Opera, too, was in full swing, while chamber music, with its quartets, etc., was practiced in most houses.

In Queen Anne's time there were four theaters, Dorset Gardens, Lincoln's Inn Fields, Drury Lane, and the Queen's Theater, Haymarket. Then, in 1730 came Goodman's Fields, in 1732, Covent Garden, and the century closed with only three, Drury Lane, Covent Garden, and the Haymarket, and, being so few, they kept up a good school of actors.

Pictorial art in England was represented by Laguerre, Dahl, Sir James Thornhill, and Hogarth, before the institution of the Royal

Academy in 1768; and, afterwards, came Sir Joshua Reynolds, Richard Wilson, Benj. West, Cosway, Loutherbrough, Gainsborough, Morland, Wright of Derby, Romney, Fuseli, Northcote, Opie, A. Kauffmann, Beechey, Stubbs, Copley, and, as a water colorist, Paul Sandby. The principal engravers were Blake, Stothard, Smirke, and Bewick; as sculptors we have Bird, whose statue of Queen Anne is in front of St. Paul's Cathedral, Gibbs, Rysbrack, Roubiliac, and young Flaxman, who was just making his name. The most prominent architects were Vanbrugh and Kent—but it was a bad age for architecture.

Medicine began to take its proper place, although quackery was rampant, for it is impossible to take up any newspaper of the century without finding quack advertisements. The first forward step taken was in 1745 when the connection of "barber-surgeons" was severed, and a college of surgeons was inaugurated; but it was reserved to the nineteenth century to raise the noble profession of medicine to its present height. Still, there were men of mark in the olden times, as the names of Radcliffe, Garth, Mead, Humphrey Davy, Sydenham, William and John Hunter, and Jenner will testify. Queen Anne was the last British sovereign who touched for the "king's evil."¹⁵

The origin of the steam engine in England, is as follows. On July 25, 1698, was made

"a grant to Thomas Savery gentle of the sole exercise of a new invencon by him invented, for raising water, and occasioning mocon to all sorts of Mill works by the impellent force of fire, which will be of great use for draining Mines, serving towns with water, and for the working of all sorts of Mills where they have not the benefit of water, nor constant winds. To hold for 14 years."

In 1701 he wrote a little book on his invention, and in *The Postman*, Mar. 28-31, 1702, he advertised that it might be seen at work in Salisbury Court, London. In 1712 Thomas Newcommen constructed the first self-acting steam engine; and, in 1737 Jonathan Hulls published a book with plans of his

"new-invented machine for carrying vessels, or ships, out of, or into, any Harbour, Port or River, against Wind and Tide, or in a Calm."

In 1787 Wm. Patrick Miller patented paddle wheels, and in 1790 W. Lyvingston had a steamboat at work on the Forth and Clyde Canal. Watt very much improved the steam engine, and by the end of the century it was adopted as a motive power in very many manufactories.

Electricity never went beyond the experimental stage. The Leyden jar was discovered by Von Kleist in 1745; in June, 1752, Franklin drew electricity from a cloud by means of a kite, and, as a proof of the interest taken in it in the United States, I have an advertisement in the *Maryland Gazette* of May 10, 1749, of electrical experiments. Cavendish decomposed water by its means in 1787-90; and, later on, we have the experiences of Volta and Galvani. But no practical use was made of it in England.

I cannot touch on the literature of this century, it is too large a field—but it will bear comparison with that of the nineteenth and most of the works then produced are handed down to us as English classics. But this age started the newspaper. Those of the previous century were not newspapers, in our acceptance of the term; and the *London Gazette* was, and is, simply used for giving official information. I look upon the *Daily Courant*, published in 1702, as the first real daily paper. Of those daily newspapers started in the eighteenth century, some still remain. *The Morning Post*, 1772, *The Times*, 1778, *The Morning Advertiser*, 1794, while the oldest surviving provincial paper is *Berrow's Worcester Journal*, established in 1690; but this is a weekly.

England's commerce, in spite of the wars of this century, extended to every land; while the voyages of Cook and others laid the foundation of her vast colonies: the East India Company, in return for its monopoly, giving the nucleus of the Indian Empire, while the French, by force of war, had to surrender Canada. Trade and manufactures awoke wonderfully, thanks to coal and the introduction of steam, and the way was paved for the commerce of the first half of this present century, when Great Britain virtually held the monopoly of the markets of the world.

For a description of the streets of London in the commencement of the century, I refer the reader to Gay's "Trivia." They were badly paved, the houses were of the most uninteresting kind, except the old ones, and they were low ceiled, with the stories projecting one over the other. Filthy were the streets in winter, evil smelling in summer; very narrow, so that the passing coaches and carts splashed the foot passengers from head to foot and all who could afford it were fain to ride. For their convenience there were Sedan chairs, which were first introduced into England in 1581 or there were hackney coaches, which were first started in 1625.

Could any one now see an old London street of this age, the thing that would most strike him would be the signboards. They were a relic of an unlearned time; and, because reading was not considered a necessary accomplishment, with the lower classes at all events, the untutored could find an address by the sign of the Bell, the Lion, etc., far better than by names or numbers. They became dangerous, and were done away with in 1787.

Yet there was another highway, the silent one of the Thames, which was much patronized, largely to the profit of the watermen, who had to wear a badge upon their arms. At the city guilds, the government departments, even royalty as well as the commonalty had gaily decorated and gilt barges, their watermen having different colored liveries with large silver badges. A coat and badge, left by an actor named Doggett, are still annually raced for by young watermen on August 1, in memory of the accession of the House of Brunswick in 1714.

Umbrellas were in use in Queen Anne's time, but only by women; they were regarded as too effeminate for men, until the latter part of the century, when the philanthropist

and traveler Jonas Hanway did all he could to break down the prejudice against them.

Men's costume, for the greater part of the century, was different modifications of the time of William III. The hat brim was turned up and made three-cornered, wigs varied from the peruke and Ramilies¹⁶ of Queen Anne, to the bob and scratch wigs of Geo. III. There was no great variation in the style of dress until the Peace of Paris in 1783, after which England was in amity with France for ten years, and the consequence of the intercommunication between the two nations led to a change of costume on the part of the English, who aped the fashions of their neighbors. Previous to this, though, in 1772, was the Macaroni, a gentleman who had made the *grand tour*, and belonged to the Macaroni Club, in opposition to the Beefsteaks. He was a fearful and wonderful being, especially as to his wig. The century ended with a round hat, voluminous necktie, tail coat with high collar, and either knee-breeches or tight fitting pantaloons.

Ladies' dress, also, varied much. The headdress, in Anne's time, was the tower, or *fontange*, impossible to describe; then came the hood for outdoor wear; then a most extravagantly high wig, or hair combed over a cushion, covered by a "calash," and, lastly, by a high silk bonnet, and a mob cap for indoors. Perhaps the most curious fashion in this century was that of the hooped petticoat, which lasted till the reign of Geo. III. and even then it was continued for a long time as court dress. A pretty fashion was the *sacque*, about 1740, or what is now termed a Watteau costume. At the end of the century woman's dress was pretty and modest, the bosom being covered with a muslin handkerchief, and there being no particular eccentricities of costume. This age, however, is responsible for the abomination of high-heeled shoes.

THE LEGISLATURE OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.*

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WHETHER or no an unwritten constitution is better in practice, a written instrument makes the work of the commentator easier and more exact. In dealing with the German Legislature we have this advantage in large degree, though not in fullest measure. For, although the constitution of the German Empire is a written instrument and creates the Legislature of the empire, yet it is held by some of the most noted and authoritative German publicists that the body which is now, so to speak, the Upper House of the Legislature created the constitution. Whether this be a sound view of the German constitution or not, it demonstrates the necessity of inquiring if this body, the Federal Council (Bundesrath), has a history back of the constitution, and if so, what that history is.

The first topic of this paper is, therefore,

I. THE FEDERAL COUNCIL (BUNDESRATH), ITS HISTORY, ITS COMPOSITION, AND ITS POWERS.

(1.) *The History of the Federal Council.*

A proper comprehension of the history of this body will require us to go back as far as to the Carolingian¹ Reichstag² of the ninth century. This was composed of the emperor and his officials both secular and ecclesiastical, his margraves, counts, and bishops. From this body the "Capitularies"³ proceeded. Whether it legislated or the emperor legislated with its advice and consent is a question which we need not discuss.

When the empire was dissolved in the middle of the ninth century, these original imperial officials in the three kingdoms into which the empire was divided, succeeded in making their offices and the estates attached to them as salary, so to speak, hereditary; that is, these officials, or their descendants, succeeded in making their offices independ-

ent autonomous governments, at least in local instance. They became thus princes instead of officers. In the German kingdom, the Assembly of these princes became the basis of the government, we might even say, of the constitution. They made the fundamental laws of the kingdom and they elected the king.

When King Otto I. re-established the empire in 962, by the reconquest of Italy and by causing himself to be crowned by the pope as emperor of the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation, he sought to reduce the princes to the position of officials again. He succeeded partially, but he inaugurated thereby for his less capable successors a struggle between the emperor and the princes, which fills up the history of the next three centuries, and which ended in the triumph of the princes and the formal recognition of their autonomous powers by Emperor Frederick II.

From this time forward the Assembly of the princes was the basis of the government and of the constitution. As the cities grew in wealth and power, and, by imperial assistance generally threw off the jurisdiction of the prince upon whose territories they might be located, and became thus immediate to the emperor, and autonomous locally, their representatives secured entrance into the Assembly.

With this composition of its membership, the Assembly, the Reichstag of the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation, continued to the overthrow of the empire in 1806 by the French arms.

The reorganization of Germany by the Congress at Vienna after the overthrow of Napoleon, as a confederation of sovereign princes and a few sovereign cities had naturally but little modifying effect upon the composition of the Assembly. It was now in law, what it had been in fact during the

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

century before the overthrow of the Holy Roman Empire of the German Nation, viz., an Assembly of ambassadors from the princes and the free cities. The Congress at Vienna refused to restore the ecclesiastical principalities destroyed by the Revolution and also refused to recognize as sovereigns the princes and cities mediatized by the Revolution. The Congress thus reduced the number of German states from about three hundred to thirty-eight.

The Assembly of the confederation was, therefore, composed of ambassadors from these thirty-eight states. The Congress also fixed the number of voices or votes which each one of the states should exercise in the Assembly. It recognized four voices to each one of the six kingdoms, Austria, Prussia, Saxony, Bavaria, Hannover, and Würtemberg; three voices to each of the grand dukedoms, Baden, Electoral Hesse, Hesse-Darmstadt, Holstein, and Luxemburg; two voices to each of the lesser grand dukedoms, Brunswick, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and Nassau; and one voice to each of the rest.

Of these thirty-eight states, thirty-four were monarchies, and four, the cities of Frankfurt, Lübeck, Bremen, and Hamburg, were aristocratic republics. The members of the Assembly from the first were, therefore, the thirty-four princes, or the ambassadors appointed by them as their representatives and instructed by them in all their acts, and the members from the second were the Senates of the cities, or the ambassadors appointed by them, and instructed by them in all their acts.

When this confederation was dissolved by the Austro-Prussian war of 1866, the king of Prussia proposed to the princes and city Senates whose territories lay north of the river Main, except the kings of Hannover and Saxony and the dukes of Electoral Hesse, Hesse-Darmstadt, and Luxemburg, to ally themselves with him for the formation of a new confederation. They all finally accepted his proposition. They sent representatives appointed by themselves, and instructed by themselves, to Berlin to join with the representatives appointed by the king of Prussia in the drafting of a constitution for the North

German Union. The draft as finally completed and unanimously adopted by this body was submitted to, and approved by, a convention of delegates elected by the people of all the states, whose princes, or, in the case of the cities, whose Senates, had participated in making it. It was then submitted to the legislative bodies in all these states, and approved by them. After the admission of Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, and Hesse south of the Main into this union in 1871, the North German Union became the German Empire and its constitution became, with a few unimportant changes, the constitution of the empire.

In this constitution, the united princes and the Senates of the city republics, who, through their own appointed representatives, had heretofore been the legislative Assembly of the old empire and the confederation, and who in alliance had drafted the new constitution for the North German Union, appear through their representatives again, as the Federal Council, the Bundesrath, and, in connection with the representatives elected by the people to the Diet, or Reichstag, legislate for the empire.

Such in brief is the history of the genesis of the Federal Council, and it is from the point of view of this history that the publicists, to whom I have above referred, claim that, while the Federal Council legislates, it is still not a legislative body, but a sovereign body, the basis of the constitution itself. Notwithstanding all this, however, American lawyers do not feel any more necessity for regarding the Federal Council, *as constituted in the constitution*, a nonlegislative body, than they do for considering the Senate of the United States a nonlegislative body.

The members of the Senate of the United States are appointed by the same bodies, whose action may make constitutional law. This, however, does not make the Senate, as created in the constitution, a sovereign body. It gives the Senate no more legislative power than the other House. To American lawyers this view of the German publicists looks like a theoretical attempt to maintain for the representatives of

the princes a larger legislative power over against the representatives of the people in the Diet than a true appreciation of the history of the creation of the empire and of existing political and social conditions will warrant. American lawyers must, therefore, despite the opinions of the German publicists, consider the Federal Council, as constituted in the constitution, to be chiefly a legislative body, though possessing certain other functions, and treat it as such.

(2.) *The Composition of the Federal Council.*

The Federal Council consists of fifty-eight voices. These voices are exercised by persons appointed by the reigning princes of the twenty-two commonwealths in the empire which have princely governments, and by the Senates of the republican commonwealths, Lübeck, Bremen, and Hamburg. The number of voices to which each one of these princes and Senates is entitled is fixed by the constitution. In making this appointment, the provision of the confederate constitution for the German states formed by the Congress of Vienna relating to the number of members assigned to each state in the confederate Assembly, was followed exactly, except in two cases. Prussia having absorbed, in consequence of the successful issue of the struggle with Austria, the states of Hannover, Electoral Hesse, Holstein, Nassau, and Frankfurt, was accorded the voices which these states possessed in the Assembly of the confederation, bringing the number of voices now exercised by the king of Prussia in the Federal Council up to seventeen; and two additional voices were added to the number engaged by the king of Bavaria in the old Assembly, in order to smooth the way for Bavaria into the North German Union.

The increase of the Bavarian voices is not a matter of much significance, but the possession of the seventeen voices by the king of Prussia enables him to prevent any amendment to the constitution, since the constitution provides that no amendment can be adopted against fourteen adverse voices in the Federal Council. The king of Prussia can thus hold the imperial power against any attempt to deprive him

of it by process of constitutional amendment.

Since the Federal Council is, in principle, considered as being composed of the ruling princes and the Senates of the city republics, the representatives of these persons and bodies, through whom their voices in the Federal Council are exercised, must vote according to the instructions given to them by their respective sovereigns, as the German publicists would say. I will treat of this point in more detail under the subject of the process of legislation.

(3.) *The Powers of the Federal Council.*

Neither the sovereign powers, claimed for this body by the German publicists of the states-rights school, nor its administrative powers, nor its judicial powers are pertinent to the question of this paper, which proposes to deal only with its legislative powers.

As a general principle from which to start, we may say that the Federal Council possesses at least equal legislative power, in all respects, with the house of popular representatives, the Reichstag, the Diet.

There is no exception in the constitution of the empire of financial legislation, in any respect or at any stage, from the power of the Federal Council. The Federal Council has equal power with the Diet in initiating, amending, and voting the bills for raising revenue and appropriating money. These are the subjects in regard to which a large legislative power is usually accorded to the house of popular representatives. Naturally if the constitution vests equal power in the Federal Council in regard to these subjects, it does so in reference to all other subjects of legislation.

As a matter of fact the constitution vests certain exceptional powers of a quasi legislative character in the Federal Council exclusively. These powers refer to the measures necessary to execute the imperial laws, the ordinances as they are scientifically termed. The power to enact these measures is conferred, in first instance, upon the Federal Council and the Diet, jointly as a part of the legislative function; but in case the two bodies fail to provide them as laws, the Federal Council alone may create them

as ordinances ; and, in case the two bodies do enact them as laws, but as laws which are found in the process of execution not to cover all points in administration, the Federal Council is empowered to supplement such laws by ordinances of its own.

These are very important powers. They enable the Federal Council to foil any attempt on the part of the Diet to prevent the execution of an existing law, distasteful to it, by refusing to join in the enactment of the measures necessary to its execution. They certainly place the Federal Council in advantage over the Diet, as a legislative body.

II. THE COMPOSITION AND POWERS OF THE DIET (REICHSTAG).

THE Diet is the modern part of the German constitution. Emperor and Council had existed in some form for centuries, but a body of popular representatives as a legislative factor in the general government of Germany meets us for the first time in the constitution of the North German Union, established in the year 1867.

It had been an idea in the popular mind from the period of the Revolution. The Frankfurt Convention of 1848 undertook to realize it, but failed because the timid king of Prussia, Frederick William IV., would not sanction it. At a moment, however, when the hopes of men were almost dashed, a memorial from the ministry of King William I. of Prussia proclaimed to Germany that Prussia was now prepared and determined to undertake the realization of this great reform. During the struggle between herself and Austria in the Confederate Assembly, from 1863 to 1866, Prussia kept this proposition always in view, and won thereby the countenance and moral support of the people in all the states of the confederation except Austria. In the demand for an alliance of the North German states with her in the forming of a new constitution, Prussia required them to send representatives elected by the people, on the basis of manhood suffrage, as well as representatives chosen by the reigning princes and the city Senates, and caused the constitution drafted by the latter to be laid

before the body composed of the former for ratification, and also recognized a quasi initiative power in this body by accepting some forty amendments to the constitution proposed by it.

Naturally, in this constitution was contained a popular legislative house. When the North German Union became, in 1871, the German Empire, by the admission of the South German states into the union, the provision suffered no change, except extension over a wider territory.

(1.) *The Composition of the Diet.* The members of the Diet are chosen for a term of five years, by the suffrage of all resident male citizens of the empire, twenty-five years of age, not in active military service, nor deprived of their civil or political rights by reason of judicial condemnation, guardianship, bankruptcy, or pauperism. The representatives are apportioned among the several states of the empire according to population, one representative for about one hundred and twenty-five thousand inhabitants, counting a fraction of over fifty thousand as a constituency, and assigning at least one representative to every state whatever its population.

The elections are by secret ballot,—direct vote comes by district ticket. A majority of all voting is necessary to election in first instance. If no one receives a majority in a given district, a second election is held, and the voting is limited to the two persons receiving the highest number of votes at the first election.

Every voter is eligible to membership and is not disqualified temporarily by being in active military service, though he is temporarily disqualified by holding civil office, provided the appointment thereto was subsequent to the election as member, and, of course, while holding a seat in the Federal Council. Finally the constitution expressly provides that each member represents the whole empire, not the particular constituency which elects him alone, and is, therefore, not subject to any instructions from anybody.

(2.) *The Powers of the Diet.* The constitution accords the Diet in conjunction with the Federal Council certain powers of a quasi ju-

dicial nature, such as the power to settle constitutional conflicts within any state of the empire. I am treating in this paper, however, only of the legislative powers, and our question at this point is as to the parity of legislative powers on the part of the Diet with the Federal Council.

With the exception of the residuary power of the Federal Council in regard to the enactment of ordinances above referred to, one would be likely to conclude from the wording of the fifth article of the constitution that the legislative power of the Diet is in parity with that of the Federal Council in every particular. This article reads: "The legislation of the empire should be exercised by the Federal Council and the Diet. The agreement of the two bodies, by majority vote, is necessary and sufficient for the passage of the imperial laws." The twenty-third article of the constitution, furthermore, expressly recognizes the power of the Diet to initiate legislation.

Notwithstanding all this, however, the German publicists of the states-rights school declare that the Federal Council alone legislates. Their theory is that the Federal Council and the Diet participate equally in the work of fixing the *content* of the bill, but that the Federal Council alone has the power of attaching the *sanction* to the bill, and that it is the sanction that makes the bill a law. They define the sanction to be *Ertheilung des Gesetzesbefehles*, i.e., attachment of the formula of command to the bill. Now every law which has to this time been enacted by the imperial Legislature has had its formula command attached to it not by the Federal Council, but by the emperor. Every imperial statute begins with these words: *Wir . . . von Gottes Gnaden Deutscher Kaiser, König von Preussen u.s.w., verordnen im Namen des deutschen Reichs, nach erfolgter Zustimmung des Bundesrathes, und des Reichstags, was folgt.*⁴

According to the reasoning of these publicists this would make the emperor the law-giver. They have noticed this difficulty in their theory, but have professed to avoid it by the assertion that the existing practice is erroneous and not in accord with the spirit of the constitution.

To American publicists the difficulty rather appears to be in this farfetched theory, in this labored attempt to magnify the power of the princes at the expense of the just and constitutionally established powers of the people. If the princes and their lawyers insist upon making this view the rule of practice, it must ultimately rouse a constitutional conflict of a most serious nature, which can end only one way in this democratic age.

III. THE PROCESS OF LEGISLATION.

A BILL in regard to any subject over which the imperial Legislature is vested by the constitution with legislative power, may be introduced primarily in either the Federal Council or the Diet. The constitution provides that each member of the union may originate bills in the Federal Council. This does not mean that each representative in the Council may do so, but that the representative from each state of the empire shall have this power; in other words, that each reigning prince or city Senate represented in the Federal Council may propose a project of legislation to the Council, and the president of the Council must submit the proposition to deliberation in the Council. On the other hand, the constitution simply vests the Diet, as a body, with the power to initiate legislation, and leaves the matter of the process within the body to the Diet itself to be regulated by its own rules. The Diet requires the support of fifteen of its members to any project of law before the president of the body is authorized to submit the same to consideration and debate.

In the passage of the bill through the two Houses, either may amend it at will. In the Federal Council any amendment may be proposed at any time by any member, i. e., by the representative from any state. In the Diet any amendment may be proposed by any member before or during the second reading of the bill, but during the third reading, on the other hand, thirty members must join in any proposition to amend or change the bill, before it will be considered by the body.

The constitution then commands that the resolution of the Federal Council containing projects of legislation shall be presented to

the Diet in the name of the emperor and in the exact form in which they passed the Council. This means that the emperor has power to change the bill, or pocket it, or delay beyond a reasonable time its presentation to the Diet.

There are, however, other most important provisions of the constitution which bear with an undefined power upon this apparent disability to interfere with legislation imposed on the emperor. They are the provisions which vest the power in fourteen voices of the Federal Council to arrest any project of constitutional amendment, and the power of the Prussian representation to defeat any bill in reference to the military and naval systems and imperial taxes. The emperor as king of Prussia possesses these powers, and the question is whether any bill, in his opinion touching these subjects, which has been opposed in the Federal Council by the necessary voices to defeat it, can be withheld by him from the Diet, if transmitted to him in regular form by the Federal Council for presentation to the Diet.

This embarrassment is not likely to occur, since the Federal Council is not, like the Diet, presided over by an officer of its own choice, but by the chancellor of the empire, an officer appointed by the emperor, who would probably refuse to sign any such bills and transmit them to the emperor. It may be said, however, that this would only transfer the contest into the bosom of the Council itself, in case a majority of the voices in the Council should hold that the bill did not deal with questions subject to these forms of veto in a minority of voices.

There is one contingency which can arise that might provoke the conflict immediately between the emperor and the Council. It is, that in case the chancellor is not present in the Council, and has not designated his substitute, as he has the power to do, a Bavarian representative shall, by provision of the constitution, preside over the Council, who would be likely not to relieve the emperor of any of the difficulties to which I have referred. It is a question which can lead to ugly complications, and which should, therefore, be more definitely solved in the constitution itself.

The constitution makes no provision for the transmission of the resolutions of the Diet to the Council. That matter is left to the Diet itself.

The bill becomes law by passage through the two bodies, and the emperor has no veto power at all, as emperor. As king of Prussia, he is a member of the Federal Council with seventeen voices at his command. He has, in this capacity, the special veto powers which I have described, in reference to constitutional amendments and bills concerning the army, the navy, and the imperial revenue. As king of Prussia, he has the further power of deciding a tie vote in the Council.

As emperor, on the other hand, in addition to the more formal powers of calling, opening, adjourning, and proroguing¹ both the Council and the Diet, and, with the consent of the Council, of dissolving the Diet, he is vested with the exclusive power of promulgating the laws. In virtue of this power, he attaches the formula of command, which I have recited in another connection, to the bill as passed by the Council and Diet, and if the attachment of this formula is, as the states-rights publicists of Germany contend, the substantial part of legislation, then he makes the laws with the advice and consent of these two bodies.

This theory is, however, of no practical consequence, unless the emperor is vested with discretion in promulgating the laws, i. e., unless he can refuse to promulgate them, and thus veto them. The constitution furnishes him with no such power, by any express provision. If he have it at all, it must be implied as a means of making valid his rights as king of Prussia to defeat constitutional amendments and bills in regard to the army, navy, and taxes in the Council.

Many of the German publicists contend that such discretion is necessary for the protection of these rights against a mere majority in the Council, which would naturally be inclined to encroach upon them, by enacting bills involving these subjects as ordinary legislation, requiring only a majority of voices for their passage. There is reason in the claim, but it means an absolute veto power

in the emperor over all legislation which *in his opinion*, involves these subjects. His opinion would be subject to no revision, even though he should interpret a bill as containing these subjects, which, according to the opinion of every other man in the nation, did not do so. Somebody, however, must be intrusted with this power of interpretation, and the emperor is probably the person to whom this power, under existing conditions, can be most safely intrusted. Prussia made the empire, and Prussia should be constitutionally enabled to prevent its disruption whether that disruption be attempted either by constitutional amendments or by the destruction of the elements of power—the army, the navy, and the purse—which defend its existence.

FINALLY, it must be remembered that the German system of government is federal, i. e., that the powers of government are divided between two sets of governmental organs, viz., the imperial government and the states. As is usual in such a system, the powers of the central government are enumerated and the powers of the states are residuary.

The imperial Legislature can therefore legislate only upon given subjects enumerated in the constitution.

These subjects are, briefly, foreign relations, foreign commerce, interstate com-

merce, the monetary system, the military system, the naval system, the imperial revenue, citizenship, the imperial territories, the civil law, and criminal law,—the same subjects that are assigned by the constitution of the United States to congressional legislation, with the very important additions of the topics of civil or private law and criminal law. The power of the Congress of the United States in regard to these topics is distinctly limited, and the general power over them is reserved to the states. In fact the chief work of the states in legislation is the modification, supplementing, and adjustment of the common law in regard to private rights and crime.

It will thus be seen that the legislative powers of the German imperial Legislature are vastly greater than those of the Congress of the United States, while the legislative powers of the German states, as compared with those of the states of this Union, are reduced in the same proportion. The German statesmen and jurists had the constitution of the United States before them in the fashioning of their own, and deliberately chose to depart from it in this respect, and have one civil or private law and one criminal law for the whole empire. Evidently to them the federalism of the future is to be a federalism in administration rather than in legislation.

MODERN AGRICULTURE IN FRANCE.

BY H. BLERZY.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DE PARIS."

IT is often said that good farming is, above all things else, a matter of routine; and that the experience of old farmers is worth more than the theory of savants. In common opinion, experience outvalues science. Such a fact is not astonishing nor is there any cause in it for despair to progress.

In agriculture results are measured only at the end of the year, and the succeeding years do not resemble one another. Hail, frost, rain, and sunshine vary and make

necessary different treatment; that which succeeded in a dry year will fail in a wet season. What more reasonable, it is said, than to rely upon old customs which long observation supports? It is further said, not without reason sometimes, that among those who boldly practice new methods, few prosper, the greater number fail, and their example deters others.

Meanwhile, whoever has followed the work of the fields for a long series of years

cannot deny that agriculture has been transformed. Very many causes have united to effect this change, but it will suffice here to indicate only the most important. Chemistry has placed at the disposal of the farmer artificial fertilizers; vegetable physiology has taught what favors and what hinders the growth of plants; metallurgy has substituted iron for wood in all farming implements; manufacturing interests, which drew away from agriculture many strong arms, obliged the latter calling to replace the loss by the mechanical enginery which the former furnished; finally more abundant capital has been invested in rural improvement as well as in the enterprises of cities.

The soil, as nature offers it, is not always suited to agriculture. Sometimes it is too much impregnated with water and it is necessary to remedy it by draining; sometimes, on the contrary, it is too dry and irrigation is indispensable. Or, again, it may be necessary to free it from boulders and broken stones, or to extirpate a spontaneous vegetation which is a drain on the soil. To prepare for cultivation land which has been lying waste is an onerous work; and it is not only in new countries or in colonies that it is demanded. There are still six million hectares¹ uncultivated in France, and much more, proportionately, in Italy and Spain. In France one million six hundred thousand hectares have been cleared and made ready for cultivation since the establishment of the cadaster,² which dates back only half a century.

Cultivated by the hand of man or abandoned to wild growth, the land presents at the surface a dark looking layer which is designated by the name of soil, and which is the product of the decomposition of original matter. This part of the earth, in direct connection with the atmosphere, is the place where the roots of plants are developed. This upper layer is the laboratory of the agriculturist.

Considered as to its elements, arable land may be argillaceous,³ and then it retains too much water and is difficult to work; or it may be sandy and light, in which case the plow will turn it without much effort, but it

dries out very quickly in a hot season; it may be calcareous,⁴ it is said of it then that it is poor or lean because it is little fertile; or it may be turfy and marshy, when it is of an acid nature, improper for cultivation until it has been rendered wholesome by special work. Every kind of soil, taken in its natural state, demands a specific culture which long experience has revealed.

One of the greatest of modern necessities has been found to be the increasing of the productive power of land, and it is here that science has intervened to guide the farmer. From extensive cultivation he has been obliged to turn to that which is intensive, and to make the change he at once felt the need of better tools. The determining motive in all that has been accomplished in this direction has been the substitution of mechanical labor for the labor of man, for it is a law of progress, however grieved some minds may feel over it, that a smaller and continually smaller fraction of population shall be engaged in cultivating the soil.

Let us take any one of the operations of the farmer and see what perfection mechanical science and experience have introduced in the tools which he employs.

The primitive plow of the Arabs even after it was arranged so that a horse might be attached to it, exacted vigorous and continuous effort on the part of the plowman in order that the share should not deviate from a straight line nor from the proper depth. By suspending the share upon a pair of wheels, a constant direction was secured; and by prolonging it, under the form of a mold-board, the proper overthrowing of the clods of earth which it loosened was made certain. Some regulation screws permitted a variation as to the depth required by different kinds of soil. Thus constructed the iron plow required of its workman only the task of minding the horses and of turning it at the end of the furrow. There remained only one other progressive step—that of substituting steam for draft animals, and this was accomplished long since. The cost of working a steam plow is less, it is claimed, than that of any other, but the outlay at first is, of course, greater; and while its

work is more regular in character, it can be used to advantage only on large surfaces. It is much better adapted to lands in which farming is carried on on a large scale such as England, the United States, or Russia, than in France where small farms are the rule. In fact there are in France not more than fifteen or twenty steam plows while in England there are two thousand. In order fully to appreciate these figures it is necessary to add that there are in France four and one half million farmers who own together five million plows.

In all the other operations of farming, sowing, reaping, threshing, etc., science has largely replaced the old hand tools by artfully contrived machinery. The farm has become a workshop in which steam has largely replaced the work of horses and of man.

To give back to the soil that which the crops take away from it is an equation which the cultivator ought to solve each year. From time immemorial the barnyard has been depended upon to furnish the material needed for this work. It is a principle of long standing that the straw and the fodder from the land ought to be consumed there by animals. There should be taken away from the place only the harvested grain, the wool of the sheep, the increase of the flocks.

We must here call attention to vegetable physiology. The animals of the farm take nothing from it directly; but they, all herbivores,⁵ consume the vegetation which spoils it. But the plants contain carbon, oxygen, hydrogen, and nitrogen, four substances which, variously grouped, form what are called organic matters. They contain besides, different mineral matters, such as phosphorus, silicon, potassium, soda, lime, as may be found in the residuum after burning. Whence come all of these substances?

Plant life by means of its leaves absorbs carbonic acid from the atmosphere, decomposes it, and separately fixes within itself the carbon and the oxygen. Besides it obtains oxygen from the rain water which the soil absorbs; and from this water it also extracts hydrogen; here again, save in countries of extreme dryness, nature has provided

for the supplies. Thus the roots and the leaves directly absorb and assimilate that which the air and the soil present to them.

They cannot, however, obtain in this way their needed supply of nitrogen, although the atmosphere is an inexhaustible reservoir of this gas. It must undergo a transformation before it can be assimilated. Again, the nitrogen contained in vegetable or animal matters which are left on the soil ought to be separated from these substances which had once assimilated it and reduced to the state of nitric acid, before it is ready to serve again in the mysterious work of vegetation.

This phenomenon is called the nitrification of the soil. The soil which produces vegetation consumes these organic matters and transforms the nitrogen contained in them to nitric acid, and then it again combines oxygen and nitrogen in the atmosphere. What is the motive power, the ferment, of this operation? Probably special microbes disseminated in the soil. These same microbes are found also in brooks and rivers, but, however abundant they may be, they act slowly and both water and land which have been polluted with organic matters can be rendered wholesome again only after a considerable lapse of time.

It is then the office of a chemical laboratory which the arable soil performs and the different methods of working which the farmer gives it, plowing, harrowing, dressing, etc., have for their unconscious object the reanimation of these microbes which keep up this constant necessary exchange between the soil and the air.

It is indispensable to examine here the rôle played by fertilizers. One principle is thoroughly established: Something cannot be produced from nothing. If a farmer wishes every year a harvest from his land he must give back to the land the equivalent of what he takes from it. Again, if he wishes crops for which his land does not contain the required elements in sufficient abundance he must supply the elements.

Argillaceous land is too heavy; sand mellow it. Siliceous land is too light; clay remedies it. But it is rarely the case that

the two different soils are near to each other, and it has been thought that an exchange could not be effected between them at a rate of expense which would be less than the hoped for increase of value. Marl has been employed in France from time immemorial to ameliorate marshy lands. Certain districts owe to it a complete transformation, notably so Sologne, whither railroads and canals have brought it from long distances and at reduced prices.

Other mineral fertilizers are employed with success, such as the shelly sands upon the coast of Brittany and Normandy, the quick lime in Flanders; plaster is used everywhere in small quantities; phosphates in large quantities, since they are recognized now as one of the essential elements of the fertility of the soil.

All vegetable and animal life contains phosphate, the bony structure of the latter being largely composed of it,—hence the value of using bone dust on land. About forty years ago geologists discovered in France large deposits of phosphate of lime in the form of nodules. These, extracted, washed and dried in the sun, burned in ovens, and reduced to powder, are an excellent fertilizer.

Of not less commercial importance are the nitrate fertilizers. They are employed oftenest under the form of sulphate of ammonia or of nitrate of soda. The latter is found in Peru in inexhaustible deposits, and its effect upon the soil is immediate, hence in order to lose no part of it it should be used during the time of vegetation.

No one is ignorant of the great service which guano has rendered to the world for the last half century. Upon the western coast of Peru live multitudes of sea-birds, known by the name of guans, which live upon fish. Their excrement and their dead bodies form immense collections known as guano. These deposits are exceptionally rich in nitrogen and phosphate.

Marl, lime, plaster, salts of ammonia, phosphates, and guano are called mineral fertilizers, because they can be assimilated by the soil without undergoing any transformation. Of an opposite character are those

called organic fertilizers, which must be transformed, fermented, before being absorbed. They are of two classes, warm fertilizers, such as the blood and excrement of animals, and cold fertilizers, such as straw and leaves, the fermentation of which is very slow. The most efficacious of organic fertilizers has always been and doubtless for a long time will continue to be the product of the barnyard.

Thus chemical fertilizers are a necessary element to intensive farming. But unfortunately they are expensive, and the farmer has to wait six, eight, or ten months for any return from the outlay upon them. The usages of commerce ask that merchandise shall be paid for within three months after it is delivered. Agricultural credit cannot obey the same laws as industrial or commercial credit. Another great difficulty farmers have to meet is in distinguishing as to the worth of the different fertilizers offered for sale. Taste, touch, sight, reveal nothing as to the intrinsic value of the articles. Chemistry alone can disclose their worth. According to a law of 1888 the fabricator of fertilizers is obliged to label his productions, thus indicating to the purchaser the elements of which they are composed. Even this alone would in many cases remain inefficacious, for many farmers cannot read the chemical symbols. To aid them science has established in many arrondissements⁶ agricultural syndicates that understand their meaning and exercise a close watch over the whole enterprise, and thus secure the buyer against all falsifications.

Other particulars in which the art of invention plays a large part in farming are clearing, drainage, and irrigation. We wish to speak not of small works of these kinds which every farmer to a greater or less degree must carry on for himself, but of those in which large capital and a well prepared plan are required and which demand the supervision of the state or community. In Sologne and Dombes valuable work of this character has been done. The uncultivated land there is not of a good quality, being sandy and generally productive of

only heather, if not wholly arid. Work, however, has changed it to good productive soil. The first step taken is that of clearing away the brushwood and burning it. The soil is thus partially stirred and the ashes from the combustion are the first ingredient added, which renders it easily worked. Then it is necessary to dig down to a depth of from ten to fifteen or twenty inches and to apply phosphate. Next it is sowed with rye or buckwheat for two or three consecutive years. Sometimes the operation is complicated, as, for instance, if there are large stumps of trees or large rocks to be removed. Dynamite is then employed to great advantage, which not only breaks up the encumbrances to be removed but also upheaves the soil for great distances and renders easier the later working.

Much land lies waste in the form of marshes. Moreover they are pestilential. Submitted to the alternations of drouth and flood, according to the season, they favor the putrefaction of organic matter and engender fevers which decimate the population. Agricultural interests here are supplemented by sanitary interests, and it is this which explains why French legislation has always been ready to lend aid to the draining of marshes.

Engineers of bridges and of roadways have had occasion to execute in France works of drainage of great importance both to public health and to the general prosperity. Ditches and canals prolonged to the sea drained the land of Gascony which was formerly a marsh for six months in the year. Wells dug to a great depth furnished pure water; and paved roads rendered circulation easy at all times of the year.

Drainage is accomplished by another method when the land has much of a slope and the river carries much ooze. In this case the work aims to retard the water in its movement so that it will deposit its alluvion and elevate the land. This process in France is called *colmatage*. This alluvion is rich in nitrogen and in carbon. The fertility of the ooze of the Nile is legendary, as also is that of the southern rivers of France. A remarkable application of *col-*

matage is made in the valley of the Isère between Albertville and the ancient French frontier. There several thousands of hectares of land were furrowed by small streams and overflowed in wet seasons by water which destroyed all vegetation and deposited gravel. The work consisted first of damming back the Isère and its affluent, the Arc. Then the bordering lands were divided by means of small dikes into basins and through these dikes the water flowed with such slowness as to deposit its alluvion. The result is such that to-day the marshes have disappeared and are replaced by most valuable land.

This kind of operation is especially successful on the seashore. The drift of the sea appears in most bays and often forms shore islands which year by year grow in height and often become remarkably fertile. To isolate these by a dike and to drain them is an easy and fruitful task. In England there have been conquered thus seven hundred thousand hectares of land; in Holland whole provinces have no other origin. In France there are one hundred thousand hectares which might be reclaimed in this way.

Drouth is no less a scourge than inundation. According to the season, and according to the more or less permeable conditions of the soil and the more or less advanced stage of growth, the crop varies as to its need of water. A small part of the water which the plants absorb remains in their tissues, a more considerable part, absorbed by the roots, is evaporated from the leaves in the form of gas. And, not least, water is the vehicle which transports and disseminates the fertilizing principles.

There have been executed in France great works for regulating the water supplies for cities and for the canals of navigation. Sources have been guarded, reservoirs constructed, aqueducts built. Agriculture has only to resort to the same means. Several small attempts in this direction have been made. In Vosges and Limousin, where the sources are found at a great height, the countrymen turn the water by means of simple obstructions of earth so as to water their land.

The amount of water needed to supply arid land is immense. The mode of supplying it must vary according to circumstances. When the surface to be watered is small, as is the case in kitchen gardening, pumps or very simple engines may be employed similar to those which are found in Tunis, Egypt, and India. When vast surfaces are to be covered a steam engine is needed. When there is a sufficient incline a canal midway on the slope as a reservoir from which branch off numerous smaller canals leading the water where it is desired is a comparatively successful plan of procedure. This is the system employed in the south of France. But in the flow of so inert a body of water there is great loss from evaporation and from seepage.¹

We must note also that certain growths require more than a simple irrigation. Rice plantations, cereals, and sometimes meadows call for a complete submersion. And this process is resorted to now to combat the phylloxera^a when vineyards are planted on low land. The submersion of the vines should be continued through forty or forty-five days, else the harmful insect is capable of reviving.

There have been constructed in Algeria since its French occupation, and also in Spain, reservoirs which retain the rising waters of rivers and distribute them during the dry season to farmers living along their shores. These are constructions of a very difficult nature for there is always the risk of the barriers' giving way from the awful pressure of the water they restrain.

Among the means of supplying water must be mentioned that of artesian wells^a which vivify the oases of Algeria. This region of sand depends absolutely upon this artificial supply of water. French industry has given to its natives the means of increasing at least tenfold the resources as to water supply which they before possessed. This region occupies a basin the bottom of which often descends to a level below the Mediterranean, and from its depths the water rises through the wells to a great height.

What are the conclusions to be reached

regarding irrigation? First, that irrigated lands ought to be permeable; it is even preferable that they be drained, for the drainage pipes would receive only the superabundant water; besides they would cause a circulation of the air which would consume the organic matter deposited. Moreover, the reservoirs of overflow water containing much foreign matter should not be allowed to distribute their contents where this matter would not be rendered harmless by the action of the soil. Finally, irrigated lands ought always to be well worked in order that their microbes should always retain their natural activity.

Looking back over the list of agricultural ameliorations which we have just enumerated we are convinced that the science of farming has made great progress during the second half of the nineteenth century. And in this enumeration more points have been omitted than selected. Nothing has been said regarding the new cultivations introduced into the country, such as the sugar beet industry, almost unknown to our grandfathers. At the same time, the animals which nourish the farm have been perfected by intelligent selection. The cow furnishes more milk, the beef cattle more meat. Finer breeds of horses are being constantly raised. All nations have been experimenting with a view to cultivating that for which each is best adapted; and the rapid increase and betterment in the means of communication by railroads, canals, and wagon roads have greatly furthered these experiments.

Meanwhile it must be admitted that agriculture as a calling is not prosperous in France. The price of provisions is disgracefully low; the rent of land is high. Several economic causes concur without doubt, in this unhappy result. We can but hope that these conditions will be transitory. The rural population, the most industrious in the country, should not be condemned to a miserable life; landed property ought not to cease to be what it has been in all time, the least fugitive form of wealth. Scientific agriculturists who have done much will by continuing their labors succeed in vanquishing all the difficulties of the present time.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[Nov. 4.]

CHRISTIANITY AND FAMILY LIFE.

WE proceed, in the first place, to trace the influence of these ideas on *the family*. It is here that we see perhaps the most remarkable effect of Christianity; since it is not so much by its larger results as by its finer products that a moral force is to be estimated. And the whole aspect of family life has been changed and elevated by Christ.

(a) And let us note what He did for *children*. In all the national types of family life existing at the time of Christ, the head of the house exercised an irresponsible power. He consulted only the interests of the state. The life and liberties of wife and children were in his hands. The Roman law, like the Aryan, and all ancient law, made the child the absolute property of the father—an idea that explains, no doubt, though it could never justify, the barbarous practice of human sacrifices. A son had no individual rights and claims, but was liable to be sold or killed at the will of the parent. In a legal sense he was worse off than a slave. The law of the Twelve Tables¹ authorized a father either to abandon or to kill his deformed children, if he preferred not to rear them. The father could take their property, and marry and divorce them at pleasure; and the sons could escape only by a sale of their persons. Philosophers, such as Plato and Aristotle,² justified such customs.

Now Christ's teaching checked such unlicensed tyranny. In calling God "Father," the idea of *human* fatherhood became a more sacred thing; and in calling man "*son*"—a son of God—the idea of personal rights, whether of a parent or a child, came to be recognized. The Christian legislation of Valentinian³ and Justinian⁴ still further protected a son, and extended to him his rights. Infanticide, permitted and legalized as it has

been in so many countries, aroused the indignation of the early Christians; and other inhuman practices, such as the abandonment and systematic exposure of the children⁵ of the poor, and the female or defective children of the rich, afforded ample scope for sympathy and help. And there was in almost all cases a natural love for their own offspring in the parents' hearts; yet very often these little ones were taken by witches for their incantations, oftener by slave dealers for immoral purposes.

Stoical⁶ philosophy was powerless, but the Christian declared that "to expose a child was to kill him." "Whosoever shall find such an one," was the public proclamation, "shall bring him to the church"; and the Christian church gathered these unfortunates into houses of mercy, orphan asylums, and hospitals—a fact abundantly proved by the epitaphs in the catacombs;⁷ and from these have sprung the numerous refuges, reformatories, industrial schools, and other charities of modern times—the care for the foundling and the ill-used, the sick and the afflicted, the deaf and the dumb—thus carrying out the practical religion of Him who showed such tenderness for, and set such value on, the little child.

Indeed, from the earliest centuries, the church was connected with the school; councils and synods everywhere ordered the education of the young; for to that true view of life and of the world, given by Christianity, which constitutes the highest culture, the young cannot be too early introduced. In the ancient republics the noble mission of training mind and soul was delegated to the *slave*: the church entrusted the care to pious *mothers*.

The advent of Christ was the true "triumph of the innocents." The sacredness of infancy dates from the time when the Babe of Bethlehem lay in His obscure cradle; and when Christ afterwards took the little ones

in His arms, throwing around their helplessness the Divine protection of His love, and said, "Of such is the kingdom of heaven," the "coronation of childhood" took place. Thus Christ, by making childhood the very type of the kingdom of purity and love, taught men effectually to reverence it.

(*b*) In the second place, if Christianity has thus recognized the rights of children, it has done even more for *woman*: and the new conception of man's duty to man has completely changed woman's place and relation in the modern world. In India and China, in Greece and Rome, it was alike declared that "woman was not fit for independence." A contemptuous distrust of the female sex rendered laws and society toward her harshly oppressive. In the golden days of Grecian civilization, when Sophocles wrote and Pericles ruled and Socrates taught, when men had to go back to the pages of Homer or to the pictures of the dramatists for their ideals of female excellence, the idea was scoffed at that wives could claim to be the equals of their husbands, or that women should share the same education as men.

Aristotle regarded women as "beings of a certain intermediate order between free-men and slaves." A woman was always a minor, and never free. The wife became her husband's adopted ward—his property; and for even petty offenses he had at least a qualified power over her life. Divorce was a daily occurrence. Juvenal⁸ tells us of the woman who had eight husbands in five years. Even Plato suggested a community of wives, for political purposes. Marriage was a union formed in the interest of the state, and had no moral importance. Concubinage was legalized by Augustus.⁹ Modesty was "a presumption of ugliness." Family vice was rampant.

There was a decay of all that is pure and noble in womanly character—one cause of the decay of Sparta; and her wrongs only began to be avenged when the Roman Empire fell before those wild Germanic tribes, who, with all their fierceness, cultivated the domestic virtues, and cherished a chivalrous respect for their women. But even German manliness and purity suffered from contact

with Roman and Greek vices; and had it not been for another power—the restraining and elevating spirit of Christianity—the German character would soon have lost its native nobleness.

(*c*) The *idea of marriage* was very low even among the Germans. A woman was bought like any other property; and the system of tutelage or guardianship, though very different from the Roman, gave the husband absolute authority—the right to sell, or punish, or even kill his wife.

The equal obligation of the law of purity on the man as well as on the woman, is the great natural law of that kingdom of which Christ has made us citizens. The spirit of the New Testament is the spirit of equality; and it is this spirit which condemns institutions, such as polygamy and slavery, which are based on inequality; on the making of one law for the man and another for the woman; one for the rich and another for the poor; and those social, legal, and political rights which women are now beginning to enjoy in all civilized countries, received their first form, and have been slowly won, through that new conception of woman which Christ gave to the world.

The base selfishness and caprice of men have met with a stern master in Christianity. It set its face against free marriage and easy divorce; and adultery was early punished as a heinous crime. Tertullian¹⁰ tells us how the violation of chastity was to the Christians more dreadful than any form of punishment or death, and was so acknowledged by their enemies. The Christian idea of marriage is the highest the world has seen. So sacred is the union of soul, that it is likened by the first Christian writers to the union of Christ with the souls of true believers—the noblest image that could be found of protective tenderness and self-sacrificing love. In Justinian's legislation, we see the influence of this idea. "Nothing in human affairs," he says, "is so much to be venerated as marriage"; and he warns all to abstain from those unnatural vices of sensuality which Christian thought cannot even picture, but of which Greek and Latin literature is full.

No philosophy, and no religion but Christianity, is known to have rescued mankind from such abominable practices. Stoical influence tried to check them, but with little success. Under Marcus Aurelius,¹¹ there was an attempt at the revival of purity and social duty; but the inspiration faded. Prosperity and luxury and household slavery made both the Roman and Greek experiment in family life to be a failure; and it was not until Christ came, "born of a woman," and made holy women the companions of His ministry, that the sex was emancipated and raised. Women ceased to be the toys or slaves of men's lust or laziness; and became queens of the hearth, teachers and mothers in the church, counselors and benefactresses; gaining that position which has since come to be the chief index of the highest civilization.

It was that Divine grace which glorified gentleness, and consecrated purity, and showed the church as "the Bride of Christ," which He has loved and for which He gave Himself, that has effected this marvelous change in the condition and relations of woman; and through her, in the constitution of family life, and in the whole complexion of society. And there is no more striking proof of the heavenly power of Christ's religion than that, out of the moral corruption of these ancient intellectual nations, there should have sprung "a flower so exquisite and so fragrant as Christian family life."

[Nov. 11.]

CHRISTIANITY AND SOCIAL LIFE.

BUT we must pass now to notice the influence of the new faith—the effect produced by Christian ideas—on *social and national life* and its relations.

There were many social evils existing in the time of Christ, as they have existed in every age; and in preaching the spiritual equality of all men, as children of the one Father—a great fundamental doctrine that underlay all His teaching—He laid the foundation of the only economy, political or social, which would be found to work, and taught that the mutual bearing of burdens,

and brotherly co-operation, and self-sacrifice, formed the law of human life. This Christian law of the moral obligation of man to man—quite a different sentiment from mere scientific altruism—has wrought a wonderful change in the relation of human societies toward the poor, the uncultured, and the dependent. Constantine,¹² and after him, Valentinian I. and Honorius,¹³ passed measures of justice in behalf of the weak and the oppressed; being convinced that "true worship consists in helping the poor and needy."

(a) In the social evils referred to, the working classes were, and always have been, the most involved; and when Christianity came into the world, labor meant in most cases *slavery*. There were few wage-earners. The labor of society was done by slaves. Honest work was despised as servile. Husbandmen and artisans were held to be incapable of greatness of soul. And this "right of laziness" became one of the most active causes of the fall of the Roman Empire. This detestable system of slavery, which denied that men were spiritually equal, and made some the property of others, was firmly rooted in human society when Christ appeared. Even philosophers and patriots upheld it. The slave was not regarded as a man. Aristotle calls him "an animated tool." He had no rights; no relation to society; none to God. It was a common remark: "Do the divinities then care for slaves?" The Stoical spirit, noble as it was, had little influence here. Seneca and Epicuretus, Pliny, and Plutarch,¹⁴ and Marcus Aurelius felt that slavery was contrary to nature; but Seneca relates how a certain Stoic amused himself by feeding his fish with fragments of his mutilated slaves.

When, however, the humane influence of the new faith began to work, we see, not the immediate emancipation of slaves, but a gradual amelioration of their lot. Christ acted with the truest wisdom when He entered on no avowed contest with this iniquity, which would have destroyed the fabric of society altogether. In certain stages of social development slavery may be the best thing practicable—"relatively good," as

Herbert Spencer holds, "though absolutely bad"; and General Gordon drew a distinction between slave-raids and domestic slavery; but Christ's broad, deep teachings of humanity gradually melt the fetters of the slave, and the degradation becomes impossible.

What the religion of Christ first did was to convert the slave, while still a slave, from being a tool to being an industrious workman, thus adding a new dignity to labor—the main source of national prosperity. The urgent need was to free *souls*. The natural feelings of a baptized bondman, who knew himself to be a freeman in Christ, would be those of resentment against the mastership of a heathen lord; nevertheless slaves were charged to be obedient to their masters, while Christian masters were to regard their slaves as "brothers beloved," to teach them a handicraft, and then set them free. This change went on for some centuries, till we find, in what became the Christian empire, the labor question advancing, and guilds and corporations of artisans working, not for masters, but for their own benefit; from which were produced great artists, such as built the cathedrals of Cologne and Strassburg.

[*Nov. 18.*]

In the early church, which was far in advance of the civil legislation of the times, there was to be no "bond and free." The only real slavery is sin—common to master and servant. The slave was put on the same spiritual footing with his owner; both met, redeemed by the same blood, side by side, at their Lord's Table, and received the memorials of His dying love. In the church's earliest liturgy, there was a prayer "for them that suffer in bitter bondage"; and "manumission," or the emancipation of a slave, became a common act of piety to God. "To buy a slave was to gain a soul." The laws of Constantine, and still more of Justinian, amply show the working of the new spirit upon the legislation and customs of the time. Everything tended in the direction of liberty. We meet with such an expression as "the intuition of humanity"—a concep-

tion foreign to the philosophy and poetry of the ancient world.

Christian legislation also prevented the employment of slaves in those cruel and licentious shows which, at the dawn of Christianity, afforded the highest gratification to the Roman people. The melancholy citizen went to see men killed "as a distraction." Under Trajan, as many as ten thousand prisoners and gladiators supplied brutal sport in the amphitheaters; the feeling of pity and of humanity did not exist. Under the first *Christian* emperor, all gladiators were "prohibited from carrying on their profession." Christian sentiment waged successful war against such barbarities, and did away with these human sacrifices. The wild licentiousness, too, of the stage was restrained; Constantine and Theodosius¹⁸ the Great prohibited the "shameful spectacles"; the selling of women and children for its entertainments, and for immoral purposes was forbidden; and the church excluded from communion all who participated in such abominations.

Still, slavery was not easily abolished. The barbarian conquests re-established it in a new form, and we meet with it in the Middle Ages; but the slave markets of Europe were gradually removed. Its abolition in Scandinavia was the direct result of one of the first Christian kings. Thirty-seven church councils passed acts favorable to slaves. The selling one "for whom Christ died" was condemned as the deepest offense. On Christian festivals, prisoners were freed "in the name of Christ."

The liberating influence of Christ's teaching on the slaves or serfs themselves is seen very forcibly in the revolts of the German peasants in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The gospel message, proclaimed afresh in the Protestant Reformation, fell as good news on those down-trodden masses of society; and they were quick to see that such injustice as that under which they groaned was not to be reconciled with the teachings of Christ. Serfdom was undermined, and the principles of freedom took a deeper root.

Later on, and coming down into modern

history, we have all the horrors of the African and American slave trade, till, by the exertions of such philanthropists as Sharp, Wilberforce, and Clarkson,¹⁶ England is brought to see its duty in the matter, and pays down, exactly eighteen hundred years after Christ died, her twenty millions of money to free her last slave. Thirty years later, at the price of one of the greatest wars of history, America has to knock the last shackle off her last slave in obedience to Christ. Freedom and justice must ultimately prevail, when a religion spreads abroad the ideas of *human brotherhood* and *equality* before God. Christ created an atmosphere in which slavery could not live, and the time will come when oppression of every form will cease. Other forces have no doubt been at work, side by side with the religious motive; but "the great Emancipator in history is Jesus Christ." "Where the spirit of the Lord is, there is liberty."

What do we see now in Christian countries? In the place of slaves and serfs, the working classes, who, with their growing liberties, powers, and prospects, are a distinct creation of the religion of Christ, and for whom there is no social feature of Christianity more important than *the dignity it confers on labor*. According to the New Testament the moral way to acquire property is, not to try to enlist chance on our side by turning the wheel of fortune, but *to work*: "if any will not work, neither let him eat." And as a means of doing good, of administering charity, men must work.

Christ taught by precept, and by example, that the greatest love consisted in *service*, and nothing tended more to raise the condition of slaves than this essentially Christian idea. The name of "servant," so despised by pagan society, became for Christians the most honorable title.

(b) Again the influence of the religion of love on the half savage tribes of Europe was early seen in the control of revengeful passions, and bitter hatred, and cruel superstitions. Ordeals by fire and water, and other superstitious tests for finding out the will of God, were made illegal, as being utterly opposed to the teaching of Christ. Personal

feuds and blood revenge were gradually abolished; public justice took the place of private feuds; and unbridled men were brought under law and government. Private and unrestrained war, which left so many desolated homes, and nearly reduced Europe to anarchy, was checked; and enemies were reconciled in a remarkable manner by the religious fraternities of the Middle Ages, that traversed the country on a crusade of peace proclaiming what was called "The Truce of God." No less than thirty Christian councils in different parts of Europe proclaimed this "Peace of God"; and under the magic power of the new spirit the savage storms of strife were quelled; and for months and years the bloody swords were left to rust—an earnest of the time when, as the Bible says, "men shall beat their swords into plowshares, and their spears into pruning-hooks; and nations shall learn war no more."

(c) On the general question of *war* itself—"the gigantic evil of history"—we can only touch. It is true that Christ laid down no set precept against war; and it is difficult to reason against a proper defense of secular rights, whether by individuals or by states. It is also true that war may give occasion for the display of some noble qualities, though it oftener, as Shelley says, extinguishes the sentiment of reason and justice in the mind, and fosters a confidence in mere brute force. But it is undeniable that the spirit of Christ's entire teaching is to disarm the hatred of men, and to lead nations to live at peace. Everyone will admit that whatever may have been the practice of Christian nations—and the wars of Christendom have been most shameful, and, owing in modern times to the very refinements and general complexity of civilization, on a vaster and more terrible scale than ever—the spirit of Jesus is utterly opposed to war; and it is with *His* spirit and teaching, and not with the conduct of His professed followers, that we are dealing.

In the Roman period, as Christ's religion spread, war was discouraged; many in the early church maintaining that no Christian could be a soldier. The first Christians were called "priests of peace"; and sure it

is that as the principles of the Prince of Peace extend, and His kingdom of universal love and brotherhood is established in the earth, there will be an end of war.

Even now peace is recognized among Christian states as the normal condition; and every device is employed to avert an outbreak of war, which is becoming limited, more and more, to those disputes which are felt on both sides to involve the liberties, and even the existence, of nations. The ancient law of retaliation is now almost wholly repudiated; and there has been a growing disposition to settle disputes by arbitration and mediation.

[Nov. 25.]

THAT forces like these which have changed Europe from barbarism to civilization, were *essentially Christian*, and *due to Christian motives*, is abundantly evident from a perusal of the chronicles of the period, and from the legislation of the times. It was Christ's teaching that changed the laws; and it is the laws that have shaped our civilization.

It was this new and living force, breathing justice and mercy, thus early impressed on the laws of Britain, that gradually built up, through succeeding centuries, the British nation, and has been the secret of all its greatness.

Such, then, are some of the social and political results which Christianity has wrought in the world, victories which no other re-

ligion has won, and which it has succeeded in winning amidst opposing forces which have waged war against it on every hand.

It is a force, springing, as we have seen, from a *true and worthy conception of God* as caring for man, and from the *consequent worth and dignity of man* as God's child, and therefore caring for his brother man, that has exerted such beneficent influence on national legislation, and on the domestic morals and social practices of mankind. A religion which can produce results such as these must surely be of God; and being of God it demands the wholehearted allegiance of reasonable beings.

One reason why Christ and His benign religion do not get the credit that they should, is because the victories they achieve are silent victories; victories won first of all in the individual heart and life, secretly imbued with Christ's principles, and transformed by love to Him through the indwelling of His Spirit; then through the individual these victories lead to the noiseless disappearance of great social abuses, and to the gradual growth of justice, benevolence, purity, and truth. Spiritual forces are always silent; and silently but surely these are working around us now. They have *proved* their tonic and inspiring properties in a thousand ways: where is the man or the community that will not welcome them to heart and home?—*The Rev. T. E. Slater.*

THE NEWSPAPER PRESS OF THE UNITED STATES.

BY FRANKLIN MATTHEWS.

IN the year 1810 the United States had twenty-seven daily newspapers, all told.

The population at that time was 7,250,000. At the close of the year 1893 there were published in the United States 1,855 daily newspapers and the population was at the most about 70,000,000. In that lapse of time the population had increased ten fold but the increase of the daily newspapers, to say nothing of the growth of the other publications of the country, was more than

sixty-five fold. In a general sense it may be said, of course, that this enormous growth of the newspapers is due to the development of the people in that time but this statement will not cover the case when we come to examine into the details.

It is undeniably the fact that the English speaking people publish and read fully forty per cent of all the newspapers of the world and that of the English speaking people those in the United States have made greater

progress in the production of newspapers than any other. In no other country of the globe do the daily and other newspapers so flourish as in the United States. This has been due, one might say off-hand, to the fact that the demand has been greater here, but if we would know the reason for this demand we must go deeper into the subject than the study of statistics of population. The development of newspapers, like the development of any other business—in writing this article I prefer to regard newspapers as the product of a business rather than a profession—has been the result of forces and agencies beyond their immediate control as well as of those which they have controlled.

But there is probably no business of great extent in the country that has prospered so much through the agency of outside influences as has the publication of newspapers. There have been scores of improvements made within the publication houses and these have had their legitimate effect, but the prosperity that has come to the business through inventions and improvements outside the publication houses has been greater than that which has come through internal improvements. Railroads, the telegraph and telephone have brought more of the increase in the newspapers than have improved presses and advanced mechanical methods of publication.

It has always seemed to me that the reason the newspaper business has grown more rapidly in this country than in any other is because of our national politics. Universal suffrage was tried here first. Every man had a personal interest in the government and every man wanted to know the news, especially in political life. In the earlier days of the republic this meant a matter of life and death not only to certain individuals but also to the greatest experiment in government that the world had ever known.

The papers were fewer then relatively than now because the great inventions of the present time had not come and because the population had not developed that nervous craving for immediate satisfaction of curiosity and interest that is manifested now. Po-

litical life was keener in this country than in any other and this is recognized to this day in the fact that the news of most importance, aside from great calamities and wonderful phenomena of nature, is national political news. Washington interests the people more than any other city, as a people, and the newspapers show this by displaying as their most important news that which comes from the national capital.

Recent legislation has also shown this. The tariff is at best a dry subject to the general reader, but what person of intelligence has not been intensely interested in the great fight that was going on in Washington during two thirds of the year of 1894? It meant money to every one, no matter how remotely he might be affected and no subject occupied so much space in our newspapers as the tariff struggles. From the very beginnings of our history this interest in national affairs has been intense. Events have moved so rapidly with us that there has been no lagging and from our constitution as a people we have demanded to know the news of the state of the country.

Some of our great editors have known little else than national politics. Mr. Greeley thought everything else of little importance beside national affairs, and in them he moved and had his chief newspaper existence. So did all the others, practically, and to this day the strong reason for the existence of most of our journals is the furtherance of politics in its largest sense.

Remembering this then as the chief cause for the existence of most of our newspapers let us examine into some of the reasons for their wonderful growth. No newspaper can live without the fullest opportunities for its distribution. Many have died because the facilities in this respect have been denied to them by competitors. In 1840 the 27 daily newspapers of 1810 had grown to the number of 138. The era of railroads had appeared. Ten years later the number of daily newspapers was 250, a very rapid growth. Ten years later they had increased to 387; ten years later, 574; ten years later, 971; ten years later (the year 1890) there were 1,700 daily newspapers, and three

years later the figures were 1,855. Now any one who knows or has studied the growth of railroads in this country can see an intimate relation to it in the growth of the newspaper business.

In the early thirties newspapers were distributed through the famous pony-expresses of that day. It is interesting to read now of the fierce competition in that regard. Even later, the New York newspapers had many a fierce contest. The *Herald* and *Sun* used to fight many a battle between New York and Boston. When a steamer arrived in Boston from Europe special trains used to be hired and the news rushed as far as Stonington and then whisked on a boat, the railroad to New York not having been completed, and then special editions were hurried on the streets. In this way many famous "beats" were recorded.

Sometimes the news was put in type in Boston, especially if Sunday intervened between the reception of the news and its publication, and then the pages, ready for printing, would be transported entire from one city to the other. The completion of the railroad systems of the country has changed all this and now that railroad building on an extended scale has ceased the proportionate increase of newspapers seems to be falling off and the growth seems to be along the lines of improvements within their own control.

In 1844 there came the telegraph as a factor in newspaper growth. This operated at once in the field of national politics. The first successful telegraph line for newspaper use ran from Washington to Wilmington, Delaware. It became possible for the New York newspapers to get news from Washington through in twenty-four hours instead of two days by pony-expresses. At once the circulation jumped, the chronicles say, and immediately more newspapers sprang into existence.

What is true to-day was true then,—New York newspapers were the mainspring of the existence or the inspiration for most of the others of the country. Even now New York sets the pace as to quality if not as to quantity. The introduction of the tel-

egraph was a most notable reason for this. It was a great achievement to be able to print at the head of a piece of news that it came by telegraph. Some of the newspapers to this day make a feature of that in their special despatches, the fiction being, I suppose, that news coming under such conditions must be more interesting than news that comes in the ordinary way by general news agencies that supply all the newspapers in common. The telegraph also was a great incentive in the collection of news and that has developed newspapers quite as much as the increased facilities of distribution.

Many of the leading newspapers of the country now pay as much as \$100,000 a year for their special despatches and already the press associations have reached the enormous figures of a billion words a year sent out by telegraph.

The telegraph is also responsible for the creation of the press associations which have been the mainstay of all papers, especially in the smaller towns. When the telegraph first came into use it was found that the newspapers could neither stand the expense nor obtain the facilities to send all the news that it was desirable to send. This led to a combination whereby they all received one report and this was supplemented by special reports, as it is to this day, according as each newspaper desired to spread before its readers the news. It is difficult to tell which has had the greatest influence in the development of newspapers, the railroads or the telegraph, but it is safe to say that without either of them the newspapers would not be what they are now. The one affected the distribution and the other the collection of news.

Within the last ten years the telephone has entered enormously into the making of newspapers. It is doubtful if the readers of the papers appreciate this fact fully. There are scores of items published every day in the newspapers that reporters telephone to their offices just in time to secure publication. In the old way of doing business the office was kept in ignorance of the condition of affairs until the reporters reached the place. Now

it is possible to send a word or two that means volumes to the reader. In the matter of fires in a big city this is especially noticeable and also in time of great excitement.

In Chicago during the great Pullman strike the telephone was in constant use and the whole country profited by it, for telegrams were at once put on the wires and the country was informed of the situation which otherwise would not have been known until the next day. This was of great value, especially in military operations. The newspaper business of to-day, it is safe to say, could no more do without the telephone than it could do without the railroads or the telegraph.

So much for the outside agencies that have helped develop the newspapers of the country. Inside the offices, of course, the first great improvement was the substitution of steam for hand power in running the presses. That made larger editions possible. Steam came into use in 1835. In 1847 there came the so-called "lightning presses" and ten years later there came the perfecting presses. Improvements came rapidly until now we have those wonderful pieces of mechanism that cost well on to \$100,000 each and print faster than the eye can catch the fall of the sheets and from eight to twenty pages in a sheet, all folded and cut, ready for instant distribution. The printing press of the present, a modern warship possibly excepted, is the most delicate and complicated piece of machinery in general use and comprehensive treatment of it would require an article of itself. Therefore it is not necessary to enlarge upon this side of the subject, for every one knows more or less how fast presses have contributed to the growth of newspapers.

In the year 1861 stereotyping came into use and to this internal improvement may be ascribed a greater part of the wonderful growth of newspapers since that time. By this process in a few minutes publishers were enabled to duplicate as many of their pages as they desired and they were thus also enabled to keep as many presses going as they wished. It was no longer necessary to print from the type and had this process not been invented the large and quick edi-

tions of this day could not be published.

This in a general way accounts for the growth of our newspapers. In addition to all this there have come new standards of news as the years have gone by. Politics is no longer the exclusive news of the day. All matter of human interest of every degree now plays its part. We are more interested in the trifling things of life than we used to be and the fields of science, religion, philosophy, psychology, and human nature are the legitimate domain of the newspaper of to-day. Human passion, human achievement, and human desires constitute the field now. The great question of life in all its forms is the constant theme.

This large field has led to a great variety of newspapers. As there are merchants who prefer to sell one kind of goods to another, so there are publishers who prefer to print certain kinds of newspapers to others. One merchant prefers to sell dry goods or hardware and another has no scruples against selling liquor. So in the newspaper world one man prefers to print a newspaper of high grade and another, for the gain that comes to him, traffics on a low plane, and thus the sum total is made up.

Taken all in all, however, I think that what Charles Dudley Warner once said is true emphatically, that the newspapers of any community are always a little ahead of the community in intelligence, refinement, and the matter of good English. They are the mirrors of the life of the people. They are precisely what the masses want them to be.

American newspapers are different from English newspapers because Americans are different from Englishmen, and for no other reason. In these days the newspapers exist almost solely for gain and all those who are conversant with causes and springs of action in social life realize that they are the safeguard of the public and the Republic. They will become better when the real people demand that they shall be better and not until then. Every year they improve morally and every year adds to their influence and their permanency as an institution of modern life.

Perhaps I could conclude this article in no

better way than to give these figures of the extent of the business at the present time : In addition to the 1,835 daily newspapers published in the United States on the first of January, 1894, there were 31 papers published every other day, 235 published twice a week, 14,017 published every week, 85 every two weeks, 349 twice a month, 3,125 every month, 307 every two months. Altogether there were 20,006 papers in existence on that day in the United States against

about 150 in 1800. Of the daily newspapers, the first of which was printed in this country in the year 1782, not more than four are in existence to-day of those which saw the beginning of the present century and of these the oldest is the *North American* of Philadelphia. The total issue of the publications of the present day in this country is probably not far from 4,000,000,000 copies a year and of this amount New York City probably furnishes nearly one fifth.

THE GERMANY OF TO-DAY.

BY SIDNEY WHITMAN.

IT is many years ago now since Samuel Taylor Coleridge, the English poet, visited Germany, and could find nothing better to say of the town of Cologne, than that it was the abode of ugly wenches and nasty stench. That was long before the Germans had realized the practical (*das Praktische*) which in our time was destined to enable them to crown the edifice hitherto built up dreamily by philosophic ideality. The Germans were as yet a stay-at-home people who had seen little or nothing of the world, when Alexander von Humboldt, under the patronage of Prussian royalty, gave an impulse to the whole nation by his travels and research. His almost Aristotelian universality attracted the attention of the intellect of the country and opened up a new scope of national interest : the affairs of the transoceanic world at large. An interest this, which the Germans were destined to turn to wonderfully good account some day—as is clearly shown in our time by the enormous colonial trade, in the hands of Germans.

Still even fifty years ago there was little tangible evidence of the great practical possibilities open to the German nation. But already then, a few shrewd observers saw well beneath the surface. Not to mention Thomas Carlyle, a novel-writer and keensighted man of the world as well, Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton, roundly declared Prussia

to be the best governed country in Europe.

Little did he or others dream that this "good" government should so soon and so swiftly come to be translated into great deeds of war and peace, for the specialty for such had long been held to belong to others. Theory, learning, and ideality were all very well for the unkempt Teuton ; but union, celerity, the cyclonic smashing of the foe,—these were not to be expected of the somewhat awkward sons of the Fatherland. Thus, great was the surprise of public opinion at large, when the clarion of war first and suddenly revealed what had been silently nurtured in town and village by plain living, high thinking, and good government.

A vast military system, so often and unjustly decried, has taught iron discipline to a whole nation ; a subordination of the unit, a subordination of self, such as the world had never seen since the days of Sparta—and, what is more, a self-subordination having its root, not in fear or tyranny but in a carefully nurtured spiritual instinct of honor and duty. It was this which made a united Germany, born on the battlefield, possible.

When the outside world had recovered from its surprise—the surprise of the world being a significant factor accompanying every great event in history—there they were, the tangible results of all the plodding, the honest hard work done in poverty in the past.

After two centuries of national suffering and misery—the curse of the Thirty Years' War had been lifted from the country, a victorious nation—led by a great monarch, possessing great strategists and, judging by results, the greatest statesman, perhaps, of all time! It was indeed strange, that all these rare elements should have been found simultaneously present among a people hitherto distinguished by the lack of each of them. And stranger still it would seem to us, that so few have been the inquiries into the true sources of it all; at most that people have been satisfied to find mechanical solutions where spiritual keys alone could solve the riddle.

But more surprise still was in store! A nation had hardly risen by the art of war, than it already turned to the arts of peace with rare vigor and success. Not that the Germans have as yet again shone in those arts which produced a Cathedral of Strassburg, a Holbein,¹ a Dürer,² and a Rembrandt.³ This time it is music which lends its accompaniment to an epoch of martial greatness. Striking indeed it is to note that Germany of this eventful period should have brought forth the greatest musical genius the world has seen since the days of Beethoven.⁴

The mythical Rhinedaughters⁵ rise from the river, and Siegfried⁷ forges his sword anew to the sound of marching armies. The Twilight of the Gods completes the Nibelungen Tetralogy⁸ which forms the grandest of historical allegories. The Master-singers of Nürnberg fittingly illustrate a great period of German civic dignity and culture—the blessings of peace. And lastly the note of altruistic⁹ self-abnegation is struck in "Parzival," as it were to point onward, where the hope of the future must lie! It is a German king (Ludwig II., of Bavaria) to whom the great composer is indebted for material assistance in these mighty products of genius, and who, in the spirit of medieval ideality writes to the composer: "I glory in the prospect of being able to devote my best energies to the furtherance of your great national work."

But neither victory nor song led to national intoxication. The sword was sheathed

and the pen of the organizer, the pencil of the draftsman, the compass, the trowel, the pickaxe and shovel were taken in hand. The great minds who directed the national destinies were not content to rest on their laurels. Every department, even the victorious army, was carefully reorganized. The German post office and telegraph systems, formerly a byword—soon became a model for the rest of Europe to copy. The German railways likewise, largely state property, from being behind the time have, as well as the post office service, become mainly subservient to and the powerful furtherers of national industry and commerce: this to an extent met with again only in Hungary.

Stately public buildings have been raised all over the country, which, if not always irreproachable in style, at least give an imposing appearance to many German towns by their large proportions. While a shortsighted and humanly envious world was hypocritically lamenting the inevitable pauperism and bankruptcy which must result from the keeping up of a huge standing army, capital was forthcoming on every side and national wealth was increasing by "leaps and bounds." Already the outward aspect of German towns is in keeping with the upward tendency of things. Money has changed hands over bricks and mortar to an extent only to be met with in the annals of the United States.

The city of Berlin has become within the short span of twenty years one of the finest of the world and is seemingly destined to be *the* town of the future on the European continent. It is already said to be the best governed city of the present day. No wonder such is the case, for the office of mayor of a great German town is one to which only men of acknowledged ability and unblemished standing are likely to be elected. It is a post of high honor and dutiful responsibility; not one for the gratification of vulgar seeking or vanity.

We can even read in American magazines what German cities do for their citizens, of the extreme cleanliness of German towns, of the small cost at which the authorities manage to secure cleanliness. In fact, the

description is such that an English paper, in referring to it, is fain to concede that it reads like a fairy tale. And yet it is only sober truth. Whatever the criminal statistics of German towns may be, one thing is certain, namely, that the pitiful squalid shabbiness, the filth and drunkenness (of both sexes) so painfully evident in all large English towns, if they exist to any great extent in Germany, are all but invisible to the eye.

Towns such as Frankfurt-am-Main, Strassburg, Cologne, and Dresden possess (or will shortly possess) railway stations, such as are not to be matched for size or conception on the whole continent of Europe.*

A similar statement may be hazarded with regard to the public offices, the schools, the new university buildings (Strassburg), the huge barracks which have grown, as it were, out of the earth since 1870 all over the country. They give an outward impression of splendor, of national dignity and greatness.

But more remains to be told, which is not so readily visible to the eye of the casual observer, and this is the enormous industrial and commercial rise of Germany.

Some years ago a friend said of Germany: "There is only one thing I admire in Germany and that is the *system* which can take yonder clumsy plowman, who, left to himself, could not do half the work of an English rustic [query ?] and turn him in a couple of years into the finest soldier in the world."

This worthy saw "something," but not enough. He heard a bell ring but could neither tell its meaning nor the locality it boomed from.

In the first place, notwithstanding unparalleled military success, you will rarely see a German pose as the "finest soldier in the world." He wisely leaves this self-appreciation to more impulsive races. He usually says nothing on that score. The average German is now thinking more of making money, and the worst of it is, he is successful, disagreeably successful in this his latest departure. From being pitied for his

helplessness and his poverty he has come within three short decades to be feared and hated as a rival.

"Discard that man-slaying machine, it is ruining you, and come and trade with us," cried our economists twenty years ago. He has kept his defensive army, but he has come all the same and traded with us with a vengeance.

The causes of German commercial success are naturally various and complicated, though one cause has hitherto received less attention than it deserves, and this is the very military system above referred to. Quite independently of the acknowledged value of German school and commercial training, the discipline of the German army has done wonders for the nation. For it is a mistake to think that plodding alone has done the work. The army has supplied the nation with the "practical" ability which was formerly largely wanting through absence of touch with the outer world. It has supplied the lack of athletics and outdoor games, which fell into abeyance amid the ruins of the Thirty Years' War.

The army has raised the nervous force, the physical energy of the nation to a degree hitherto but imperfectly appreciated abroad. It has also been mainly active in stemming the tide of early improvident marriage, this most fruitful source of puny neurotic manhood, pauperism, and drink.

The stalwart vigor of the German race of to-day might well be obvious to the most superficial observer coming from other lands. And many are of opinion that the favorable causes which have brought this about are likely to tell with undiminished force in the future. Only the other day an English paper noted with "surprise" a series of statistics, from which the unwelcome facts shone forth, that whereas the average English boy was heavier than the German at an early age, the difference in weight between them gradually decreased until at manhood the average weight was in favor of the German.

But the army has done more than this. In other countries often a center of demoralization, in Germany the army has been a source of physical and moral cleanliness;

*The new Central Railway Station at Dresden in course of construction will cost 60,000,000 marks (\$15,000,000). A strange product this for a country which we have long been creditably informed is on the highroad to bankruptcy.

moral in the sense that it has compelled these elements to do and obey, which in other countries form and remain the scum of the population. It is to no small extent this military training, from which the Germans are falsely said to fly to other countries, which makes them such a successful competitor in every walk of life. It has imbued them with a sense of order, a capacity for work. Thus, wherever the German clerk, the workman, is found among the English speaking race, he is invariably recognizable by his thrift and above all by his freedom from the crowning Anglo-Saxon vices of drunkenness and betting. It is a mistake to think that the German works for low wages; he is as anxious for high wage as any Celt or Anglo-Saxon; but his superior training, largely that of the school of the army, has disciplined him to work and wait patiently for better times. Thus, particularly the better educated classes, have become rivals to England in commerce, manufacture, and even in shipping enterprise.

North Germany, despite her restricted and unfavorable seaboard, owns two of the largest steamship companies extant. In fact the tonnage of Germany's merchant navy is, I believe, the second largest in the world. The town of Hamburg, which was reduced to the verge of ruin by the French at the beginning of this century, and half burnt to the ground fifty years ago, has, within the short space of the last thirty years risen to be one of the greatest shipping ports in the world, strongly competing with London and Liverpool.

The growth of industry in Germany is too vast a subject to deal with here; at the same time it is interesting to note, that the comparative ease with which small men starting in business, if of good character, are able to obtain credit and raise capital to assist them, has done a great deal to account for the spread of successful industry in Germany.

It is but natural that such a spell of national growth and material prosperity as Germany has enjoyed in our time should have brought some serious drawbacks in its train. An enormous increase of industry and commerce has reared a class hitherto

unknown in Germany and somewhat corresponding to the English type of the well-to-do vulgarian and equally objectionable. Nor have the qualities of this type remained restricted to the parvenu; they are met with among others as well. Thus, the pomposity of the pro-consul is no longer a specialty among certain other nations; he may be found flourishing in all his offensiveness beneath the Imperial German flag, holding his own amid Spread Eagleism, Chauvinism,¹⁰ and British civic *Romanus sumism*¹¹ is all his newly gilt ugliness.

But there are more serious "isms" than any of the foregoing, which owe their fierce spreading (not their inception—this was inevitable) to the events of the last thirty years. The sight of so much unaccustomed luxury,* and wealth where formerly simplicity and frugality had been the distinctive features of all has reacted unfavorably on those who have been unable to acquire it for themselves. It has added fuel to flame up one of the cardinal weaknesses of the German character, envy. In this may perhaps be found an additional one among the many causes of the spread of socialism and various other "isms" among the poor but better educated classes. Among the ruck of the working classes sudden but temporary prosperity has proved anything but an unmixed blessing.

Whereas the outward aspect of Paris and other French towns has scarcely altered during the last twenty years, most German towns can show, besides palatial government buildings, whole quarters of comely private dwellings which have been built since 1870. Railways have been extended all over the country and vast quantities of timber which had stood for generations for want of a market have risen enormously in price and been felled to supply building material. Hence wages rose temporarily in some places to ten times their previous height, only to drop again and leave the working population dissatisfied and demoralized. The workman has in the meantime, in consequence of

* Germany lately imports the most expensive Havana cigars in enormous quantities. Thirty years ago a man smoking an imported cigar was usually taken to be either a spendthrift or a millionaire. Even to-day the sovereign of Saxony still smokes his modest penny weed.

sudden high wages taken the specialty of his prosperous Anglo-Saxon brother,—three days' work and four days' drinking in the week.

In very many places where previously, say, ten beer houses had been sufficient, over forty such now do duty for a population scarcely risen in number. No wonder that such conditions have been productive of much mischief. The struggle for existence has become more severe all along the line and has affected the character of those classes among which formerly the term of *Biedermann*, meaning a man of integrity, of plain honest dealing, used to be applied to a distinctive type of German middle-class life.

Hard work and honesty no longer suffice to gain a competence; no more than they do elsewhere. Every department of intellectual life is overstocked. No wonder that a cry is raised, that everything, even science, art, and literature, is made to do duty for self-advertisement and provide a cloak for doubtful dealing. The quack, the nostrum vender, hitherto the specialty of more ad-

vanced countries, is gaining a footing in the Fatherland. Complaints are rife, that trickery has invaded every sphere of activity notwithstanding the serious efforts of the best Germans in authority and out of it to stem the tide. Germany can no more escape the conditions of modern life, now that she has embarked on the wave of speculative manipulation, than others can.

Lord Augustus Loftus in his recently published "Diplomatic Reminiscences" has the following significant little passage:

"In 1837 Berlin was a village in comparison with the Berlin of to-day. Socially speaking it was a far more agreeable place. There was a primitive contentment which pervaded all classes. The spirit of speculation and the craving for amassing wealth had not invaded its precincts. People were satisfied to live simply and enjoy life."

It will be the task of the following articles to delineate some of the characteristics and customs which have their source in those simpler times in which the modern race for wealth had not fairly begun which are now rapidly passing out of the memory of the living generation.

THE VALUE OF GEOLOGICAL SCIENCE TO MAN.*

BY PROFESSOR N. S. SHALER, SC. D.

OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

THOSE who would understand the influence which is exercised by any form of human endeavor on the development of our societies, should begin consideration of the problem by some study concerning the history of the matter. Such an inquiry, though it may be slight, is certain to reveal much that will help us to comprehend how the deeds of the ancients are the foundations of our own doing; how every important form of human exertion is a continuous effort to fit mankind to the conditions of this world.

In the most primitive state of man, such as is shown by the most ancient remains of his arts, and more clearly in the estate of the lowest existing savages, we perceive that the

creatures of our kind are in their earliest estate no more dependent on the structure of the under earth than are the brutes. The first step toward a closer relation with the realm beneath the soil appears to have been taken, when some prehistoric individual, a little shrewder than his mates, saw that he could help his weak hands in their rude task by using some fragment of stone, shaped by nature into a form which might be of service as a cutting tool or a hammer. It may be that the use of tools had an earlier beginning. It is probable that the first to serve may have been pointed sticks and thorns, but the original contact with the mineral world seems clearly to have been made with the pebble or the naturally pointed flake of some hard rock.

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

As soon as the use of stone for implements became affirmed, men began to shape them to their needs. They shortly abandoned the search for natural fragments, such as might be afforded along the taluses¹ of cliffs, where shapely bits could here and there be found commingled with the *débris*; they sought the particular fields or ledges which afforded the coveted materials and there began to dig for such supplies. In this simple way, the vast and long continued attack on the subterranean stores of wealth began. In eastern Kentucky, in the upper part of the Licking Valley, certain ancient pits arranged in somewhat regular order, from which the savages of this country dug flints, afford an instructive instance of this primitive earth industry. It may be said in passing that the considerable work thus done led the curious naturalist Rafinesque² to describe these remains as those of an ancient city.

The advancing steps of culture were so slowly taken that it evidently required thousands of years for man to learn how to bake clay, and to smelt tin and copper from their ores, so as to combine them in making bronze. The art of dealing with the other common metals came at a far later time and was but slowly developed. We may say indeed that from the fall of Troy³ to the discovery of America, it required on the average more than a century for the introduction of each new economic material which was won to the service of man. At the time when this continent began to be settled by the English people, there was only about a score of earth materials which were sought for in mines and which entered into the uses of civilization.

Since the great awakening of the industrial arts which began in the eighteenth century, the speed with which man has learned to avail himself of the resources which the mineral world contains, has been vastly accelerated. Including the compounds formed from the products of the under earth, we can now make a list of hundreds of substances which are necessary or, at least, very profitable to our material civilization, while each year adds something of value to the great array. From these facts we learn the great

truth that the progress of civilization has to a great extent depended on the increased measure in which men have learned to turn to service the vast and varied stores of minerals which are contained in the realm beneath the soil. It is in this peculiar attack of the under earth that we find the real basis on which the great development of geologic science rests.

The ancients, from the time of the Greeks, six hundred years before Christ, speculated much concerning the earth beneath their feet, as they did concerning the heavenly realms, but they made no substantial progress in geological science. The Romans paid no attention whatever to the matter, and though the Arabs during the Califate⁴ played with the Greek learning which they came by through the ancient manuscripts which they obtained in the monasteries and in a measure extended the work of the Grecian time, it was not until the revival of learning, the great Renaissance which followed the fall of Constantinople,⁵ that geology, founded as in modern times on the close study of the rocks, began to be.

It is interesting to note that the first bit of modern inquiry, based on evidence and criticised by well selected observation, was done by Leonardo da Vinci,⁶ who is known in this day mainly by the remnants of his admirable paintings. Great as are the remains which attest the capacities of this genius as a painter, his real place among the greatest of men seems to me rather to be due to his masterful powers as an inquirer; to his understanding of natural conditions, and his application of inventive skill in their use. His station seems to be rather that of the naturalist and the engineer than of the artist. For ages before Leonardo men had looked upon fossils contained in the rocks as mere sports of nature, or as efforts on the part of the earthy matter to take living form. He showed the way to the interpretation of strata⁷ when he proved by comparing the fossils found in the interior of northern Italy with the remains now in the way of burial in the mud of the Adriatic, that these shapes were those of creatures which had lived in ancient seas. As Leonardo's largest work

consisted in the construction of certain canals in the valley of the Po, and as he dealt with his labor in a very observant manner, he was probably the first man of great wit who had ever had a chance to see fossils in place in an extended way, and so had an opportunity to begin to interpret them aright.

Although Leonardo greatly helped the progress of geology by clearing away the ancient misconceptions concerning the nature of fossils, the most important work accomplished during the swift intellectual development which came with the Renaissance was done in Germany, where schools for instruction in the art of mining were established for the development of the valuable ores which existed in that region. In these schools there grew up some general knowledge as to the nature and distribution of minerals, and some sound understanding as to the distribution of the diverse kinds of rock which make up the earth's crust. In a way, however, which seems characteristic of German learning, these studies were of a very special nature, giving much that was valuable concerning details, yet little which could be made to serve to extend men's conceptions as to the structure of this sphere.

In the latter part of the eighteenth century the work of advancing the science passed to France and England. Among the people of Great Britain this branch of learning was destined to have the laws of its inquiries framed and the paths of its investigation set. Henceforth the earth science was to be fostered in different parts of the world by a folk who singularly combined a sense of economic values with a love of inquiry for its own sake.

The first great step in depicting the geology of the earth by means of special maps, including broad fields of country, a process on which the advance of geologic science has largely depended, was taken in England about a century ago, when William Smith, a land surveyor, divided the conspicuous formations into groups, gave them names, and showed their distribution on a map, which grouped the rocks of his country, not only in ideal order, but in their actual distribution. The task was simple, almost without dis-

tinct invention, yet by it a critical point in the science was turned. Thenceforth a host of men devoted their lives to a like work, which was swiftly extended from Europe to North America, and has now gone so far that the geology of more than half the land areas has been more or less well charted.

The rapid progress of geological mapping and the preceding interpretation of strata which such a task demands has been almost altogether due to the desire of men, not altogether for learning for its own sake, but largely, indeed we may say in most cases, because they sought the money profit which might thereby be won. William Smith was the first and the last geologist who undertook the interpretation of a realm in a thoroughgoing way at his own cost.

The other large work of this nature which has passed beyond the stage of mere reconnaissance, has been performed by governments or great corporations, both alike seeking in the main economic ends. Some illustrious explorers, like McClure in this country and Richthoven in China, have followed in the path of William Smith, but their inquiries have been of a preliminary nature, and their studies of wide fields have been made in a broad and general way; so, too, private gentlemen have in almost innumerable instances, delineated with great care the geology of small areas.

The fact remains, however, that what we know in an accurate way of the earth's crust is mainly due to the labors of the government surveys, of which, state and federal, there have been some score in this country, the present U. S. Geological Survey being the largest and the most effective of any which have been instituted in this or other countries. We thus come to the point that geologic science more than any other branch of learning, has depended for its advancement on a long growing and now well developed conviction approved by much experience, that it may greatly aid in the economic development of society.

Debates concerning the value of the investment which governments have made in geological surveys have been numerous, and in some cases acrimonious. It has been

often urged that but few deposits of valuable ores have actually been found by geologists while engaged in their labors in the field. Every man of the trade indeed will be perfectly willing to grant that the total number of these discoveries of mineral wealth made by the men of his craft, is small, the reason being that for one geologist attending to the structure of a country, which is a promising field for economic exploration, there are likely to be a hundred or a thousand "prospectors" hunting for the traces of the mineral stores. Thus as far as the discovery of mining sites is concerned, the simplest answer is, the old conundrum of why do the white sheep eat more than the black; with its answer that there are more white sheep than there are black, in the proportion of at least a hundred to one in ordinary flocks.

Although it would be easy to point to numerous and very important instances in which geologists have actually discovered the seats of important economic wealth, it must not be conceived that it is their place, save where they devote themselves to the prospector's tasks, to trace out in a detailed way the position and value of any mineral store. As well might the scouts of an army undertake to make a line of battle, or land surveyors set about the tasks of the farmer. Into the task of picking out the place where a mine should be opened there enter many determining considerations which can be weighed only by men who devote themselves to such problems.

From an economic point of view the work of the geologist engaged in the survey of a country is to group the rocks which outcrop within it or which lie beneath other accumulations, noting the resources of an economic nature which the several divisions may afford. In this way he prepares the paths for detailed exploration. He does a work which may be compared to the labor of the government surveyors who map the country in such a fashion that it may be divided and sold to the frontiersman. He classifies the land in the manner of the employee of the land office, who indicates whether the fields be desert, swamp, or arable land, with the distinction that his inquiries pertain, not to

the resources of the soil, but to the deeper lying mineral wealth. Both these surveyors have for their function the guidance of men to economic ends. They both seek to break the ancient stamp of the wilderness, the one inquiring into the overground, the other into the underground conditions of the unknown land.

Each of these classes of explorers has its place in the machinery of our civilization, and much of the success of the English speaking people in those successful campaigns with the primitive nature, which has given our folk an imperial control in this world, is due to the persistency with which they have made use of such surveys. The people of our race and speech have recognized as no others have done, the need of speedily interpreting to the settlers of a new country the topographic and subterranean conditions on which their life must depend.

Although the advancement of geological science and its present great share in human affairs is mainly due to the measure in which it is known to help men in their practical dealings with the earth, we must not lose sight of the vast, and, from a high point of view, the most important part of its work, that which has come from the better knowledge of man's place in nature which it has afforded. With the ancients we find a totally different conception as to man's relation to the universe from that which is now held, and on this difference depends a great and most profitable alteration in the intellectual and moral conceptions which we form concerning man's origin, duty, and destiny. Of old our kind seemed to be a mere accident with no more historic relation to the planet than the meteor which falls from the sky. In this day, however, we qualify the conception, we perceive that man is in his body akin to all the life of the earth, and that he has come forth from the system of the sphere, even as have the lands which give him dwelling place.

In this vast aggregate of inquiry and understanding, the greatest and most masterful of all which has been gathered on this sphere, geologic science, including therein the studies of fossil organic remains, has

played an essential, a leading part. If we had remained ignorant of the geological record, the derivative hypotheses of Lamarck⁸ and Darwin⁹ could not have gained a foothold in our understanding. Even if suggested, they would have come to us in the manner of the unverified Greek speculations without the fact which gives them verity. Such series of successions in form as those which have led to the conversion of a five-toed, tree-climbing mammal into the single-toed horse, have done more to convince naturalists and intelligent laymen that the species now existing has been in some way elaborated from the life of other ages, than all the proof which has been obtained from the study of living plants and animals.

The contributions to the thought of the world due to geologic science have one eminent peculiarity which gives them a unique value. In all other branches of natural inquiry the student is practically compelled to deal with phenomena on the plane of the moment. He cannot, save in astronomy, and there most imperfectly, distribute the facts in the

succession of the ages. In a word, geology is a time science, as well as a space science. The students of it must follow through the eons of the past, the successions of events in substantially the manner in which the embryologist traces the brief series which he observes in the development of a germ.

It is true that the perspectives leading into the past which the geologist is compelled, in a manner, to behold, make but a weak impression on the minds of the novice: this impression is indeed not overstrong in the intelligence of the best trained men of science. Nevertheless the intellectual effect which arises from the effort to project the past by replacing its monuments in due order in the unbounded realm of the visual imagination, is in many ways the largest and the most enlarging of all the undertakings which the naturalist essays.

In the time to come when we have learned how to avail ourselves of the teaching resources afforded by the physical sciences, this feature in geology will be valued in the true measure of its worth.

End of Required Reading for November.

BLOSSOMS.

BY PAUL ERWIN.

OUT of the night comes the morning ;
 Out of the mold springs the flower ;
 Out of the past flies the present ;
 Out of the cloud falls the shower.

Out of our effort, achievement ;
 Out of the thought grows the act ;
 Out of our failures, successes ;
 Out of the error, the fact.

Out of the passions, the lover ;
 Out of our need, the desire ;
 Out of our pain, our compassion ;
 Out of the lower, the higher.

Out of experience, knowledge ;
 Out of reflection, the soul ;
 Out of the soul, aspiration ;
 And God is the source of the whole.

6,000 TONS OF GOLD.*

A STORY OF ADVENTURE AND FINANCE.

BY KENZIE ETON KIRKWOOD.

CHAPTER XIII.—(*Continued.*)

THE VERDICT OF THE WORLD'S WISE MEN OF FINANCE.

WHEN Robert Brent rather diffidently entered the magnificent chamber a few minutes later, he found himself the object of an interest that was rather disconcerting. As he advanced up the room by the side of the secretary, the president of the conference suddenly left his high seat and came to meet him. In an instant every man present followed his example. The young man was surrounded by distinguished potentates, anxious to do him honor. Little was said. It did not seem to be an occasion for many words. Brent grasped the hands cordially held out to him and at length proceeded to a seat by the secretary's side. When the president had again taken the chair, the secretary formally introduced the young man to the conference, inviting him to explain his position and purpose.

Brent faced his small but distinguished audience with evident embarrassment and hesitation. The almost painful eagerness and earnestness in every countenance speedily made it clear to him that his words were awaited with a deference entirely free from criticism. Strong emotion unmasking most faces, and there was fear and admiration and bewilderment still upon the features of the proud men who now hung expectant upon the words of the young American of whose existence they had been ignorant an hour before. Such is the mastery of gold!

Brent's embarrassment gave place to an uncomfortable sense of undeserved power which he had usurped from these its rightful custodians! It led him to speak deprecatingly, almost apologetically, of himself and his difficulties. He described as fully as he was able the history of his treasure and his operations in the financial world during the

previous year. Coming at length to the question at issue, he said:

"With the best intentions in the world, I have inflicted great wrongs, especially upon my own country. I have done what I could to repair some of the damage I have caused. But I realize clearly now, as no doubt you do at a glance, that the greatest evil of all is still impending. The simple possession of more than five thousand tons of unknown, unused gold, under the present circumstances, is a crime of which I will not be guilty a moment longer than I can help. I place the fate of this treasure entirely, unreservedly in your hands. The task is too great for me. I assumed it without hesitation and with the foolish confidence of ignorance. It seemed to my thoughtless enthusiasm the simplest portion of my plan of gold-getting. I believed, when I had locked the last box of gold in the vault in New York, that my difficulties were practically at an end. The mischief which my blind self-assurance has wrought will be a life-long reproach to me.

"To be absolutely honest, I cannot plead complete ignorance of the dangers which I risked. Some of them I dimly foresaw, after I had seriously grappled the problem which I have now delegated to you. A selfish desire to escape if possible the penalties of wealth—the notoriety, the curiosity, the adulation, the insincerities, the importunities—led me to conceal my secret, when I should have sought the best counsel at the outset. I hope I am not now too late in performing this duty. Whatever your honorable body shall advise, I will execute. I place at your disposal not only the gold not yet used, but certain other moneys and securities, embracing all of my property with the exception of a fund of one hundred million dollars, which I reserve for the carrying out of certain obligations which I have undertaken, and in part for my own use. The remain-

* Begun in the July number.

der, and it will amount at a rough estimate to three billion, three hundred million dollars, or six hundred and sixty million pounds sterling, shall be devoted, in whole or in part, in such manner as you prescribe, to the execution of international enterprises too great for private capital to undertake. Or I am prepared, if you so advise, even to sink the treasure in mid-Atlantic."

The motionless, almost breathless silence in which the conference had listened, continued a moment after Brent had finished. It was broken by a French delegate, who sprang to his feet, and, without any of the dignified formalities which the occasion demanded, exclaimed excitedly:

"This gentleman has named the solution of the problem in his last sentence. It is the only solution. Any other will bring disaster, ruin, chaos. Let the gold be sunk in the sea!"

"The honorable representative of France may be right, Mr. President," said a great German banker in response, "but we have before us a task which demands the most careful, the most profound consideration which we can give to it. We have all of us, I doubt not, been overwhelmed by the mere statement of its terms. We are in no way prepared at this moment to devote that calm and dispassionate thought to the subject which is necessary. I move that the sitting be suspended until to-morrow."

The formal session was speedily ended in response to the motion, but no one left the chamber. All gathered about Brent and plied him with questions so incessantly that two hours had passed before any one thought of going. Even then the delegates separated with the agreement to meet again for informal consultation in the evening at one of the hotels. The despatches which they sent to their respective governments were non-committal and evasive, while other inquirers about the business of the conference were refused information.

No attempt was made at the subsequent sessions to return to the formalities and dignities of procedure which the startling nature of the opening speech had so effectually banished. The debates were man to man busi-

ness consultations of the most earnest and practical description. Nobody had any pet theories to put forward or any hobbies to ride. There was a single-minded purpose on the part of every man to seek and find an escape from a danger which in the estimation of them all grew more threatening and more appalling every hour. They recognized at once the necessity for reaching an early solution of their problem. The secrecy of their deliberations might itself excite suspicions. Their home governments would soon become displeased over their reticence. In fact the British ministry intimated very promptly to the English delegates that their silence regarding the proceedings of the conference was unsatisfactory.

It became necessary to limit the time during which the policy of secrecy should be continued. The delegates finally informed their superiors at home that they had bound themselves to preserve silence in regard to all matters coming before the conference for one month. In cases where this was a violation of instructions, cabinet ministers were informed that the step seemed justified by certain exigencies of the situation and that the end must justify the temporary defiance of authority.

In the early stage of their deliberations, the temptation was strong upon the delegates to adopt the easy and obvious plan suggested by Brent at his first appearance before them. If the entire mass of gold should be loaded once more upon a ship and sunk in the fathomless depths of mid-ocean, the unique problem would be completely solved and none like it would ever arise again probably to distract the brain of man.

But there was something inherently revolting and intolerable, especially to these men of money, in the thought of thus destroying untouched and unused the greatest mass of what the world regards as wealth, which had ever come into the possession of man. Reason told them, as they all agreed at the outset, that to attempt to employ this treasure in the monetary world would destroy or reduce to almost nothing the value of all gold, now held in the belief that it was the securest form of wealth. They did not need to go-

beyond the a, b, c of finance and political economy to make that truth apparent.

Two or three of the older delegates recalled the agitation in the money markets of the world which followed the California gold discoveries of 1849. There had been a loud clamor, especially in the United States, for the demonetization of gold for the same reason that silver was attacked as a monetary metal when its production increased in large proportion. The yellow metal had been almost in disgrace for several years, while its modest white rival had possessed in a higher degree the essential quality of stability.

In fact at one time, early in their deliberations, the old controversy between bimetalists and monometallists which the problem so closely involved threatened to make some division among the delegates. But the danger was soon overcome. Monetary conditions throughout the world had already been so changed by the influence of the fraction of Brent's treasure which had been poured into the channels of trade that matters of argument a year before had now become matters of accepted fact. Previous opinions and convictions were willingly revised in the light of new and unsuspected conditions. No man sitting at the conference board was so strongly wedded to hobbies or theories as to oppose them for an instant to the stupendous facts now presented.

The air was most effectually cleared, at the moment a disagreement seemed possible, by a plain, straightforward statement of the situation by one of the English delegates. Speaking in simple, businesslike fashion he said:

"Gentlemen, I do not think we need concern ourselves too seriously with the question of bimetallism. It is a matter which need not be directly passed upon by this conference. I admit that our decree upon the fate of this gold will have an almost decisive effect upon the monetary use of silver; but let us look at the matter from another and, I believe, broader point of view.

"Our problem really amounts to this: How shall we in deciding the destiny of this gold secure to the world the greatest stabil-

ity of monetary values? In other words, how much if any of this gold can be devoted to monetary and general use without seriously disturbing proper standards of value? When we settle that point, the ratio between gold and silver will adjust itself. I submit that it is not in the power of any government or combination of governments to fix that ratio arbitrarily in defiance of the actual ratio of the supply of the two metals.

"Look at the matter for one moment in the light of history. The fluctuations have been great and dependent solely upon supply and demand. Go back as far as Darius and the ratio was thirteen to one. After the pillage of the Temple of Delphi, B. C. 357, it fell to ten to one. In the Roman world it rose as high as seventeen to one, but after Cæsar's return loaded with spoils from Gaul it was reduced to nine to one. In the Middle Ages it ranged between ten and twelve to one. It began to rise soon after 1600 and in 1717 the English government fixed the ratio at 15.2 to one. The relative supply of the two metals has always fixed their relative values and it always will continue to do so.

"Our task is to determine what is the world's necessary consumption of gold; that is, what should be the annual supply for maintaining a steady standard of values. Solve that problem and our work is done. The gold production of the world during recent years has averaged little more than twenty-five millions sterling (\$125,000,000). In 1852 it was thirty-six millions sterling. The latter yield was too great no doubt for the world's financial needs at that day; but most of us will agree, I think, that the vastly increased trade of the end of the century demands much more than the comparatively meager supply of recent years. In fact, the world was suffering from the first stages of a gold famine when Mr. Brent landed his cargo of treasure in New York.

"I beg you to remember, gentlemen, that I represent a creditor country. It would be greatly to the advantage of England if every ounce of Mr. Brent's gold could be buried in the bottom of the sea. But England is unselfish and honest enough, I believe, not

to require the payment of the debts due her in coin of enhanced value. Give us a solution of this problem which will maintain all obligations at their original value, actually as well as nominally, and England will be content.

"My suggestion, therefore, of a general basis of a settlement of our problem is this: Establish a fund out of this gold in charge of a small international commission. Estimate carefully the sum which may safely be added to the present average gold production of the world. Let the fund be large enough for twenty or at most twenty-five such annual additions. Charge the commissioners with the duty of expending the agreed sum annually upon great international enterprises, as Mr. Brent has suggested. Then let the remainder of the gold be loaded upon a ship and thrown into the sea at the earliest possible moment."

It was not long before the entire discussion of the conference was devoted to this proposition. Its general policy soon received the unanimous approval of the delegates. But when it came to details, there was much difference of opinion. There was no certainty that the ordinary gold production would remain at \$125,000,000 yearly; in fact, a considerable increase was probable. South Africa was making enormous additions to her annual contributions. British and Dutch Guiana and other South American states were developing new and important fields, while Australasia was gradually increasing her production. On the other hand, the mercantile as distinct from monetary consumption of gold was steadily increasing and it was estimated by most of the delegates that this demand would absorb practically all the natural increase.

After several prolonged debates, the conference fixed upon \$200,000,000 as the maximum quantity which might be added to the world's supply of gold without disturbing the conditions of trade. When it came to the practical regulation of this supply, there were serious difficulties. The power which it was necessary to delegate to the controlling board was greater than that of kings, greater than had ever been entrusted to the hands of

man. They would be virtually the keepers of the world's purse, the bankers of all Christendom. The power of giving prosperity or adversity to nations or to one country at the expense of another country would rest with them. To whose hands could responsibility so vast be safely consigned?

There was also the almost inevitable danger of international jealousy in the expenditure of such colossal sums. A higher virtue than patriotism must control the distribution of benefactions for the good of humanity at large, rather than that of nations. All the great international projects which had been brought seriously before the world would not consume in their execution half the treasure now at command. The delegates talked in a desultory way of the Nicaragua Canal, great sanitary schemes for purifying the continent of Europe, the stamping out of cholera and other plagues at their source in the East, the irrigation of the western plains in America and portions of African deserts, the tunneling of the English Channel. They became hopelessly confused and divided upon this branch of the subject and speedily abandoned it as too vast and too technical for consideration by a temporary assembly.

A proposition to divide the gold, which it might be decided to distribute annually, *pro rata*, according to population, among the governments of Europe and America was rejected after brief consideration. Brent himself ventured to express his disapproval of the suggestion, and his wish was at once respected. Such a plan would lead, he argued, to more extreme militarism in Europe, while in America it would yield merely a temporary easing of the burden of taxation and a temptation to jobbery at Washington. It would produce no genuine and permanent boon to mankind.

All the schemes and suggestions offered finally sifted down to a very simple plan and four weeks of almost incessant work brought the conference to substantial unanimity in its approval. In brief outline, these were its terms:

The conference recommended that the equivalent of \$1,500,000,000 of Brent's treas-

ure be delivered to the United States government as custodian. It should remain in the Treasury in its crude state of native gold until drawn upon from time to time according to prescribed conditions by an international board of trustees. This board should consist of five members, to be appointed one by the president of the United States, one by the queen of England, one by the emperor of Germany, and one by the president of France. The fifth member should be Robert Brent of New York. The term of office of the trustees should not be limited and they should receive each an annual salary of \$250,000. Their duties should be the expenditure upon works for the general benefit of mankind beyond the scope of private undertaking such sums from the fund in the custody of the United States government as their judgment should dictate, and subject to the following restrictions: The expenditure should not in any one year exceed the sum of \$75,000,000, nor fall below \$30,000,000, unless the addition to the world's supply of gold from all sources, the fund included, during the next preceding year had exceeded \$200,000,000. No excess over the last named maximum of the world's supply should be permitted by means of the trustees' expenditures.

This agreement was reached by the conference two days before the expiration of the time during which it had been voted to keep the subject under consideration secret from the home governments of the various delegates. Before final adjournment, the conference adopted unanimously a report setting forth in the strongest terms their admiration of the qualities of mind and heart which had led the owner of the greatest treasure in history to make of it a blessing and not a curse to his fellow-men.

CHAPTER XIV.

A BURIAL AT SEA.

WITHOUT waiting to learn how the rulers of Europe received the confidential reports made to their governments by the delegates, Brent took passage for New York on the first steamer leaving after the adjournment

of the conference. Every man who shared the great secret feared that a dangerous crisis, requiring sharp, decisive action, might arise at any moment. The deep discretion of diplomacy successfully conceals many momentous truths, but here was a fact less easy to control than the contents of Pandora's box, once the cover had been raised. It was to be made known, under pledge of secrecy to be sure, in six capitals of Europe. Was it reasonable to expect that a piece of knowledge of stupendous interest to the whole world would remain long in the keeping of several scores of men without a hint of it transpiring?

It had been the judgment of the conference that simultaneous announcement should be made in all countries of the result of the deliberations within two weeks of the adjournment. Brent desired to reach New York in time to arrange for the loading upon a man-of-war such portion of his treasure as was to be sacrificed before the public disclosure of his plans should make their execution a matter of supreme popular curiosity and interest. If the verdict of the conference should fail to win the approval of the great Powers, the only safety would lie in coupling the news of the existence of the gold with the announcement that it had already been sent to its fathomless grave. He took the precaution before sailing to cable Wharton to begin at once the transfer of three thousand tons of the treasure from the vault to a suitable dock whence it could be shipped at a few hours' notice to a vessel moored alongside.

Brent arrived in New York eight days after the dissolution of the Paris conference. He found despatches assuring him that his secret was still safe and that all the Powers concerned except Great Britain had already given unreserved endorsement to the recommendations of the international board. Not only that: the cable told him that personal acknowledgments of his generosity and humanity from all the sovereigns of Europe would soon be in his hands. England's assent was hourly expected and then the judgment of the world would be unanimous. A letter from the president contained warmest

congratulations and a request that Brent would visit Washington as soon as possible after landing.

Wharton greeted him with a return of that almost boyish enthusiasm which Brent feared had been permanently banished from his friend's nature by the anxieties of the last few months. His task during the time that the great problem was under discussion in Paris had been an arduous one, but with the help of the government serious evils had been successfully combated. More than half the contents of the vault—more dangerous than dynamite—were safely stored and guarded in a North River dock and the new battleship *Massachusetts* lay with steam up in the stream ready to respond to any call.

Wharton advised Brent to go at once to Washington, and early the next morning both men called at the White House. They were warmly welcomed by the president. Brent described at some length the work at Paris and the final arguments which produced substantial unanimity among the delegates. The president's congratulations were heartily sincere and he expressed himself in unreserved accord with the verdict which had been reached. While they were talking, a message arrived from the State Department announcing Great Britain's approval of the findings of the conference. The despatch added that in compliment to the United States government the flagship of the British North Atlantic Squadron had been ordered to New York to act as escort to the American man-of-war which should carry the condemned portion of the treasure to its ocean grave.

Wharton expressed an ill-natured suspicion that the real motive behind this compliment was a desire to make sure that the mid-ocean burial actually took place. The president smiled at the suggestion, but he said nothing. The British government evidently notified this action to the other Powers, for later in the day similar messages from Paris, Berlin, and Rome announced that men-of-war of the respective countries had been ordered to New York on the same errand.

The president discussed with his visitors

the time and manner of making the momentous announcement to the public. The Paris plan to publish the news simultaneously in all countries two weeks after the conference adjournment, or five days from the present date, could now be carried out without difficulty. Brent desired to send the *Massachusetts* to sea with her condemned cargo before the news was made public, but the courtesy of European governments in sending ships to take part in the ceremony made this impossible. It would be at least a week, in all probability, before the fleet could be assembled. There was no way therefore of avoiding the big popular demonstration that would surely be made over the affair.

"It is just as well," said the president, smiling a little at Brent's evident shrinking from the ordeal of public clamor. "It will furnish a harmless vent for the excitement that the news will arouse, and it will enable you to get over once for all the lionizing that the public will insist on giving you."

"I suppose so," replied Brent, sighing so ruefully that both the president and Wharton burst out laughing.

It was determined, if possible, to bring to Washington within the next four days the 2,500 tons of gold remaining in the New York vault and to store it in the United States Treasury, according to the conference plan. The condemned gold was to be loaded at once on the *Massachusetts* and the battleship was to be ready to proceed to sea the moment her foreign convoys arrived. Then the news should be given to the country in the form of a proclamation from the president, to be distributed to the press by telegraph late the night before the day agreed upon for publication.

Brent and Wharton returned the same day to New York. It required sharp work to arrange for the transportation of the remaining contents of the big vault to the custody of the Treasury at Washington in the short time available. There was risk of discovery in the large number of men employed at the task at both ends of the line and some of the safeguards against detection and loss which had been used in all

previous movements of portions of the treasure were now disregarded. Extraordinary precautions were hardly necessary now that the hour of disclosure was close at hand. The secret did not escape, in spite of the almost careless publicity of the hurried transfer by means of scores of wagons and several special trains.

The clerks at the Treasury received the strange boxes and made room for them with difficulty in the already crowded vaults. Their instructions were to store them unopened for the present in the strong-rooms reserved for gold bullion, giving merely receipts for so many wooden boxes, "contents unknown."

Late in the afternoon of Friday, February 14, the managers of the Washington bureaus of the great news agencies received an intimation from the White House that an important piece of information would be given out by the president's private secretary at eleven o'clock that evening. The correspondents who called at the Executive Mansion at the hour named, received from the secretary a document which caused them some surprise when they first glanced at it. The secretary remarked in handing them each a copy that there was not a word additional to be said that night in regard to the matter contained in the paper either by the president or any member of the administration. The newspaper men read a paragraph or two, and then suddenly even the serene stoicism of well-seasoned Washington correspondents was disturbed. They scanned the succeeding pages of type-written manuscript hastily and one or two of the men slipped out without waiting to say good-night. Others stopped to ask a vain question or two before joining in the race for the wires.

An hour later the excitement had spread to the editorial rooms of every morning newspaper in the country. It was too late at night to do more than print without comment the stupendous news contained in the president's proclamation. None of the devices for giving emphasis to intelligence of the highest moment were omitted. Black type and wide-spaced lines made the first pages of the morning papers bristle with im-

portance as on the day after a presidential election. Soon the news was in everybody's mouth—not in America only but throughout civilization. It was a story which, although told in official language, appealed to everyone who knows the passion of envy. Few outside the small circles of finance tried to estimate the effect of the strange news upon their own affairs; few imagined it would have any such influence. It was simply to the masses the most marvelous tale of the age, and another proof that fact is stranger than fiction.

But American curiosity promptly demanded something more. Who was this strange billionaire who quietly sacrificed his wealth upon the recommendation of a board of advisers? His fellow-countrymen clamored for his personality and the whole machinery of journalism was brought into action to comply with the demand. The president's proclamation gave no clue to the present whereabouts of "Mr. Robert Brent of New York," nor to the location of the private vault in which the treasure had been stored. No other name had been mentioned in the proclamation, but it did not take long for the New York editors to identify Strong and Co. as the agents of the new king of finance and to see in the news the explanation of many of the mysteries of the previous year.

The Wall Street representatives of all the papers were very early at the Nassau Street banking house on the morning of the publication of the president's proclamation. Most of them were personal friends of John Wharton by this time as are all the magnates of "The Street" with this trusty corps of newspaper men. Wharton came in at nine o'clock accompanied by a man about his own age whom some of the writers remembered having seen at the office before. The reporters smilingly barred their passage to the inner office.

Wharton threw up his hands in mock despair. The other man smiled slightly.

"You can't go in unless you take us with you and tell us the whole story," remarked a genial young man who headed the intimidating squad.

"What—" Wharton began, then changed his mind. "No, I'll not bluff you, gentlemen. It's of no use. But I can't talk now, really. Come back at three o'clock and I'll give you all I can."

"That won't do. Where's Robert Brent?" insisted the head of the journalistic corps.

"He'll be here at three o'clock," replied Wharton conciliatingly and edging toward the door by a flank movement.

"And will you promise us a talk with him?"

"Yes."

"All right, Mr. Wharton, you may go in," and the group stepped on either side and bowed with mock humility to the young banker and his companion.

They were busy enough and scores of their fellows also in the intervening six hours in watching the effects of the great news upon trade and finance and in collecting the opinions of men whose advice in such a crisis might prove valuable. The first effect everywhere in great markets was paralysis. The tidings were so unexpected, so stupendous, that even the masters of finance were dumfounded. There was no precedent to guide them. They did not even know at first whether the news was good or bad. Self-protection was the only instinct aroused in most cases, but in what direction was this to be sought? Many put themselves on the *qui vive* to watch the tendency of the current ready to act accordingly.

Brent and Wharton in co-operation with some of the members of the Paris conference had made such preparations as were possible to prevent any extreme fluctuations of values either way during the first hours following the disclosure of the secret. The London, Berlin, and Paris markets opening some hours before those of New York set an example of steadiness. So great was the popular timidity and hesitation that for some hours the markets were almost stagnant. It was London, the controlling head of the financial world, that preserved the general equilibrium. It was apparent before the close of the day's business there that the new element suddenly added to the monetary situation was not regarded as a serious menace to financial stability. Most of the

precautionary measures which had been provided in the principal centers proved to be unnecessary. There was nothing extraordinary in the course of the markets during the day in Europe or America.

Anxious hours for the two men in Strong and Co.'s New York office were followed by genuine relief and satisfaction, when three o'clock came without panic or serious disturbance in that most excitable of all thoroughfares—Wall Street. The promised interview with the newspaper men became a congratulatory reception. Brent felt an uncomfortable resemblance between himself and a museum freak when the writers were presented to him, but he speedily found himself chatting affably and familiarly with gentlemen who regarded and treated him in no other way than as a man of the world like themselves. They were genuinely interested in the brief personal narrative which they encouraged him to tell. He quite forgot that his companions were journalists. The conversation was general and it didn't become serious for some time.

There are no better judges of human nature, no men whose knowledge of affairs is more varied, practical, and symmetrical than the leading news gatherers of the New York press. The ordeal which Brent had dreaded became a pleasure. His interviewers talked more than he did, and talked in such an entertaining way that his mood soon changed. Their jokes and cynicisms, their *bon mots* and good-natured raillery, which held nothing sacred—not even his billions, furnished a relief which he enjoyed with keenest relish after the unrelenting anxieties of many days. He did not realize until afterwards that every man in that gay, careless group knew instinctively at the first moment his aversion to the meeting and sought first of all to overcome that aversion and establish a footing of good fellowship.

The natural result followed. Brent finally discussed with far greater freedom than he had intended the details of his own life and the history of his treasure. Two hours passed in conversation so absorbing that nobody noticed the flight of time. At last Brent glanced at his watch, and exclaimed,

"I declare, gentlemen, it is nearly six o'clock. You have made the time pass so pleasantly that I had no idea it was so late. Well, we must make the interview very short. Get out your note-books and fire away."

"We don't want any more interview, thank you, Mr. Brent," said the representative of the *Herald*, quizzically, "unless there is something more you would like to have us say."

"But you haven't been interviewing me for publication all this time?" inquired Brent rather aghast. "You haven't taken down a word, one of you."

The newspaper men smiled.

"Evidently this is your first experience with reporters, Mr. Brent," remarked the *Times* man. "If any man here had been so stupid as to produce a pencil during our very interesting talk we should have expelled him from the profession. And as for a note-book, there isn't one of us who has possessed such a thing since he left the infant class of journalism. You'll have to go to England to find that intimidator still in use. If any of us was incapable of reporting accurately the essential points of all you have told us he would be unfit for his position."

"But you are not going to publish all or a large part of what I have told you, I hope," expostulated Brent. "I make no secret of the fact that I dread very much the notoriety which you are going to give me, gentlemen. Why cannot we draw up a brief outline of such facts as will be demanded by popular curiosity and let the world be content with that?"

"Really, Mr. Brent, you will do much better to leave the matter to our discretion," remarked the gentleman from the *Sun*. "You cannot escape being made the most prominent figure of the day. More will be said and printed about you in the next few weeks than about any other living man. If the simple truth in reasonable detail is not made known, then there will be speculation and fakes without end. Better let us give the facts in straightforward fashion and satisfy the thirst for information at the outset. Am I not right, Mr. Wharton?"

Wharton's practical experience during the

previous few months led him frankly to endorse the journalist's advice.

"At all events, gentlemen," observed Brent ruefully, "I hope to escape without having my face made as familiar to the world as a presidential candidate's. Don't, I beg of you, print pictures of me."

"Just what I was going to mention," said the *World* man eagerly. "Pictures of you will certainly be printed in nine tenths of the newspapers of America within a week. Why not give us a good photograph, and then the sketch artists won't be compelled to draw bad caricatures of you."

"Never!" exclaimed Brent in despair. "The worse the caricature the better I shall like it, if I cannot escape altogether. At least I shall not be in danger of recognition from the sketch artist's efforts."

Brent groaned in spirit when he glanced at the next morning's papers. They seemed filled with nothing but the story of himself and his gold. His interview of the previous afternoon was reproduced all too faithfully. He was amazed by the completeness and accuracy of the narrative which filled three or four columns of each journal. Wharton cheered him up. It was the best thing that could happen, he declared. There was nothing left to be told and the excitement would soon wear off. Nothing was ever more than a nine days' wonder in New York, and then he would be left comparatively in peace. Besides the newspaper men had scrupulously acceded to Wharton's request that nothing should be said about the whereabouts and personal plans of the young master of millions. They had even hinted that he would resent very sharply any attempt to invade the privacy of life which he prized above wealth.

Four days later, the last of the foreign warships that had been assigned to convey the condemned gold to its fathomless grave arrived in New York harbor and anchored in North River. The *Massachusetts* had already taken on board her precious cargo. Enough had become known about the plans for destroying the treasure to raise public curiosity and excitement to fever pitch. The authorities determined to abandon all secrecy in the

arrangements and to carry out their execution with imposing formalities.

Noon of Thursday, February 20, was the time fixed for the departure of the fleet. Certain naval evolutions and much saluting and other courtesies would attend the farewell. Every available vessel of the United States navy would take part in the ceremonies. The president and the Cabinet would come from Washington and a great banquet, at which Mr. Brent and the officers of the foreign ships would be the principal guests, would be given on the eve of sailing. These and other plans for making memorable an occasion unique in human history were hastily prepared.

These few days were not particularly happy ones for Brent. He was able to escape many of the honors and much of the publicity which would have been forced upon him. He was most pleasantly disappointed by the absence of all envious and abusive notes from the chorus of public comment upon the situation. The criticism would come later, he told himself, but he was thankful for the present immunity. Not that he relished much more the fulsome laudations that were poured upon him from all sides. He speedily wearied of praise which he was sure was not deserved. Especially irksome did this become at the great banquet, where he and his gold were the almost exclusive themes of after dinner eloquence.

He acknowledged these tributes from great men with a diffidence and brevity which might have signified lack of appreciation, but his words were received with flattering enthusiasm. The extravagant though eloquent eulogy in which his health was proposed by a famous orator aroused emotions more gloomy than proud in the young man's breast, and many noticed the expression of sadness upon his face as he silently acknowledged the compliment.

The next day was given over to those forms of public pleasure-making which America loves best. It was a holiday by common consent. The metropolis was thronged. Thousands had come from all parts of the Atlantic seaboard and the interior to witness all that could be publicly seen of an event for which

history could find no parallel. Nobody seemed quite sure whether it should be a solemn or a gay occasion. It was the celebration of an escape from a great though unknown peril and at the same time it was the funeral ceremony of what the world regards as the most potent of its material possessions. At all events, it was a moment which called for the most imposing display of civic and political splendor and nothing within the resources of a spectacle-loving people was withheld:

The city was decorated from end to end as for a great *fête*. There was a great naval, military, and civic procession on Broadway stretching almost from the Battery to Central Park. The descent of the fleet of home and foreign warships down the North River was a triumphal parade not less imposing than the great naval review in celebration of the Columbian anniversary. Whistles shrieked, sirens screamed, cannon roared in deafening, unbroken chorus from the Palisades to the Narrows. An unnumbered multitude of craft great and small swarmed in the wake of the majestic warships. Down past the Statue of Liberty, past the green slopes of Staten Island into the whitening waters of the open sea the floating city moved. New York escorted to her very gates the dumb guest whose presence she coveted but dared not tolerate. No prisoner ever went to execution so honored by his judges.

Sandy Hook was the limit to which the majority of the vast fleet cared to venture. The choppy sea beyond was too rough for most of the frail and overloaded pleasure boats which composed the greater part of the volunteer escort. It had been announced that the warships would steam straight out to sea at full speed for fully forty-eight hours before executing their strange mission. No ordinary craft could hope to witness the final act to take place almost in mid-ocean. Some few private yachts and other sea-going vessels convoyed the stately man-of-war some miles farther toward their vague destination, but by sun-down none but the five great battleships remained upon the sea.

They sailed abreast almost due east. The *Massachusetts* in the center of the line was

flanked on the right by British and Italian men-of-war and on the left by the French and German ships. Nearly a mile separated each vessel from its nearest neighbor. In the same relative positions, they steamed on through the night and all the next day. A stiff wind from the southeast and a lowering sky made a turbulent, forbidding sea and it was not deemed wise to engage in any evolutions and sea-courtesies.

The night brought a welcome change. When the morning of Saturday dawned, the blue depths of the sky and the green depths of the sea were as clear and calm as though the stately ships lay anchored in the Bay of Naples. All the morning, the signal flags fluttered greetings and congratulations from ship to ship. At ten o'clock the *Massachusetts* signaled a request that the fleet should reduce speed and draw in closer, so that half a mile only should separate the ships. An hour later, the flags on the United States vessel signaled an invitation to the admiral and staff on each of the other ships to come on board, and the fleet came to a stop for the purpose.

On board the American battle-ship every preparation had been made for the peculiar duty which had been assigned to her.

Many boxes from the magazine of the *Massachusetts*, where the gold had been stored, were brought upon deck before the visitors arrived, but they remained unopened. A squad of marines stood guard over them on the upper deck, forward. A large iron chute projecting about six feet beyond the side of the ship and directly over the water had been placed in position. At the upper end of the chute a small inclined platform had been constructed. It was so contrived that when by means of tackle and falls one of the wooden boxes had been placed there, its contents might easily be tipped into the chute and carried by gravity over the side.

Just before twelve o'clock, the visiting officers and all the ship's company of the *Massachusetts* were assembled on her deck in full view of the nearest ships of the squadron on either side. The American admiral signaled the fleet to move forward in the same order at quarter speed. The ships responded. The ensigns were dipped on

each of the four convoys and their heaviest guns began to thunder forth a salute.

A moment later the company on the deck of the *Massachusetts* were startled by an unexpected incident. The first box of gold had been placed on the platform at the mouth of the chute by the admiral's direction and the ship's carpenter had removed the screws and taken off the cover.

A shining yellow mass was exposed to the view of the four hundred men assembled. There was a moment's silence. Then before the admiral could step forward, there came an inarticulate cry from the ranks of the sailors. At the same moment a veteran seaman sprang forward and ran to the open box. His face was distorted with a kind of rage. He cried out brokenly but incoherently. Before anybody could check him he reached the gold and plunged his hands into the bright treasure.

The moment's paralysis of the spectators was quickly over. Two sergeants of marines seized the man on either side and without unnecessary violence led him away. There were others among those who watched the incident who shared the feelings which had been strong enough to unhinge the intellect of the poor man. To most of the man-of-war's company, in fact, it seemed little less than a crime thus to destroy gold which to them was the symbol of comfort and happiness. To Brent alone of all in those mustered ranks was the condemned treasure the representative of evil. He awaited its burial with unmixed satisfaction.

The United States admiral, when the ship's bell signaled the meridian, stepped to the side of the platform. He invited the British commander to cast the first handful of gold into the sea. There was an instinctive reluctance in the bearing of the veteran sailor as he complied with the request.

He dropped the heavy particles slowly, regretfully, upon the inclined plane of iron. They rattled noisily but musically down the smooth track. A moment later, a few tiny, hissing splashes caused the solemn face of the British admiral to assume an expression almost of guilt as he watched the vanishing bright specks.

The box of gold was raised to a sharp angle directly over the mouth of the chute. The American commander with a quick motion tipped the rest of its contents upon the iron slide. A swift yellow stream sped down the sharp incline and the waves swallowed it with a thirsty suction that was intolerable in the covetous ears of those who heard it.

Neptune received that day a mighty tribute, which should placate him toward the children of men through many generations. He accepted it with a dignified gratitude, which the men who carried it to his altar always remembered in delightful contrast to his wrath when he makes reprisals upon those who go down to the sea in ships.

(*The End.*)

LEADERS OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

BY E. JAY EDWARDS.

THE schoolboy of a generation and more ago was told that if he persevered in his studies and made the best of himself at school and afterwards in the great world, the time might come when he would be sent to Congress. The opportunities for swift and brilliant accumulation of wealth in honorable ways which in the generation which succeeded the war have been so conspicuously accepted have caused this earlier ambition of American youth to be somewhat overshadowed. Even the young have learned that it may not be so great a thing to be chosen a member of Congress as to win such successes as will make a man a power in the financial or business world, or to gain influence in the world of science or thought.

Congress meant, in those earlier days,

the House of Representatives. Although the constitution does not thus limit the meaning of the word, nevertheless in the view of the American youth to be a congressman is to be a member of the House, but to be a senator, that is another and a greater honor. The

successes which are won in Congress, to use the term with its colloquial meaning, are perhaps among the most difficult which an ambitious American can secure. Those who are familiar with the opportunities of either branch of the national Legislature are persuaded that it is easier for one with high intellectual endowments to gain distinguished repute after considerable service in the Senate than in the House.

That is because, in addition to intellectual qualities, it is needful to gain and maintain power in the turbulent lower body, and to



THOMAS B. REED OF MAINE.
EX-SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE.

catch the public eye and hold it in favoring glance that a man should have certain temperamental gifts which would be almost useless in the Senate Chamber. Moreover it is essential for success in the House of Representatives that a man should enter there comparatively early in life. No man has ever gained great influence or public distinction who entered the House at a later age than forty-five years, and scarcely any who went there after he had passed the fortieth birthday. John Randolph entered when so young that he was not willing to confess his age. Blaine, Garfield, Randall, Allison, Windom, Holman, "Sunset" Cox, and nearly every one of that distinguished group who did great service in the House in the past forty years, were about thirty years old when they first took the oath. McKinley was hardly known beyond his home as a young lawyer when he was first sent to Congress, and Reed, though he has been in Congress nearly twenty years, has scarcely passed the threshold of the prime of life.

Mr. Reed has in conspicuous degree that union of temperamental and intellectual qualities which is sure to bring success to one who is permitted to serve continuously for many terms in Congress. That is the reason why he is to-day looked upon as the great figure of the popular branch of the national Legislature. It is with Mr. Reed in mind that strangers seek the gallery and they first speak his name when they ask

that distinguished members be pointed out to them. Partisan association makes no difference in the curiosity or interest displayed by the strangers who go to the House galleries.

To Mr. Reed also comes that finest tribute which associates pay to fellow-members. The experienced eye in the gallery does not fail to note that it is toward the place where Mr. Reed is seated or stands that the glance of the opposition most frequently turns, that it is with evident consciousness of Reed's presence that the speaker presides, and that there are those indefinable, unconscious mannerisms that suggest acknowledged leadership that his own party associates reveal in their relations with him in the House.

Mr. Reed is not one of those who became conspicuous by slow and patient ways. He had been a member of the House but a short time when his service upon a committee appointed to investigate some of the charges made in connection with the presidential



CHARLES F. CRISP OF GEORGIA.
SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE.

election of 1876 fixed public attention upon him and made him the conspicuous member of a committee of which he was the youngest and upon which his name stood near the bottom of the list. He displayed at that time precisely that sarcastic wit, that rasping method of insinuation, that blunt, epigrammatic statement of a forceful fact in his cross examination of Samuel J. Tilden with which he has since then delighted his friends, confounded his political enemies, and amused and instructed the country so often.

To succeed in the House requires alertness of intellect far more than it does profundity. It makes necessary the absolute command of intellectual resources so that they may serve upon the moment and with the intuitive accuracy of maternal judgment. It requires also a mastery of the subtleties of parliamentary procedure, a knowledge which is professional and which entails as patient, plodding, drudging labor as does the mastery of some of the elements of the common law. That has been Mr. Reed's shield and also his weapon of attack. It was also Randall's, and it was that rather than any brilliancy of intellect or any charm of personal influence which made it possible for Randall to hold a great majority at bay and actually to starve his political opponents into submission in that great contest over the Force bill of 1874.

Without such mastery of this machinery which controls all action in that turbulent and noisy body, even Mr. Blaine's pre-eminent genius for handling groups of men and marshaling them to his wishes could not have prevailed in the House. It has been a common thing to say that Mr. Reed wins his battles by a sort of overwhelming personality, by an aggressive and irritating manner of debate, by a sneer instead of a persuasion and a taunt instead of an argument. The capacity to do these things is undoubtedly one of Mr. Reed's weapons. But those

who have served with him in the House know very well that his supreme mastery of the technical and subtle rules is of itself an achievement possible only to a well-disciplined mind, one that thinks logically, and to a man capable of long-sustained and patient drudgery with dry details. Some men have undertaken to master the rules and have been compelled to give up in despair. Haskell, one of the most serviceable men whom Kansas or any other state ever sent to Congress, was overwhelmed by the ef-

fort to master the parliamentary law and the details of the construction of a tariff bill. It sapped his life and he died almost before his associates knew that he was ill.

Those, too, who have asserted that Reed's warfare is that almost of the guerrilla, certainly of the cavalry raider, were confounded when last winter he delivered his speech not so much upon the Wilson bill as upon the general principle of protection as a policy that is sound, logical, and cor-



WILLIAM L. WILSON OF WEST VIRGINIA.
CHAIRMAN OF THE WAYS AND MEANS COMMITTEE.

rectly American. Hundreds of speeches have been delivered in that body which revealed ability, accurate knowledge, and in which facts were set forth with logical precision, and even with some effective rhetoric. Mr. Reed's speech by common consent was the profoundest analysis of the philosophy of protection, of what he deemed to be the specious and not even plausible pretenses of the

opposite policy, which has been heard in Congress at least within the present generation. It has been said that the treatment of the subject by Mr. Reed displayed many of the qualities revealed by Herbert Spencer in his profound analysis of social conditions and influences, and to the great majority even of his associates in the House it was proof sufficient that back of all the mannerisms of debate, all the artifices of public encounter, all the fury of fighting which Reed has displayed as leader of his party, there exists the logical mind which is able to analyze causes and to touch the roots of political and economical conditions.

Physical appearance very greatly serves a man who aims for leadership if he is fortunate enough to have a stalwart figure, a body which indicates that its owner possesses great strength and which is in fact impressive from very size. William H. Seward, who was a small man, used to say that his political career would have been much easier had he been a man of large physique, and Thomas H. Benton who was of great frame himself was accustomed to tell his friends that Stephen A. Douglas could never become president because his coat-tails came too near the ground. Mr. Reed has the advantage of physical presence. He is one of the largest men in either House. He stands in the heat of exciting debate like a very Saul among his associates, and as General

Sherman once said of cannon, "The size of them demoralizes the enemy," so when Reed is in the heat of contest his impressive physical appearance adds force to the weapons which he possesses.

With only a slight interval of time the leadership of the House passed to Reed from Blaine, who in a number of intellectual and temperamental respects greatly resembled Reed, himself a Maine representative. Garfield, after Blaine went from the House to the Senate, was the acknowledged Repub-

lican leader with Reed, McKinley, and still another Maine man, Frye, for his chief lieutenants. But Garfield held the invisible scepter scarcely more than the life of one Congress, resigning his seat to take the presidency. He would have yielded to Mr. Reed had he not been chosen president, as he would have passed from the House to the Senate on the 4th of March, 1881.

McKinley, the greatest of whose achievements were made in the House of Representatives,

gained his influence almost entirely through his sheer intellectual force. He has not the temperament which would enable him to control masses of men in the rough, as Mr. Reed is able to control them. He is one of those men who, had he been at Waterloo, would have said, "Gentlemen of the Guards, fire first." Reed always fought to win, believing that fighting had little of courtesy in it, and that the



GOVERNOR WILLIAM MCKINLEY OF OHIO.
EX-CHAIRMAN OF THE WAYS AND MEANS COMMITTEE.

hand that delivered a blow should never be gloved.

McKinley's success was the success of an idea. He made himself identified with the policy of protection, representing an advance in the principle perhaps beyond that which any other member of Congress had ever advocated. He was an exponent of protection for its own sake. He was switched off by no other public measure, he was faithful in and out of season to that single policy, and being able with fine rhetoric and impressive mannerism to formulate and defend his ideas he soon forced the House to accept him as a conspicuous champion of the protective policy. Therefore it was entirely natural that when Mr. Reed became speaker he should name McKinley as chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, a post which is esteemed that of the nominal leader of the House, although it is really that of the leader of the majority party upon the floor.

The speaker is the leader of the House, and the leader of both sides of the aisle. He carries a scepter more powerful than that held by the presiding officer of any parliamentary body in the world. Had McKinley been chosen speaker he would have wielded that scepter with politeness, courtesy, almost the suggestion of timidity which characterized Carlisle's manner, but when Reed held the gavel he made it speak. So did Randall and so did Blaine. The energy of Blaine, his constant expenditure of nervous force, was made particularly manifest by the viciousness with which he smote the desk with the gavel, so that it happened that as many as three or four desk lids were shattered to splinters by his gavel in a single session.

Carlisle brought to the House the reputation of intellectual gifts of the very highest order, and his triumphs in that body were almost wholly intellectual. The tribute of respect which his opponents always paid to him were the sign manuals of appreciation of his intellectual qualities. He was found not long after he became a member of the body to be a persuader of men solely by the force of reason. He had capacities for industry that were so great that it seemed at times as though they must surely undermine his frail physique. He did not have the alertness

of mind which characterized Reed, nor the swift and sure resource to his higher qualities upon sudden emergency which have enabled Reed to win so many battles and which never failed Blaine or Randall.

But given a question involving much patient investigation, prolonged comparison of statistics and figures, necessitating the digging at the roots of things and involving a lucid, logical presentation of facts and arguments following these investigations,

Carlisle stood pre-eminent among the men of the House of his generation. He had a marvelous capacity of so setting forth complicated, involved facts that they were received by his associates as easily as a mathematical demonstration when made by the teacher for his pupils. It was the faculty that makes the great lawyer, that would have given Mr. Carlisle the attentive ear of the Supreme Court bench, and his triumphs both in the House and the Senate have been due solely to these high intellectual qualities.

As a politician Mr. Carlisle is esteemed not greater than the average of those who



JOHN G. CARLISLE OF KENTUCKY.
SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.



W. BOURKE COCKRAN OF NEW YORK.

were his fellow-members when he served in the House, and although his first canvass for the speakership was conducted with such skill and accuracy of estimate that it was found at the caucus that the number of votes he received was only two less than that which his canvass had figured that he would receive, yet it was well known at the time that that remarkable exploit of politics was the achievement of one of the most adroit and subtle politicians who ever had a seat upon the floor of the House, Colonel Morrison.

Had Morrison possessed the rhetoric of McKinley, the capacity to fight in the open that is one of Reed's chief gifts, he would have been pre-eminent in his party, and it has been the opinion of those who have been able to measure and study men that he would ere this have been a presidential candidate. But Morrison is a strategist. Upon the floor of the House he seemed to lose command of his resources. He had Jefferson's incapacity for thinking upon his feet, and when he was championing that tariff bill which was called by his name, it was almost pitiful to look upon him as he struggled with his weakness when attempting to

say the words which were necessary before putting his measure to a vote. Morrison had executive qualities of the highest order, but it would have been impossible for him, no matter how long his district sent him to the Lower House, to obtain or to maintain the post of actual, visible leader.

The qualities which Morrison lacked, the present speaker of the House, Mr. Crisp, possesses. It was said of Crisp that he was the only man upon the Democratic side who was able to meet Reed in the give and take of hot and even angry debate and not be overwhelmed. He matched Reed's aggressiveness with a similar display, and while he does not possess that power of withering, irritating, aggravating sarcasm or capacity to condense an argument into an epigram or to make of a taunt a plea which Reed more than any man since John Randolph's day has revealed, nevertheless in the sturdy quality of taking and giving blows he was esteemed Mr. Reed's match, became the conspicuous champion of his party therefore and, political considerations favoring, was chosen to the speakership.

Yet Crisp is of a type all his own. He does not suggest that common notion of the



JOHN DALZELL OF PENNSYLVANIA.



BENTON McMILLIN OF TENNESSEE.

southern type of public men either in his methods or in his appearance. He is powerful because he has courage, pertinacity, strong will power, considerable tact, and, outside the struggles of the arena, something of personal charm. He has also accuracy of judgment, as was revealed when recently he might have stepped from the House to the Senate and thus have seen the fruitage of the highest ambition possible for him, he being of foreign birth, but he would not, believing that the time was not opportune.

The conspicuous intellectual force upon the Democratic side to-day is Mr. Wilson, the chairman of the Ways and Means Committee. Yet it has seemed to those who know Wilson best and who have watched with interest his career that his place is not in that turbulent body but in a chamber where quiet persuasion has more of influence than the more violent methods which prevail in the House. His success is due in some measure to methods which McKinley adopted. Mr. Wilson looked upon the reverse side of the shield to that which gained McKinley's admiration. He identified himself a few years after McKinley became prominent as

a protectionist with what is vaguely called revenue or tariff reform, and by patient and persistent fidelity at last commanded the respect of his associates. He also won the favor of the president, who it is said believed that, Carlisle alone excepted, Wilson possessed the highest capacity to set forth with lucidity and logic the pleas and arguments with which the Democratic tariff policy is supported.

But Wilson, like Carlisle, is no hand at mastering groups of men. His recent experience with the bill which is known by his name is an illustration of the capacity of the politician to outmaneuver and to outgeneral him. His conception of the House is that it is a great debating club whose questions are serious ones and where the affirmative is vitally to affect the interests of the general government and the people. Such a politician as Morrison or Gorman, such a leader as Reed, would find him an easy opponent to overcome. He has gained as Carlisle did, although not in so great a measure, respect for pure intellectual force, and there is even among his political opponents something of admiration and sincere friendship because of his gentle manhood, his freedom



JULIUS C. BURROWS OF MICHIGAN.

from political guile, and even for his credulity, a dangerous quality for a man who would succeed in political endeavor.

Burrows has gained influence partly because of long service, partly because of mastery of parliamentary rules, very largely because of faithfulness in the committee room and to some extent because of unusual oratorical power. He is to be classed among the leaders of the House and Mr. Reed has found him perhaps the most reliable of his associates in times of party peril.

Dalzell has gained influence because of unusually clear political judgment, and he is one who can command the ear of the House

with the force and charm of his rhetoric.

Cockran is a familiar figure because he is a brilliant man, but his capacity is the capacity solely of the orator. He has not proven unusually wise in the more silent councils of his party, and his temperament, which is the imaginative, poetic, artistic one, is not such as best fits a man for skillful sailing through the stormy seas of a Congressional term. Yet his extraordinary intellectual qualities are such as have specially charmed some of the greater intellects of the House, and have brought him into congenial association with



WILLIAM S. HOLMAN OF INDIANA.
"THE FATHER OF THE HOUSE."

the giant of the American Congress of today,—Mr. Reed.

THE GROWTH OF AUSTRALIA.

BY E. REYER.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "RUNDSCHAU."

IT was not until the Revolutionary War had ended and the larger part of the North American colonies had separated themselves from the mother country that the English began to look seriously on the vast territory of Australia which they might claim. In May, 1787, Sydney, the colonial secretary, sent to Botany Bay the first installment of convicts, under convoy of a man-of-war. The disheartened criminals were driven on shore to clear the forests, build block-houses, pasture the cattle transported with them, and sow the corn and maize. These were the Pilgrim Fathers—and mothers—of Australia. They numbered when they left England 564 men and 192 women.

After the usual hardships which befall the settlers of any new country, whatever their worth or station, Botany Bay became fairly prosperous. In 1795 colonists of the non-

criminal classes came out with a new governor and their intelligent, voluntary labor began the new era of Australian progress. Finding the region especially adapted to sheep-raising one of the prominent settlers imported a herd of merinos, which proved extremely profitable.

Sheep-raising and the export of wool was at first and for a long time the great calling. In 1851 the discovery of gold increased the resources of the island. In 1840 the government had stopped the exportation of convicts, having in fifty years sent out the very respectable number of 83,000.

From the decade of 1840-1850, then, dates the real growth of Australia. All hindrances being set aside which had hitherto checked the social, and therefore the material development of the continent, the condition of the country was such as to

profit to the full extent by the gold fever of 1851. Between 1851 and 1860 the stream of immigration rose to the great total of 585,000. The sixties added 292,000 more, the seventies, 330,000, and the eighties 403,000. At first the colony of Victoria, where the mines existed, received the large majority of the newcomers, but after the richness of the country became better known New South Wales gained its proportionate share. The large towns reflected the increase of population as well, and Sydney leaped from 30,000 inhabitants in 1841 to 224,000 in 1881, and 383,000 in 1891 while Melbourne showed the more wonderful growth of from 5,000 in 1841 to 283,000 in 1881 and 458,000 in 1891.

The emigrants to Australia, unlike the wanderers to the United States, are mainly English in race. Very few, relatively speaking, come from the other nationalities of Europe. For many years the consequence of this great immigration was to give the country a restless appearance, as so large a majority of the inhabitants were foreign born. In recent years this disadvantage to a settled civilization has passed away and the statistics show that nearly, if not quite, three fourths of the entire population of 3,000,000 and more is native to the soil.

After the period of agriculture and sheep-raising came the period of mining. For ten years the excitement lasted until the river sands where gold had first been found were exhausted and the more serious labor of shaft-sinking and quartz-crushing began. Some \$2,000,000,000 would measure the value of this industry and when the relatively small population is taken into account there is little wonder that the Australians became wealthy so quickly and so generally.

Toward 1860 agriculture began to reassert again its claims. The flow of gold diminished and other minerals came forward to claim the attention which the yellow metal had so long monopolized. In New South Wales the deposits of coal entered into rivalry with the precious sands and rocks of the highlands of Victoria. In 1847 already there was an annual output of 47,000 tons, which by 1880 had risen to 1,000,000 and

now amounts to some 3,000,000. One third of this is consumed at home. The rest is exported to the islands of the Pacific.

The ease of mining is also a noticeable feature. Instead of 300 tons to each miner, as is the case in Europe and America, the Australian workman has placed to his credit by the end of the year 485 tons, and receives his proportionate increase in wages. Lead and silver mining cuts quite a respectable figure also and tin as well. In all some 30,000 miners are employed in the colony of New South Wales, or about one seventh of the adult labor of the district.

Mining, it is seen, is to be ranked as one of the important industries of Australia. Even better is the showing made by agriculture. The climate is favorable,—mild winters and temperate summers. In the valleys and plains of the eastern slope dwell the farmers of the island. On the hills and mountains feed more than 116,000,000 sheep. This state of prosperity dates from the homestead laws of 1867, which offered to settlers large tracts of land at moderate rentals. Not only sheep are pastured on these territories. The last census shows the existence also of 11,000,000 head of cattle and 17,000,000 horses and the acres on which all these flocks, herds, or droves feed are valued at not less than \$2,000,000,000 without taking into consideration the improvements in land or buildings which in New South Wales alone were estimated in 1890 at over \$300,000,000. And all of this within fifty years approximately!

The wool trade of New South Wales amounts in yearly exports to \$50,000,000 to be contrasted with \$10,000,000 for silver and lead ores and \$2,000,000 for gold dust and ingots.

Every one is aware that in order to produce such results, irrigation on an extensive scale is employed in Australia. In that zone the rainfall is comparatively small, and herding or cultivation of the soil cannot be carried on without large reservoirs, wells, and cisterns. Some idea of the extent of this systematic watering by artificial means may be gained when we learn that in its pasture lands New South Wales counts no less

than 3,300 wells and 27,000 cisterns. The latter have on the average a depth of $19\frac{1}{2}$ feet and hold 200,000 hektoliters. Pumps draw the water from them and pour it into troughs of considerable length. Still in spite of these precautions the loss of livestock is quite serious in unusually dry years. Every other year from 500,000 to 2,000,000 sheep perish in New South Wales. In 1884 this loss was estimated at 8,000,000.

The wells are mainly of the artesian variety and the results already obtained from them are such as to justify all the labor expended upon them. Irrigation of large masses of land is now being attempted. Not long since the Chaffey brothers rented some 250,000 acres of barren land to the northwest of Melbourne. This was shortly after the year 1880. Within four years they had expended on it, mainly in irrigating works, some \$2,000,000. This waste of a decade ago is now a garden. Fields and orchards cover its desolateness with verdure and fruit, and no less than three thousand human beings have taken up their abode within its limits. In 1888 the same firm rented a new tract and are rapidly pushing on the work of redemption.

We must bear in mind that with irrigation the chance of settlement increases, as well as the amount of arable land. Year by year the boundaries of the desert are beaten back and the inhabitable sections of the island are expanding, and extending already far beyond what was thought possible not quite a generation ago.

Some idea of the wealth and activity of the citizens of this distant state may be gathered from the figures of their foreign trade. Wool and minerals form the exports, while manufactured articles comprise nearly all the imports. In 1889 New South Wales with its 1,100,000 inhabitants handled at its ports no less than 5,400,000 tons. Sydney is surpassed as a port of entry by only three English towns,—Liverpool, London, and Hull. India with two hundred and fifty times the population of New South Wales has only four times as much foreign trade. Besides, this trade is not, as a European might suppose, carried in foreign bottoms. Only one third

of the ships handling Australian commerce belong to the mother country. The other two thirds are the property of the proud colony, which in contrast with the United States has already freed itself from England in the matter of shipping. Sydney alone has seven large ship-yards.

The value of the exports from New South Wales in 1889 was £23,000,000, of which wool made almost the half. Its imports amounted to the same figure and consisted of manufactured articles and luxuries. But one undesirable feature of this great trade, and a consequence of the system of land-rent as well, is the concentration of capital and wealth in the large towns. Sydney and Melbourne possess at the present day one third and two fifths, respectively, of the wealth of the colony in which they are, while the bank deposits in all Australia have risen in thirty years from £16,000,000 to £129,000,000. The combined value of personal property and real estate in the year 1890 amounted to £1,170,000,000. By dividing this wealth *per capita* one may see that while each German family is estimated to own on the average \$3,000 and each English \$6,000, each Australian family would have to its credit not less than \$7,500. To be sure these figures represent a period of inflation in values and they experienced a notable diminution through the economic crisis of 1893.

As for the income on all the property the figures for New South Wales in 1888 were put at £54,000,000, of which £5,000,000 were set aside as savings. The average income of each inhabitant of the colony was in that year \$260 and his expenditure \$235. In Europe the average income is \$100 and in the United States \$160. The taxes for the Australian in 1888 amounted to between 5 and 6 per cent of his income, while from the Viennese workmen the indirect taxation takes from 11 to 17 per cent of his earnings. The concentration of wealth in the large cities shows of course that its possession is very unequally divided. Yet the record for consumption reveals a very comfortable existence for the Australian laborer. A country where the use of meat is four times as

great as in Germany, and of tea and coffee twice as great, has not yet become acquainted with suffering among the masses. Statistics show that in Germany each inhabitant consumes each year 30 kilos of meat, in England 50 kilos, in America 68, and in Australia 120. But on the other hand fewer vegetables are eaten, and if we add to the weight of the dry substances in potatoes the weight of breadstuffs consumed, we find that each German requires 340 kilos of vegetable food, while in the United States and Australia scarcely 200 kilos are demanded. Still it is undoubtedly the grazing industry, and the low price of mutton in consequence, which is accountable for the extreme use of meat in the last named country.

Another set of figures is important when we are considering the well-being of a people, the figures of poverty and crime, the figures of misery and suffering. In Australia out of every 1,000 of the population there are barely 4 public poor. In England there are 30. In the consumption of strong drinks and the statistics for drunkenness New South Wales compares again most creditably with European nations. The amount of spirituous liquors, brandy, wine, and beer annually drunk in Great Britain is 16 liters to each inhabitant, in Germany 13, in Australia and the United States 12. The number of saloons has greatly diminished there in recent years and arrests for drunkenness amount to only 17 per 1,000 of the population.

Strangely enough, the record of suicides in Australia far outstrips the mother country. In England out of 100,000 inhabitants there is an annual average of from 7 to 8 suicides. In New South Wales it is 10 and in Queensland it is 14. This, however, may be explained by the fact that emigration from a country naturally bears with it those people who have despaired of making their way at home, and who stake their existence on a last throw of the dice in a foreign land. The first reverse hurries them into another world. Still Saxony since 1860 shows a much higher ratio, 20 suicides to every 100,000 of the population.

The great progress in material wealth is

accompanied in Australia by a corresponding development of the mental. Like the American, the Australian is thoroughly persuaded that the common weal can be maintained only by universal education of the masses, and in the last few decades great things have been accomplished in this respect. The school statistics for New South Wales show that between 1846 and 1889 the per cent of the total population in school attendance had increased from 10 to 21 per cent while the yearly expenditure for each pupil now amounts to between \$20 and \$25, exclusive of the cost for buildings and equipment.

The schools, like those in America, are separated from the religious bodies and belong wholly to the state. At first parochial schools were the rule, and even after the laws of 1848 considerable sums were annually appropriated from the public treasury to their support. These grants ceased in 1890, and by the withdrawal of such subsidies the number of schools under the control of the congregations was greatly diminished, while the pupils in attendance in private schools correspondingly increased. In 1889 out of some 235,000 children of school age in New South Wales no less than 42,000 were receiving their instruction in private institutions.

The public schools of intermediate grades are naturally patterned after English models. The majority of them offer a fair training in modern languages and in some few a classical education is made the principal aim. For higher schools there is the technical school of Sydney, which in 1889 was attended by some 2,700 students, of whom 446 were girls. The university of Sydney, founded in 1855, is well endowed and is developing fast into an excellent institution. Its annual expenditure is about \$140,000. Up to the present time this foundation has received real estate to the amount of \$250,000 and cash endowments to the amount of \$400,000. In addition it disposes of numerous stipends and prizes which enable the poorer class of students to pursue their studies without excessive denial of the comforts or necessities of life.

It would be too long a story to enumerate

all the noteworthy achievements of the country in the direction of intellectual and artistic progress. But there is one evidence of the tendency of the people toward this end which I will select as typical. It is the matter of public libraries, which in Australia, as in England and America, are looked upon as means of popular education.

In Victoria in the year 1887 were to be found 314 public libraries with an income of over \$200,000, a collection of over 400,000 volumes and a circulation of over 3,000,000 copies. The free public library of Melbourne contained alone 115,000 volumes and 116,000 pamphlets and unbound volumes and had a circulation of 405,000 copies. The public libraries of Victoria offer to each man of her population two or three volumes on the average every year, just as many as the most efficient libraries of English or American cities. On the contrary our German towns afford in their book collections, which are free to their citizens, only in exceptional instances one volume to each inhabitant.

To be sure it is an acknowledged fact that

Germany can point to a much higher per cent of educated men than Australia or America. But on the other hand I could affirm that the mass of the people of these countries possess a higher average of education, which is revealed most clearly by their greater reading capacity. So far as I can judge from personal observation the instruction in American schools is indeed not so thorough as in our German, and yet it gives a better preparation for practical life. So the knowledge which the American and Australian gains in the public school is kept up and increased by the public library, while with us a large proportion of our pedagogical acquisitions is lost in later life for want of a proper incentive.

On the whole the data which are furnished by the statistics of Australia reveal to us a people which must be reckoned among the first not in relative material prosperity alone. We learn that the Australian state devotes its means to worthy ends as well, and uses them to place the intellectual culture of the whole nation upon a high and noble plane.

THE COLORING OF THE GRAPES.

BY SARAH KNOWLES BOLTON.

DAY by day we watched them taking on the purple,
 Toying with the sunshine in a golden mist,
 Sending out their fragrance with a royal bounty,
 Happy in their beauty simply to exist.

Through the long dry summer, broad green leaves had shaded
 Tiny growing clusters from the parching heat;
 Gathering from earth and sky food and air and moisture;
 Bathing them in evening dew, just to make them sweet.

Red and white and purple globes of wondrous texture,
 Grown and sealed and colored by no mortal hand;
 Types of peace and plenty—nature's perfect working—
 Blessings on the vineyards of our favored land!

MAJOR GENERAL O. O. HOWARD, U. S. A.

AS INTERVIEWED BY HERBERT JOHNSTON.

BY the limit of age Major General Oliver Otis Howard retires from the United States army on November 8, his sixty-fourth birthday, after forty-four years of active military service. His personal history and military record are unique and full of interest. At eleven he was a poor boy struggling for an education; at nineteen a college graduate; at twenty-four a graduate of the West Point Military Academy and a lieutenant in the army of the United States; later he became a leader in twenty-two battles; was under fire and a participant in almost as many engagements, counting his campaigns with the Indians, as Fighting Phil Sheridan, all the while rapidly winning distinction and promotion. General Howard retires from active service in the regular army standing next in rank to the commanding general, but one step removed from the highest command in the military service of the United States.

Never had I found him in a more delightfully reminiscent mood than on the day of this conversation. Looking backward he told me of many personal experiences beginning more than fifty years ago when he went from his birthplace, the town of Leeds, in Maine, to Hollowell to live with an uncle, where he earned enough to pay for his board and got his first schooling in the village betimes.

"I was about eleven years old when I went to Hollowell," he said. "At the school in the village, Mr. Burnham's high school, I saw other boys studying Latin, beginning a college course, and it occurred to me that I could do the same. I began a course of preparation for college and in the intervals of work at the farm I went away to the academies, keeping up my preparatory studies. When fifteen I entered Bowdoin College and graduated four years later. I went from there to West Point. That was in September, 1850."

Recalling the experiences of other new

cadets at West Point I asked General Howard how he got on as a "Plebe."

"As I went in September I was not regarded exactly as a Plebe, but they called me a 'Sep.' All the time I was a cadet I was called 'Sep' Howard. This is the usual custom with cadets who enter the academy in September."

"I presume you did not altogether escape that menial part of the service expected of every new cadet?"

"Well," said the General, "I think there was never any menial part. The older classes sometimes made a new cadet bring water a little more than he should for his turn; for example, there would be four cadets in a tent, and if the fourth one in happened to be what they called a fourth class man, or the 'Plebe,' the others would say, 'Come, Plebe, get us a pail of water.' Generally, the Plebe, to please them, would go off and get the water. I do not know whether all did it or not. But I never had any experience of the kind.

"The part that was hard for me, and I think it is hard to any new cadet, was the drill. When first drilled the cadets were separated into little squads of three, four, five, or six each. A corporal was put in charge of the squad. As you know, the first duty of the corporal is to stand the cadets up, having them take the position of soldiers, usually with the men in line facing him. Then he gives his commands," and pacing to and fro in front of me, General Howard uttered the commands himself in a way that made me understand how some corporals made cadets shiver in the early days at West Point, a privilege, by the way, which young corporals have not permitted to become extinct even yet.

"'Turn out your toes, and put your little finger on the seam of your pants,'" commanded General Howard in imitation of the corporal. "'Raise your shoulders a little,'

'Throw your chest out, more, more yet.' Thus he would command and then go around and feel of our shoulders to see that they were in position. 'Carry your head straight.' 'Don't stick your head over that way.' 'Bring your head square back.' 'Don't hold your chin down.' Then he would make us march. We would have to put out one foot and then the other, and he would hold us in that position as long as he could, as long as we could bear it, and sometimes speak pretty roughly.

"A little corporal, Corporal Walker, drilled me. I did not like his drilling; he called me names; called me 'monkey' sometimes, or said I behaved like a monkey; and I think I would have sold myself for a sixpence about that time. But we had another corporal—Boggs—in the class above me; he was very manly, he was perhaps about my own age or maybe a little older, and he never said anything at all but what was gentle. He gave his commands in a very authoritative tone and demanded instant obedience, and nobody questioned him. It made quite a difference whether we had a little fellow who ordered us around and who was younger than ourselves, or a man older and one to whom we gave respect."

"In how many battles did you engage during the war, General?"

"Twenty-two sizable battles all together," said General Howard. "Bull Run was the first sizable battle in which I took part. I was then a colonel commanding a brigade of New England troops in General Heintzelman's division."

Upon mention of this, his first notable battle, I remembered that it was for gallantry and courage in this engagement that he was made a brigadier general of volunteers. That was in September, 1861, and from this time forward his promotions came rapidly. In 1862 he served in the Virginia Peninsular Campaign, during which he lost his right arm.

Referring to this period he said: "At the battle of Fair Oaks, the first day of June, 1862, while leading a charge with part of my brigade across the enemy's line, I was wounded twice, first by a ball through my

forearm; afterwards another struck my elbow and lodged up near the shoulder, breaking the bone pretty badly. That was about half past ten in the morning. At the field hospital about five o'clock in the afternoon, after a consultation by several physicians, the arm was amputated and buried there in Virginia soil."

At Antietam and Fredericksburg General Howard commanded a division and it was during the interim between these battles that he was appointed a major general of volunteers. In April and July, 1863, he commanded the Eleventh Army Corps in the battles of Chancellorsville and Gettysburg. He won distinction at the battle of Missionary Ridge and Chattanooga later in the same year and in General Sherman's report of that campaign General Howard is praised as "exhibiting the highest and most chivalrous traits of the soldier."

When the Eleventh and Twelfth Army Corps were united General Howard succeeded to the command of the Fourth Corps, which with General Sherman at its head pushed on from Chattanooga to Atlanta in 1864. When General McPherson was killed near Atlanta, General Howard was transferred to the command of the Army of the Tennessee. He led the right wing of General Sherman's army in its historic march from Atlanta to the sea. The last battle in which he was engaged during the war was during this command, at Bentonville, North Carolina. His appointment to be brigadier general of the regular army was made in 1865 and one year later he was appointed a brevet major general.

General Howard's experience in Indian warfare has been so varied and withal so extensive that it rounds out a military career which in its smallest detail reads like a romance. He led, and that successfully, a number of Indian campaigns. As early as 1857, when he was chief of ordnance against hostile Indians in Florida, he had to cope with the Seminoles. Four later Indian campaigns which he led were those during the period of his command of the Department of the Columbia, against the Cochise Apaches in '72, the Nez Percés in '77, and the Piute

and Bannock and Sheep Eaters' campaigns in '78 and '79. As for the Indians against whom he waged campaigns General Howard both conquered and conciliated them.

"Did you know President Lincoln well?" was the next question I asked. Almost unconsciously I had opened the way for a series of interesting war reminiscences, only a part of which can be repeated here.

"I knew Lincoln pretty well," said General Howard, "from being near him, and I had some interviews with him. The last one was on September 25, '63, just before I started west with my command.

"I saw Lincoln for the first time soon after my regiment arrived in Washington, and I paid my respects to him then at the White House. That was in June, '61, and I saw him many times afterwards. About a month before the battle of Chancellorsville, in April, he came to my tent and sat with me a little while.

"Mr. Lincoln manifested great kindness to me. Often when I went in to see him at the time of my visits in Washington he came to me and extended his hand—both hands—and took mine in his and conversed with me. One time after Chancellorsville there was a kind of conspiracy to get me removed from the command of the Eleventh Corps. Some others were ambitious to get my place and General Hooker was not friendly to me. I rather think he favored it. I heard an account of an interview they had—the delegation that went on from the Army of the Potomac to see Mr. Lincoln—and the remark that gratified me personally very much was that made to the delegation by President Lincoln: 'General Howard is a good man,' he said; 'let him alone and he will bring things straight in his command.'

"After Gettysburg my corps, which consisted of two divisions, the other division having been sent to South Carolina, and Slocum's corps, consisting of two divisions, were put together and placed under the command of General Hooker and sent as a single organization to the West.

"It took four or five days to move from the Army of the Potomac over to the Army

of the Cumberland. We went over, one train following another on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, through and across Kentucky and Tennessee and were strewn along from Nashville to the crossing of the Tennessee at Bridgeport, Alabama. My headquarters were at Bridgeport and I was there when General Grant came to take his first look into the new division, the new geographical division, to which he had been assigned.

"The day before his coming I went up to Stevenson, ten miles, where General Hooker had his house and home for the time being, and while there word was given that Grant was coming down from Nashville on the train. I had to return by the same route, so I was at the depot at Stevenson when the train came in. I stepped into the car where General Grant was with a good many other officers and saw him for the first time. He was very thin and pale at that time. It was just after his terrible accident at New Orleans when he was thrown from his horse. He was very lame, and could hardly move.

"General Hooker instead of going down to see him himself sent an officer with a spring wagon and invited General Grant to go up and stay over night with him. I was in the car when the officer came in. Without rising from his seat Grant said very brusquely (I was astonished at his way of saying it), 'If General Hooker wants to see me he will find me on this train.' It was not very long before General Hooker found his way down there and paid his respects to his commanding officer. Grant knew Hooker very well before that occurrence and he wanted to be sure of his ascendancy over him. General Grant understood how to assert himself. That was the first time I saw him and then we rode down together the ten miles to Bridgeport and he stayed over night with me in my tent."

General Howard was actively interested in the work of the Christian Commission during the war, and indeed his Christian work, continued through all the years since his young manhood, long ago won for him the title, Christian soldier. If there is one phase of Christian work more than another

which has always claimed General Howard's attention it is that relating to young men. He has been a member of the Y. M. C. A. since before the war.

Not long before the day of this conversation I heard General Howard deliver an address on "The Value of a Christian Experience to Young Men." His strong convictions and his earnest manner of giving them expression brought forth a number of old-fashioned "amens" from a few of those in the audience near him. It was this that prompted my next question. "Were you ever a local preacher or an exhorter, as it is often called, General?" I asked.

Immediately his face lighted up as he replied: "Why, yes, I was an exhorter once. It was in 1857 in Florida. Soon after my conversion there I joined the Methodist Episcopal Church South on probation and the pastor of the church immediately appointed me an exhorter. I exhorted a good deal over Florida and, I hope, did some good. Before I was taken into that church in full connection I came north and later in the year, in August I think it was, I joined the Congregational Church."

"Has there not always been a popular impression, General, that a Christian experience is not an essential part of the fighting soldier's equipment?"

"Yes, I think that impression very often prevailed," said General Howard, "especially in the beginning of the war. However, it was not the feeling among the home people. When I went out with my regiment, every family represented in it that I knew anything about, that I had any knowledge of directly or indirectly, was glad enough to believe that I was a just man and a Christian man, one who feared God and tried to do His will. There were some men though who were rough officers, liked to drink some, and cursed some, who thought it was no place for a Christian to be in command of men of war.

"I remember that Governor Berry of New Hampshire visited our command when I was in front of Alexandria. I had a brigade, and Governor Berry visited Colonel Cross. Cross was a very able officer, had

had a good deal of experience in the Mexican War before, and he was yet comparatively young. I think he was about forty years old. Cross told the governor that General Howard was 'a good soldier but a little cranky on the subject of religion.' You see he thought I was a good soldier in spite of my religious faith. Governor Berry visited me at my tent. I think he dined with me. He told me of it. But Governor Berry himself was decidedly a Christian gentleman, and it rejoiced him very much to think I was such a 'crank.'

"You know it is a solemn thing to take command and go forward to fight the battles of the country and to go into close action, where there is one chance, perhaps, in a thousand, of your coming out alive, or bringing the men out alive—not to think so much about yourself. I do not know how others carried the responsibility, but it was a great relief to me to pray and rely upon God—I do not mean in the way of using many words, or going through with any special forms, but to have a steady reliance—as Grant did—upon the Almighty presence and blessing of the God of battles."

"Is there not something of a prejudice among soldiers against the Christian in the military service?"

"O, no," said General Howard; "on the contrary, the soldiers, all things being equal, relied more upon the man who feared God and tried to keep His commandments. A man might be a professing Christian and yet be a weak, sniveling, good-for-nothing fellow—and they considered all such as hypocrites; but the man who loved and feared God did his duty better, kept his gun cleaner, and minded his own business more, and did every duty with self-sacrifice and fearlessness. Because a man was a Christian he lost no credit either with his company or with his commander. And, then, you know, that in a large force like ours in the field, large numbers of them were Christian men. Sometimes whole companies, from the commander of the company to the last private, came out right from our Sunday schools and churches—even ministers were commanders."

A good story and one which gives point

to General Howard's statement that a soldier receives the respect of his fellows for his better qualities is one told by a soldier who was in his command. I interject it here because it seems to fit.

"It was a dark, stormy night and General W. T. Sherman thought himself in need of a brandy stimulant. Going to the tent of General Howard, whom he knew to be a total abstainer, General Sherman was on the point of asking the surgeon for a drink of brandy when he observed Howard in an inner apartment. The story goes that the grizzled strategist stammered a request for Seidlitz powders, which the surgeon gave him. The General swallowed the powders with a wry face and then beckoned the surgeon outside. 'Respect, sir,' said he, 'for General Howard deterred me from saying that I wanted brandy, but you should not have forced that vile concoction on me.' It is said the General got the brandy forthwith."

In discussing the recent labor troubles in the West I was not surprised to find General Howard to be a man of strong views, especially on the relation of the army to social disturbances.

"The army has no relation to the laboring people," he said, "any more than to any other class of people. The army is the general police of the nation, and is a supporting arm to the executive head—the president of the United States."

"Do you think the army and the number of posts should be increased in order to prevent future social outbreaks and better to protect and preserve the public peace?"

"I think it would be wise for this republic to increase its regular force," replied the General thoughtfully. "I cannot say that it is absolutely necessary, but the part of wisdom to do it.

"I said publicly before this thing came on, that all our great cities needed a United States garrison and thoroughly drilled troops near it; and in my judgment there ought to be a post of about a thousand men in each state and territory. I doubt very much if our legislators will agree to that; but I don't speak now as an officer desiring com-

mand, or with any personal interests in that direction, but as a citizen of some experience. We do not want a large standing army, but we want one reasonably large, so that fools will quit their folly."

"What would you call reasonably large?"

"Well, fifty or sixty thousand men—take what I said, a thousand men for each state and territory.

"You would then double the present force?"

"Well, we have but twenty-five thousand, unless you count in the navy. Congress has appropriated lately but for twenty thousand."

"A great many people seem to think that the world is so advanced that there is no danger, or that we ought to teach men so, but this little episode of ours in Chicago shows us that men are talking in their social meetings and secret meetings against somebody else. There are anarchists plotting the taking of human life. You could raise thirty thousand of them in Chicago who would just as lieve burn that city down as not and destroy the people and all their wealth.

"We take in constantly from the old world men with old ideas; we absorb them pretty rapidly too; there are parts of our big cities where you do not hear English spoken; and large numbers of the men are enemies of the government simply because it is the government, and the police because it is the police. So long as that is the case it is well to be reasonably prepared. Where there are robbers it is well to have safes; and when there are no robbers then have no safes. It is the same with the army in this great republic. I want love to prevail. We all do; and we want men to do all they can to promote each other's interests and when we can do that we shall all be Quakers."

At sundown on November 8, the flag will be lowered from the staff of General Howard's headquarters at Governor's Island, N. Y., for the last time. Then his eight years' command of the Department of the East will be completed and a useful and brilliant career will end, a Christian soldier's career of forty-four years well spent in the military service of his country.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

HOW SHOULD PARENTS REGARD CHILDREN DURING COURTSHIP?

BY LUCY BARNARD COPE.

IT is a very important and extremely delicate question with parents when they are called upon to regard, in a practical and proper way, the courtship of their children. One extreme or the other of artificial exaction is apt to assert itself; either sentimentality which excludes common sense, or a mere sordid consideration prevails. Far too seldom does courtship assume the moral importance due to it.

What is the object of courtship? Romance has veiled it and it has until quite recently in our country been almost wholly left to the imagination of immature natures. The outcome meantime must be of more importance than decisive battles or changes in frontiers and dynasties. How our children marry, to whom they are to be married, and what the result of marriage shall be, these are the bed-rock base of social and domestic interest. The phrase "happy marriage" when rightly construed foretells the future glory of civilization. Happy marriage, happy homes, a happy nation; these three are one.

Courtship is really the preliminary contract; for we scarcely regard as courtship the mere effort of a would-be suitor to engage the affections of a girl, although strictly speaking we should. But it is when, mutually attracted, two young people begin to find their lives blending, that we must look upon them as lovers and decide what we are going to do in the premises.

We are aware that the star-dust of a new world is making ready to condense whenever we see this sort of indescribable affinity manifesting itself, and we know that now or never our experience of life must be cast into the problem possibly as the controlling factor. What shall we do? What does this proposed marriage promise? The young people rarely think deeply and seriously, and if

we are going to do any thinking for them the earlier we begin the better.

In this as in every other affair, nearly everything depends upon confidence. The parent and child must be on terms of mutual interest commanding absolute openness and sincerity, otherwise there can be no deep influence, and the parent must have welcome share from the outset in the little drama of love.

Under existing social and domestic circumstances it is the daughter and the mother who have in our country the responsibility of deciding matrimonial questions. True the father may be the final arbiter in many cases; but mother and daughter are brought intimately and face to face with all the details. The son and lover feels that he must make his own way to success or defeat; the decision, however, rests with the young woman; all along, she and her mother hold the threads of fate.

Here then, in a matter of highest concern involving the life-long happiness or misery of two young persons, the question forces itself upon us: How far shall the parent go in attempting to influence the child and what shall be the limit of interference? Certainly arbitrary control is not reasonable; in most cases it is not practicable even if justified by circumstances.

It would seem that the beginning point of happiness in marriage is in a perfect home life. Children brought up in a wholesome, free, and invigorating domestic atmosphere absorb correct principles; they see and know what true marriage is. It is not a theory. Mother and father live it daily. And when the sons and daughters come to the marriageable age the criterion that they naturally set to gauge matrimony by is what life at home has made for them.

Granted, then, that children have been

properly reared and have come to the experience (the sweetest and most memorable of all experiences) which is to end in wedding bells ringing or in the collapse and disappointment of their hopes; how shall we regard them? Leave them quite uninfluenced to take the great risk, feeling that in bringing them up and giving them open opportunity amid the best social conditions we have done all that duty can demand or safety permit?

If the parent has been the companion and friend, the comrade and confidante of the child all the way along from infancy to maturity, there will exist between the two a mode of communication which without words will keep up a perfect mutual understanding, so that both will feel just what is proper in every delicate exigency. But unfortunately this ideal equilibrium of sympathy is very rare and the cold, hard facts of life must be anticipated by the parent long precedent to the days of courtship, and set before the child without shrinking or prejudice. And here is where the most difficult part of duty lies.

The nearer we can come to regarding our children with the absolute vision of love, the nearer we shall approach the ideal of understanding with regard to their natures, dispositions, tempers, needs. Here is the

secret. What one young person would accept as proper and final would but arouse anger and obstinacy in another. In the sacred affair that we call courtship and too often treat with light indifference or sentimental evasion there should always be present the profoundest regard for character, and to this every appeal should be made. Lovers and sweethearts are, by what love implies, mature men and women; for marriage is not now-a-days contemplated as possible between striplings and school girls; and as men and women our sons and daughters must be regarded during courtship. We cannot say yes and no to them with a czar's or empress' air of supremacy; our influence must reach them through the fine, pure medium of that love which has, since infancy, been growing between us and them.

If we see with the practiced and practical vision of experience and act upon the unselfish principle of parental affection our children will be very apt to meet us half way in our efforts to direct them, even in their wrestlings with the blind god. Half the battle is fought, nay the victory is already won, if from their birth onward our children have been shown that we never take advantage of them because we are their parents.

THE "BEST MAN."

BY J. EDMUND V. COOKE.

I OWN I was a little surprised when Wilson asked me "to stand up with him."

En passant, I don't like to "stand up with" a bridal party, though not at all averse to acting as groomsman for a friend, just as I should be willing to admit having a sweetheart, if that pleasure were mine, but should certainly strenuously object to her being designated as my "lady friend."

My friend is my friend, woman or man, my betrothed is my betrothed, and my spade is my spade. Call a patroness or a mistress (in any sense of the word) a "lady

friend" if you will, but don't degrade the beautiful, equal, holy, and human relation of sweetheart by it. When a man speaks of his "lady friend," I am forced to regard him as possessing but one friend among the opposite sex, which is usually not, presumably, complimentary to either himself or the friend.

So, when Wilson asked me "to stand up with him," and remarked that I had "never met his lady friend," I could not help a certain inward shrinking and a little wonder that he had asked *me*. A man is supposed

to ask his *best* friend on such an occasion and friendship must rest on a plane of equality, fraternity, and familiarity. It can't find much footing on an incline and the incline must exist where one is, or holds himself to be, the superior of the other.

Had I been Wilson's thorough friend, I should have said, "For Heaven's sake, Jack, don't say 'stand up with' or refer to your 'lady friend' unless you want me to cut you dead the next time we meet." Instead I said, "Why, of course I'll do it and gladly, too. Accept my congratulations."

After all, there was something in common between us, for we both were professional musicians and had always talked over our public plans and prospects freely and frankly, with little or none of that petty jealousy so rampant among most of our ilk. I could, and I did, commend much of his work and I liked him the better because he preserved a discreet silence as to some of mine, for though I considered it good, I could honor a man who would not praise what he did not believe worthy of it.

Besides, I was feeling particularly charitable toward all mankind that morning—we usually do feel so when the world is going right with us—and those straws of "stand up with" and "lady friend" floated past without calling my attention to the way the wind was blowing.

As I said before, I had never met Wilson's *fiancée* and as it was rather necessary I should do so, I agreed to go out some evening when he was there and make her acquaintance. I am afraid I did not show a very cordial interest in the matter, for two or three weeks slipped away without my making the appointment, as I had agreed to, but then, I was very busy. However, one day Wilson called me up by 'phone to ask about it and while he was leading up to it with an inquiry as to the state of my health, I broke in with, "By the way, when do you want me to call on Miss Hatton? If you've reached the point where you can tolerate the presence of a third party half of an evening, I'll run out there."

I felt a little guilty in thus shifting my own shortcomings onto his shoulders, but

he answered seriously, "Oh, come out to-morrow evening. I guess she won't mind it much. I'll be there early to introduce you."

My guilty feeling vanished. I couldn't help thinking him a little of what the Englishman calls a "cad" and it's hard to keep up a proper respect for the rights of a man who has none of the finer feelings.

I did not hasten my progress to Miss Hatton's the next evening, but I arrived there before Wilson nevertheless. Of course I expected him to be on the lookout for me to admit me and it was rather awkward to be confronted by a servant of a strange house without a premeditated plan of action. Should I ask for Mr. Wilson, whose home it wasn't, or for Miss Hatton, whom I had never seen? I decided on Wilson and was informed that Mr. Wilson was not there, of course.

I was fumbling for a card, wondering how many Miss Hattons there might be and just beginning to feel a horrible uncertainty as to whether the name were Hatton, when I caught a glimpse of a slight figure in the background and the next moment it moved toward the door with, "Is this Mr. Van Ennis? Come in, please. I am Miss Hatton. It was very stupid of Jack and me to leave you to your own resources in this way. Let me have your coat and hat. Mr. Wilson is to bring Miss Harter over this evening and I'm afraid Kate must be 'prinking.'"

"Is Miss Harter to be first bridesmaid?" I asked as we passed into the parlor.

"Yes. Oh, you know her, don't you? Kate told me you were quite old friends."

"Indeed, I'm proud to have her say so, and I should have choked her if she hadn't," I returned. I could afford to speak a little brutally of Kate Harter. She was *such* a good friend.

Miss Hatton laughed and showed her pretty teeth. I liked the girl. She was so free and unconstrained. We became acquainted rapidly and while we waited for the others, I asked her to sing. Without any of the usual profuse apologies, she seated herself at the piano. I liked her for that, too.

"I'll sing a little love-song I came across recently," she said.

I arose to turn her music, as she fingered the introduction carelessly, and could not repress a little start of surprise and a flush of pleasure. She did not notice me however, but sang,

"Love did not come with a rushing wing
To storm and seize my breast,
But he came as a nameless little thing,
With trifles to do and say and sing;
Pleasant were they, yet brought unrest;
Pleasant, yet brought unrest."

"I think that's true," she said. "I know I didn't fall in love all of a sudden. I hardly knew I was in love at all, till Jack asked me."

What a frank innocent child she was! and who does not like frankness and innocence?

"I don't commonly fall in love at first sight myself," I responded as gravely as I could.

She showed her pretty teeth again. Her eyes, too, looked uncommonly fine when she laughed.

"Shall I sing the second verse?" she asked.

"Yes, but call it a stanza, please," I answered. "A verse is a line."

She looked just a trifle surprised at my presumptuousness, but thanked me quietly, and I thought sincerely.

"Anon, his voice took serious ring,
And then command expressed,
And lo! I found that I could not bring
My heart from its mad, mad worshiping
At the shrine of a wild unrest,
The shrine of a wild unrest."

"Don't you like those minors?" she asked.

"Very much," I answered honestly, "please go on." She proceeded,

"I weep with joy and with sorrow sing;
Oh, am I curst or blest?
Troubled am I if to me Love cling;
But lost am I if away Love wing;
Then kiss me, Love, as I kiss Unrest,
Kiss me! I kiss Unrest."

"I don't quite understand that—stanza," she said. "Do you believe in such a rhapsody of love as all that? Now, please, give me your candid, honest opinion of my song—about my voice and interpretation, I mean, and everything. Jack says you think yourself—I mean he says you're a clever critic, and really, I like good out-and-out, honest criticism."

I mentally noted her slip which showed Wilson's none too complimentary opinion of me and forgave the little fib with which she tried to cover it up.

Had she been less persistent for a criticism, I should have contented myself with some polite commendation of the qualities worthy of praise, but I couldn't honestly let it go at that under the circumstances, so I said, "You must remember that one hearing of a voice hardly gives a basis for an elaborate criticism. I like its quality very much. It seems to me to be naturally musical, as well as sympathetic, but I can't commend the training which—"

"Jack trained it," she put in and I stopped. "Oh, please go on," she cried, "I really beg pardon for interrupting."

"I think your interpretation of the first stanza excellent," I said, avoiding a recurrence to the training question, "of the second stanza, not quite so good, and of the third, to be very plain, rather careless and bad. I judge that your interpretation of the three stanzas is in proportion to your understanding of them. You remember you said you didn't understand the third."

"But perhaps our interpretations differ," she objected. "Please don't think I'm fishing for compliments instead of criticism, but you know I must be convinced that your criticism is right in order for it to do me any good. Now, Jack says my interpretation is perfect. You see there are two against you. May it not be that you mistake the interpretation yourself?"

How her face improved when animated! I almost forgot to feel a lack of confidence in Wilson, if this were a sample of his carelessness or ignorance, but it did strike me after a moment, as well as a certain correlated conceited satisfaction that he had *not* seen fit to commend some of my work, as heretofore mentioned. I drifted away from her question for a moment and she recalled me.

"Don't you think you may misunderstand the composer yourself, Mr. Van Ennis?"

"Maybe so," I answered collectedly, and just then the door-bell rang, "but—I am the composer."

I shall never forget the change in that

dear little face of hers, if I live to be as old as I sometimes now feel. She was on her feet, with an apology on her lips for leaving me, for of course it was her *fiancé* and her bridesmaid at the door. Such a pretty confusion and such an honest, womanly contrition, though there was no need of either.

"Thank you so much," she said gently, and then the others came in.

"Well, no need of introductions, I guess," said Wilson loudly. "Sorry I'm late, Sis, but couldn't help it."

I am able to stop and look back at that moment, and say I had not yet learned to love Amy Hatton. Thus far, both she and I and the first stanza agreed. It was not "love at first sight."

True, I had known her but half an hour, but we were better acquainted in that time than either of us will ever become with people we meet every day. I know I was not then in love from the way I spoke to Wilson a little later. The prospective bride and her maid were absorbed together on one side of the room, when Wilson, sitting near me, said in an undertone, "How do you like the girl?"

"The girl!" What a profanation! but mark my answer.

"I like her very much, you lucky dog, and I congratulate you over again. I believe I'm half in love with her myself. How would you consider changing places; eh?"

No, I am sure I would not have spoken so, had I then had any least idea of loving Amy Hatton. I spoke loudly enough for all of them to hear, if they cared to.

Wilson gave a satisfied smirk and observed, for my ear, that he wasn't born yesterday, and, furthermore, wasn't a bad judge of a woman.

There was no denying that he was a good deal of a cad—with some good qualities of course, but still a cad.

When our evening drew to a close, Wilson asked me if I would "see Miss Harter home," remarking that it was hardly his time to go yet.

I had intended to offer to perform this pleasant duty, but his asking it did not please me nevertheless.

I remember Miss Hatton's warm clasp of

my hand, as she said, "Good-night," and I felt I was glad there was something between us shared by none other. She had not mentioned her singing for me, and somehow I felt that she would not. Yes, I was *glad*. Then I wondered *why* I was glad.

"Arch, do you know Mr. Wilson very well?" asked Kate almost as soon as we were started homeward.

"In a way, yes; in another way, no," I answered. "I didn't suppose I was an intimate enough friend for his 'best man' though. Why do you ask?"

"Oh, nothing," she replied and there was a curious tone to her voice, "only he isn't the kind of a man I should have supposed Amy would choose."

Again I felt glad and again I wondered why.

"Oh, people always say that," I rejoined carelessly.

"People don't always have the same cause to say it," Kate retorted quickly. "Arch, why do you suppose we were late this evening?"

"On account of your tendency to prink, Miss Hatton says," I answered with a lightness I did not feel.

"Well, Amy Hatton is wrong," she said with emphasis. "This is for you only, Arch, but it was because that man purposely took me out of our way, tried to flirt with me, tried to kiss me! Ugh! and his wedding next week."

Why did I feel a thrill of exultation? then a wave of disgust for Wilson? then a throb of pity for Amy Hatton? However, I usually keep my feelings under pretty good control and so I spoke banteringly, "Well, Kate, it's pretty hard to blame a man considering the girl he was with."

"You don't feel like that and you know it, Arch Van Ennis," answered Kate hotly.

I was about to take advantage of the opening she had unconsciously made, assure her my expressed opinion was very sincere, and offer to prove it then and there, when suddenly I thought of Amy Hatton—and I didn't. Yet at that very moment she might be kissing that cad Wilson.

"I heard you say you would gladly change places with Mr. Wilson," continued Kate,

half troubled, half laughing. "Why don't you do it? Take him out somewhere and lose him—or kill him."

As if I had already been considering some such gentle plan for the disposal of Wilson and, before I thought, I answered her seriously, "But I am on my honor, Kate. He has chosen me as his 'best man.' My duties are *to* him, not *against* him."

Then I forced a laugh and we dropped the subject.

The next day I discovered an unaccountable tendency on my part to ask my intimates whether they knew Amy Hatton, charming little person, *petite*, graceful, pretty, quite a voice, too; I was to be first groomsman at her wedding. The groom? Oh, Jack Wilson. You know him?

Of course I said nothing against Wilson. On the contrary I praised him all I could, but I noticed a warmth in my heart toward anyone who spoke slightly of him. What a contemptible fellow I was becoming! I should soon be a cad myself.

I saw no more of Amy Hatton for a week. For the evening before the wedding, a semi-rehearsal had been arranged—a common thing, but a horrible bore in my opinion.

Miss Hatton, on that occasion, was in a plain house-gown of some nameless color, which fitted her to perfection and I remember thinking that I had never seen a gown so neat. I don't believe I had noticed women's dresses much before.

She took occasion, when we were apart from the rest, to ask my pardon (and I felt that I could have given her my head) for criticising my criticism and said she had tried to study the song since. Fancy her studying my song in her bridal week! I felt a deep grateful joy. We rehearsed the march and part of the ceremony. Wilson scolded his *fiancée* because she got out of step and laughed rudely at her because she was nervous. I saw Kate glance curiously at me. I looked at Miss Hatton and noted, with a thrill, that she sent a timid little pleading smile at me. I ground my teeth and could have knocked Wilson down with a relish, but I was his "best man."

How I got through the next day escapes

my memory. It was a home wedding and the bridal party were requested to get to the house and be stowed away before the guests arrived. I was there early.

Of course my position was chiefly honorary. What little I could do I did and of course I placed myself at Wilson's disposal if I could in any way aid him. He was a good-looking fellow and full dress became him, but I thought he might have devoted less time to his mustache and more to his bride. After the dressing was over, our bridal party were gathered together in a room by ourselves.

"How handsome the bride looks," I said half to Wilson, half to myself.

"How pale she is," he complained. "She looked twice as good a week ago. I should think she might take some care of herself at such a time."

I said nothing. I was his "best man."

The bride thanked me very sweetly for the little gift I had sent, yet she hardly looked at me.

Mendelssohn's beautiful Wedding March floated up to our ears. Kate took my arm and we led the way along the lengthy hall, down the long staircase, across the expanse of drawing rooms. What a journey it seemed!

Now the music ceased and the minister began his words. They sounded as solemn as the tolling of a bell. The bride's "I do" was sharp and clear as a crystal, so sharp that it almost seemed to have in it an element of pain. The groom's responses were almost indifferent.

I produced the ring. The fateful words were said. The husband saluted his wife, then the bridesmaids—then the "best man."

Her lips were as cold as death.

The bridal couple were to leave very late and the carriage for Kate and myself had been ordered for the same hour. Consequently the ordinary guests left before any of us principals. It was a miserably long evening, yet I could not wish it over.

When the time came for parting, there were the usual tearful embraces. I remember smiling at them.

I was standing at the door with Wilson.

Finally the bride kissed Kate and then her mother for the last time.

They went down the walk together. The carriage door closed with a cruel click, like the spring of a living tomb. Ugh! How horrible!

"Arch," screamed Kate, "you have forgotten the marriage certificate."

Sure enough. There I stood with it in my hand. I was just in time to call to prevent the carriage starting. The bride reached

out and took the document from me.

"Oh, by the way, Mr. Van Ennis," she said quietly, "I have changed my interpretation of that third stanza. I think I understand it better now."

The "happy couple" are "at home."

I ought to call. But I love the bride too much and I love the groom too little.

Still, I was his "best man."

A WOMAN PHARMACIST.

BY CARLOTTA PERRY.

THERE is a drug store on a busy corner in Chicago on the plate-glass window of which is the name Ida Hall Roby. During a course of small purchases there I learned that this is the name of the proprietor of the store and that the establishment is the only one of its kind in the city owned and managed entirely by a woman.

The profession of pharmacy has so few followers among women that my interest was awakened in this bright businesslike little woman and one day I said to her, "Tell me, Mrs. Roby, how it came about."

She modestly answered, "There is really nothing to tell. It was necessary for me to do something and I took up the work to which circumstance and adaptation directed."

Then she added: "It seems to me that my work has been greatly overestimated. Why, any woman could have done the same with the same incentive and the same courage and persistency." In this last clause, it seems to me, lies the secret of her success.

Mrs. Roby has the honor of being the first woman graduate in the pharmacy of the Northwestern University at Evanston, Illinois. She was born near Rochester, N. Y., but was reared and educated in the West. A resident of Chicago for the last twenty years, it was in the '80's that she was thrown upon her own resources with a small son to support.

Instead of following in the paths crowded
H-Nov.

by other women seeking a livelihood she sought a situation in a drug house, and after some effort found a proprietor of one who was willing to make the experiment. Here she remained four years performing just the duties that the young man clerk would have done, making the most of every opportunity for learning all that could be learned, and forming, meantime, a wide acquaintance among physicians. At the end of this time she began a course of study in the Northwestern University and in the summer of 1889 graduated with the degree of Ph. G.

During this period of study she opened the business which she now conducts, studying and attending to the store upon alternate days. Mrs. Roby says that aside from the long hours and hard work incident to these double demands, her greatest difficulty was to conquer the prejudice against women in pharmacy. She also stated that a great hindrance to the progress of the woman clerk or student in this business is the unwillingness to permit her to perform the duties and share the privileges that are open to the male clerk.

This is due partly to the spirit of gallantry but more to the evident feeling that the woman is not thoroughly in earnest in her purpose to become skilled and efficient in the profession. Notwithstanding this she declares that she did everything during her four years' apprenticeship except washing the bottles.

Through all the difficulties and discour-

agements that were in and about her way Mrs. Roby clung to her plans with a faith and courage that have won their reward. She has an excellent family trade and is especially liked and patronized by the ladies of her locality. She has conquered the prejudices of physicians and has their hearty confidence and co-operation.

She makes a specialty of homeopathic goods and has, for several years, furnished the drug supplies to various colleges, hospitals, and "homes,"—a pronounced and material victory.

Mrs. Roby was at one time a member of the Illinois Woman's Press Association but owing to pressure of other duties and divergence of interests has allowed the membership to lapse.

She is now vice president of the Alumni Association of the Northwestern University and the founder of the Woman's Pharmaceutical Association of Illinois, an organization of the registered women of the state. She was in charge of the exhibit of this association at the World's Fair. This display was a model drug store—the only place on the ground where the public could purchase remedies—and was the only display to which the Illinois Woman's Exposition Board contributed which received a medal. Mrs. Roby feels that this exhibit was a great success, and that it did much to advertise women in pharmacy, and to advance their interests in that direction. She says also that the time is not far distant when the woman druggist will be no more a curiosity than the woman dry goods clerk or teacher.

To the furtherance of this belief and hope it is part of Mrs. Roby's plan and practice to employ women assistants and she has smoothed the way for more than one ambitious girl. She speaks warmly in praise of their natural aptness for the work and for their faithfulness and capability.

The present clerk in the Roby drug store is a young woman who in the class of 1892 carried off the medal for scholarship in the Northwestern University over a class of sixty-five men. Mrs. Roby spoke with genuine pride in the young woman's attain-

ments saying that she herself could never have done so well. But I think she forgot how largely her own pioneering had contributed toward the young clerk's well-won honors. This clerk is in charge of the store every night until eleven o'clock, is on hand to answer night calls, and opens the establishment every morning before six o'clock. She and her employer are on the best of business and social terms and the little store has about it a cheery air of prosperity.

There is a tradition to the effect that every occupation conducted by women displays the unmistakable signs of femininity. For the most part it is true, but there were here no outward evidences beyond the presence of the proprietor herself—that there were feminine hands at the helm. It is possible that a bit of family mending may be done behind the counter, and no one the wiser or worse for it—or a cup of fragrant tea brewed meanwhile, but there was no mending-basket or tea-kettle to be seen or suspected. There was a case of cigars in the store and as I stood catching snatches of conversation with the busy little woman the ever-present drummer came in with his sample-case. I watched her while she gave an order and admired the tact and dignity that characterized her manners, saying to myself, There is nothing in the world to prevent a woman from being a druggist, or anything else that she chooses to be; nothing but the hard work and study, the weariness and discouragements, the natural love of ease and comfort, nothing but the disinclination to go outside the home life and face a frowning world. These meet the business woman everywhere, and it is a question of conquering or being conquered.

The woman who becomes a practical and efficient pharmacist can almost always find ready and remunerative employment, or she can at very small outlay of ready money go into business for herself. It is comparatively a new field and one vastly to be preferred to many already overcrowded. It requires what success in any direction requires—steadiness of aim and purpose, a willingness to face disagreeables, and a resolute endeavor to be superior to them.

THE GROWTH AND CARE OF THE HAIR.

BY DR. E. CLASEN.

SPECIAL PHYSICIAN FOR CUTANEOUS DISEASES IN HAMBURG.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

THERE are, of course, more important things than the hair of our heads, but still that is allworthy of attention, since beautiful, luxuriant hair is an important factor in human, and especially in feminine, beauty. How important a part it plays in one's appearance may best be illustrated by comparing a frowzy head with a carefully combed one, or a beautiful head of hair with a bald head. At all times a high value has been placed upon beautiful hair and much attention has been paid to the care of it, although among physicians the subject usually is too much slighted, as being comparatively trivial and not worth a deep study.

In caring for the hair one must work with two principles in view: first, the conditions for the natural growth of the hair, and, second, what will promote or injure its growth.

In current traditions regarding the growth of the human hair and in many popular books, one frequently comes across the old error of likening the hair to plants. According to this error one naturally would expect the same result to the hair from clipping it or applying the various patent hair invigorators advertised in many newspapers, that would be obtained from clipping or fertilizing a hedge. But close observation and reflection show these representations to be worthless. The hair is not little plants. It is nothing more than unsensitive threads of skin, or hair papillæ as they are called, which grow in their proper places under the same conditions as the nails grow on the finger ends.

The hair papillæ do not lie on the surface of the skin but are sunk more or less deeply into it, more deeply as the hair is longer, so that long hairs adhere in a deep sac. The number of these hair papillæ of course varies considerably with different people, but for each individual is constant and

unchangeable, and cannot be increased any more than can the number of one's finger nails. The name, "root of the hair," applied to the knoblike extremity of the hair that is attached to the head, corresponds to the old idea that hair is plantlike in nature. Nothing is more erroneous, for the rôle as nourishing "root of the hair" belongs entirely to the papilla, a little knoblike formation which is a part not of the hair proper but of the skin. The "root of the hair" is nothing more than the youngest portion of the hair not yet visibly colored on account of its swelling, and not yet dried and consequently thick.

Normal growth of the hair is an exceedingly slow process, and this slowness accounts for the difficulties in making accurate observations on it. However, there are several facts not generally known that might suffice to answer many important questions concerning the care of the hair.

The single human hair has, according to where it is located, a distinctly fixed length; the hair of the head, when allowed to grow, attains on an average a length of a little over half a meter. A hair lives from four to six years, then falls out and in place of it a new one grows in the same hair-sac. At first the growth is rather rapid but gradually becomes slower as the hair increases in length. The hair grows more quickly the shorter it is and more slowly the longer it is in comparison with the length which it is capable of attaining. Thus if a woman clips a growing hair several centimeters at the end (the actual end of the hair is here meant), it will be weeks or perhaps months before even this little loss is repaired and the old length regained. If now this same hair be cut much closer to the root, for a time it will grow incomparably faster than in the other case, which exactly corresponds to the above cited law for the growth of the hair

and explains the oft asked question, Why do boys need to have their hair clipped so often?

If clipping promoted the growth of the hair one would expect the head of hair to be longer and thicker eventually after it had been done, but the contrary is the case: the long hair that is cut never attains its former length. This is a fact vouched for by no less an authority than the celebrated Hebra, but it contradicts most conclusively the theory that clipping the hair tends to make it grow, a theory which is based on nothing other than the falsely interpreted observation of the apparently greatly accelerated growth of the hair following directly after it has been clipped short.

By a little thought every one can see for himself that this whole theory is simply a huge error. After the head of hair was cut its improvement could take place only in two ways, either by the strengthening of each individual hair, a possibility which no one has supported for clipping and which scarcely any one seems to care about, or by increasing the number of hairs. We have seen that the number of hairs depends on the papillæ. Each hair has its own papilla, consequently if there are no papillæ there can be no hair. Moreover the number of these papillæ is constant, except as it is diminished by disease, so that the idea of increasing their number by clipping the hair must be abandoned. The growth of the hair depends, rather, on the well-being of all of the papillæ. But they are constituent parts of the skin and share its fate alike in both good and evil days.

In time of youth and exuberant health the hair is luxuriant. In grievous illness, for instance in typhus, when the skin becomes pale and lifeless, when the finger nails wholly cease to grow, and as a witness thereof for months afterwards show deep furrows, the hair papillæ also suffer greatly. The hair ceases to grow and frequently all falls out. The same thing happens in many local diseases of the skin. Without question, the growth of the hair is much more dependent on the condition of the scalp and of the health than on clipping the hair.

Notwithstanding the popularity of this theory of hair-clipping, I consider it not only unbeneficial but actually detrimental to the growth of the hair. In the natural course of events the hair grows, in a number of years, to the limit of its length, then the hair-forming activity of the papilla ceases a relatively long time, perhaps ceases entirely for years, rests, so to speak, preparatory to resuming with fresh and increased vigor its activity when at last the hair shall fall out. Now by frequent cutting, or what is equivalent, by being customarily kept short, the hair is deprived of this natural change from activity to rest and, to a certain measure, forced to an arbitrary growth.

It is scarcely supposable that this over-exertion can have a lasting good effect on the growth of the hair. Though the most common scalp disease that causes the hair to fall is found among both women and men, it is a noticeable fact that it destroys the growth of the hair much more quickly and effectually among the "stronger half" of humanity, who habitually wear their hair short, than among the "gentler half," who do not have their hair shorn. How can this difference in the retention of hair affected by the same disease be explained other than by ascribing the weaker resistance of the continually shorn head to the consequent forced growth?

There are two cases in which clipping usually is resorted to to make the hair grow; first, the falling of the hair caused by scalp disease, and, second, due to a serious illness of the whole body.

In the former case the barber, who makes his living by hair-cutting, advises that the ends be clipped frequently (as if there were any ends proper to men's shorn hair!). After people have followed this advice for a long time they usually conclude that they have been duped. How often I have been assured, without provoking the assurance, that "It did n't do any good!" Of course it didn't. Cutting the hair would not cure the scalp disease, which was wholly to blame for the hair's falling out. On the contrary, curing the scalp disease remedied the falling of the hair, without any cutting.

It may be said that in cases of convalescing boys, their hair shows improvement after it has been cut. The hair would have become stronger anyhow, but whether cutting increases its tendency to improvement is very doubtful; for consider that under similar circumstances among girls of the same age the hair also begins to grow better, without being clipped at all. The thriftier growth of the hair at a youthful period of life is necessarily a sign of a healthier development of the body.

Cutting the hair of convalescents is at least unnecessary. Besides, those patients

all of whose hair has fallen out and on whom consequently this much prized theory cannot be practiced, recover their full growth of hair as they recover their complete bodily health.

The views here expressed, as I am well aware, set at naught so many universally practiced and cherished opinions, that I am prepared for emphatic contradiction of them. However, contradiction does not disprove. It is remarkably difficult to destroy at a stroke long established superstitions, but in good time the truth will be appreciated and—at least in this case—a few years sooner or later will not matter seriously.

AFTERNOON RECEPTIONS IN WASHINGTON.

BY MRS. S. F. PARSONS.

THE social sciences seem to be about as much under discussion at present as the exact sciences. Some of our able writers have been gravely considering the true cause and effect of a successful dinner. The attention of the writer has been directed toward another phase of the social art, as embodied in the personal magnetism of the women who have "days." The point under discussion in the articles referred to, has been the measure of success attained by the hostess in making her guests feel that they had been present at a charming function, whose "afterglow," so to speak, had left a residuum of agreeable reflections, as well as self-gratulation; for man not only likes to remember that he has partaken of excellent food, amid delightful companions, whose conversation has constituted a brilliant display of intellectual fireworks, but the soothing consciousness that he has contributed not a little to the luster of the talk, and that this fact has been appreciated, is, after all, the most sustaining assurance he can have.

It is a great, an ever extending subject, this one of dinners; but while the afternoon reception is much less complicated, it is not less significantly expressive of the potency of the hostess. In Washington where the resident has an opportunity to study the art of entertaining in all its forms, and where

it should have become a sublimated essence of social perfection, it is regrettable to observe how frequently the introduction of crude material causes a disturbance of the unities.

Probably every woman in her secret soul is fully persuaded that she possesses in herself the requisites essential to the holding of a successful *salon*. It may be that she has the dimmest conception of the meaning covered by that term, or it may be that she has never read of the far-reaching influence exercised by those clever Frenchwomen of the old *régime* over the arts, politics, and literature of their day. But that is no matter, she is sure she can succeed without knowledge of her subject; and so launches herself serenely upon the treacherous sea of society.

To her a *salon* means a drawing room perfumed with flowers and filled with fashionably dressed people, where she feels herself to be the center of attraction. The large fact that they are there, constitutes her achievement; so totally unconscious is she of having missed the whole significance of the occasion, in failing to note that she herself is the one element that her guests could dispense with, as far, that is, as she represents any personal pleasure or comfort to them, that a lay figure dressed to the part

and set up in the proper place could answer the purpose of handshaking just as satisfactorily.

Yet this cannot be said of all, by any means. There are, in our republican society, women whose grace of manner, exquisite tact, and personal charm, combined with brilliant conversational ability, give them as great a claim to distinction as any of the famous women of the past. The desire to obtain a personal sway over public men and statesmen may be merged in the gentler wish to impart a sense of rest and harmony to the men whose lives are spent in the hurly-burly of political strife, but none the less is the power existent.

It is often most amusing and instructive to drive from one house to another in the afternoon to observe the varying degrees of success attained by the women whose serious business in life it is to hold receptions and make society feel repaid for attending them. From some of them emanates a subtle influence that warms and envelops the guest as in a soft, luxurious garment; others chill the marrow in the bones, before one has fairly crossed the threshold; while still another class make one conscious of a desire to smooth the difficulties that so evidently arise as a barrier between them and the world they are so anxious to propitiate.

I know a woman occupying a prominent position in society who invariably impresses the beholder with her utter helplessness to cope with the intricacies and complications of modern social life. One has the feeling that she has slept over from the last century, with her large appealing eyes, her soft, cloudy hair, her rapt, dreamy expression, her childlike smile; and has awakened startled, to find herself confronted with an altogether different condition of affairs from that in which she had been reared. She seems with an unconscious eloquence to take you into her confidence, to impress you with the idea that you are her friend, upon whom she can rely, in whose judgment she can thoroughly trust; and, if you are a man and a brother, you are seized with a wild desire to protect her from a cruel world, to shelter her with your rugged strength, and

if all the truth were told, to arise, go forth, and fight battles for her sweet sake.

She does not *say* a word indicative of her desire for championship, you understand; but as you enter her drawing room and through the throng of big, strong men and women catch a glimpse of her *petite* figure, looking so slight and girlish, her charming head, with its birdlike poise, and her dark eyes upraised as in mute entreaty to the person with whom she is conversing, you feel a strong coercive force impelling you to reach her as quickly as possible, to let her know that you are at hand with all your worldly knowledge at her disposal; you have a wholly absurd and grotesquely fierce impulse to let all the other people know you are there, and that they will have you to settle with before they can lay a finger upon her.

When you realize that no one desires to lay a finger upon her except in the friendliest possible spirit, and that all the rest of the crowd are declaring themselves her defenders and protectors quite as vehemently as you are, you become hazily conscious that perhaps after all she is reasonably safe, and you will not be false to all the instincts of chivalrous manhood if you let yourself down a little from your mood of high resolve, allowing yourself to exchange unguarded remarks with the mutual acquaintances who, quite unexpectedly, seem disposed to comport themselves with a due regard for the social amenities.

But she is, of course, an exotic. Society is not made up of women who restore the primal instincts with a glance. Too large a proportion of them, alas, have not even the power to penetrate the outer crust of glacial indifference with which the man of to-day carefully encases himself.

There are women, presumably, in the official circle whose brief reign in the world is purely accidental, and whose drawing rooms are found in the borrowed splendor of an apartment house. You enter such a room with a chilly sensation of discovering yourself in an empty garret. You have but a moment since emerged from a brilliantly lighted, warmly upholstered elevator, to which the

silent functionary, its presiding genius, has contrived, through his own absolute harmony with his surroundings, to impart an air of grave dignity. Involuntarily you glance up and around when releasing the hand of your hostess, to seek the explanation of this sense of frigidity, and are surprised to see flowers not only upon the mantel, but upon the table also; a display of lavish expenditure in fact, throughout the apartment. Then you pull yourself up short, with a dismayed consciousness of having failed to add a syllable to the one little frozen greeting which habit had uttered for you automatically.

At the same moment it becomes evident that the victim of circumstances before whom you stand, is struggling with a feeling of painful constraint in your presence; that she is watching you with poignant anxiety to learn, if possible, whether *you* know it all, whether society is your native element in which you swim and dive with reckless impunity, sure that you will never be drawn down in the undertow, or swept out of your depth by its great ethical waves; or whether, by some happy chance, you are a timid beginner like herself, holding tightly to a rope of conventionality, lest you suddenly find yourself where you can no longer touch bottom.

If she were young or very pretty, if there were even a certain picturesqueness in her ignorance, it might seem worth while to offer yourself as a pilot in these unfamiliar waters; but she is only crude and raw; hopelessly out of touch with the world with which she ought to be at ease. She does not appeal to you, she freezes you into a callous indifference to her future success or failure, and after a dreary exchange of platitudes, you are glad to hurry away to some house where you are reasonably sure of finding a gathering of pretty women whose "vocation" it is to be charming.

A striking contrast to this last mentioned type is to be found in a young married woman from the South, whom it has been my good fortune to meet; she is out of the official maelstrom, but afloat in the almost equally uncertain waters of newly acquired wealth; still in the twenties, the pretty bride

of an elderly millionaire, she contrives to steer her slight craft through all complications. You enter her drawing room with a prevision of awkwardness, remembering her youth, her "newness," and are positively thrilled with the sudden suffusion of pleasurable sensations which sweep over you. You forget that she is extremely young, with her gracious womanliness confronting you; you know that she is not "new" from the utter absence of rawness. There is even a sumptuous flavor of traditional elegance, like the mellowness of old wine, in the atmosphere with which her presence has filled the place. You are conscious of a feeling of friendliest cordiality toward her, whom a moment before you dreaded to meet.

The room is filled with people who seem to be having the most delightful kind of a time. Of course she is not talking to them all; she cannot. She has a number of young ladies receiving with her, in accordance with the time honored usage, and afterwards in recalling the visit, you vainly try to fix upon a single noticeable instance of beauty, or wit, or brilliancy among them, to distinguish them from the masses of "receiving" young ladies all over town. Yet at the moment she introduces you to them, you are perfectly persuaded that they are all the nicest, sweetest, most "affording" of girls. Well they *are* chummy; even at this distance of time you can afford them that claim to a friendly liking, but then, at the time, they appeared in a reflected splendor of beauty and graciousness.

But why? Is this young wife so beautiful? Subsequent critical analysis compels you to admit she is not beautiful at all; only full of a rich, sweet, adorable womanhood, whose presence casts a glamour over the judgment, making you ready to declare all feminine charms are hers. Her manners are eloquent of that long, and justly, celebrated spirit of southern hospitality. She *does* nothing, after all, to differentiate her from a hundred other women similarly engaged. How can she? There is almost no latitude for individual action in the conduct of these functions. The hostess must be at hand to receive every guest who enters her

rooms; she must shake hands, say "How do you do?" and "Good-by" in proper rotation, and she must present the guest whose hand she releases to some one of her receiving party. Every hostess must do this much, and the greater the throng, the less liberty is allowed her for moving among her guests; yet the fact remains, that scarcely two women in the length and breadth of society perform these duties in the same manner or leave the visitor with the same external impressions or internal reflections. The personal equation is very great after all.

In calling upon a popular authoress, your eye is met at every turn by evidences of her taste and culture, rich draperies veil the daylight, and a lavish profusion of roses and violets in midwinter gives a dainty suggestion that success in writing may mean a well filled purse. The fair hostess bursts upon the vision as an epitome of Worth's delicate genius, greeting you with a quick cordiality which leaves you wondering why the thrill doesn't last for just a moment longer, until, as she enters into a charming little conversation with you, it suddenly occurs to you that at any minute she may forget you altogether, and if she does you will not only be left upon a cold world but that it will be a very cold world indeed. The nervous dread that this will happen dries up the pretty little trickle of your talk and you find yourself taking flight in a panic, to avoid the *contre-temps*, which, after all, might never have taken place.

Just as you are making your way to the door, an animated fashion plate in the person of a young friend of the authoress asks you to have some chocolate, with such an unimpeachably correct tone and manner that you are filled with an unreasonable impulse to decline ungrammatically, or make some other equally flagrant fling at the proprieties in order to gratify the antagonism her irreproachable, icy elegance provokes within you.

Of course you do nothing of the kind; on the contrary you meekly accept a tiny cup of scalding chocolate, which burns your mouth, while the cup and saucer seem determined to accomplish your overthrow by refusing to remain in conjunction. Your lips become enfringed with whipped cream, and while you are frantically trying to find your handkerchief with one hand, hold your cup with the other, and keep your face somehow in oblivion, until that whipped cream can be dealt with—you are cruelly aware of a pair of merciless eyes, coldly observant of your struggles. She is not drinking chocolate, but with stony *aplomb* she ripples fluently along through a stream of society phrases, to which you endeavor to reply in airy scintillations of wit, while in your soul you are anathematizing the whole social structure, and this graceful adherent in particular. It may be as well to add, that your attempt to perform these somewhat varied sleight-of-hand and intellectual feats meets with but indifferent success.

When you finally get away, you are out of tune with your world for the remainder of the afternoon; even your ideal hostess, upon whom you call later, fails to put you right with yourself; and you return to your apartments filled with a gloomy nostalgia, and a half developed belief that society is on its last legs.

While it would be possible to enumerate countless other types of women whose varying degrees of magnetism or polarization fill, as with a subtle aroma, the atmosphere in which they move, those already indicated will adequately prove the point I wished to make, which was, that in the afternoon reception it is the woman herself who makes or mars the whole occasion. No extraneous circumstance will help her, if she has not in herself that indefinable power over the hearts of men and women which enables her to place them happily at ease the moment they enter her presence.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

DO WOMEN READ THE NEWSPAPERS?

A PERTINENT, interesting comment is made by Miss Frances E. Willard on *Current History and Opinion* in this magazine. She writes to the editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN as follows:

"The one complaint I have to make of women is that they do not read the newspapers. Traveling constantly on the cars I found the newsboy passed me by because I was a woman and I resented his silent and contemptuous conclusion that I did not care what 'the folks' had been about in the last twenty-four hours. Your plan will help to remedy all that passivity that ignorance brings, whether in women or in men. Current events forever! It is worthy of Chautauqua to lead the masses out of the woods and wilderness into the promised land of universal knowledge and power, brotherhood and peace."

It is an expert opinion which Miss Willard gives when she observes that women do not read the newspapers, but notwithstanding she protests vigorously against a common and in many respects thoroughly unwarranted reproach upon her sex. Of course men and women both share the need for a better knowledge of what is going on in the world from day to day, and Miss Willard generously and thoughtfully concludes that the new plan, the Chautauqua plan, for the study of current events, will be helpful alike to men and women. "Current events forever!" says Miss Willard.

THE COMMUNION CUP.

A FEW churches have adopted the custom of using "individual cups" in the communion service—that is to say, each communicant has a separate cup. The arguments for this new departure are, we believe, purely sanitary; no question of theology or of Scripture teaching enters into it. It may be alleged against the new way that it is new, and that it squints away from democ-

racy in the church of Christ. Some see in it a new growth of exclusiveness, and this is suggested by the circumstance that some of the more wealthy churches have patronized the innovation. The practice is not bad because it is new, nor is there any good ground for the accusation of exclusiveness.

If we accept the sanitary argument, we may, indeed, wonder that we were so long finding it out, but we can hardly hesitate about approving sound hygiene. Religion ought not to be so conducted as to spread disease among good Christians. There is a very general belief that the disciples of Mahomet spread the cholera in their pilgrimages to Mecca, and we should be glad to know that some competent ecclesiastical authority among the Moslems had put an end to the unwholesome pilgrimages. If any serious menace to health lurks in the common communion cup, we should make haste to avert the danger. It may not be quite convenient to have separate cups; a little shock to feeling may attend the change; but these are trifling things in comparison with the importance of good hygiene.

But when the sanitary argument is analyzed, it proves to be rather weak, not to say flimsy. There is no proof that anybody's health was ever injured by the use of a common cup. The argument really is that *it is possible* for disease to be communicated in that way. Well, yes, just possible. The same argument is used against the very human habit of kissing, and it has much more force for obvious reasons. We do not, however, look for the abolition of the custom of kissing, and we pity the people who may be moved to a crusade against this venerable social habit.

Hardly less venerable is the common communion cup, and irreverent people ridicule the new fashion as nothing more nor less than a fad of over-nice Christians. We suspect that the real motive for the change is something very different from a regard for health—a very respectable motive though hardly

an appropriate one. The reformers in this matter *feel* that the common cup is an imperfectly civilized thing, like the common dish into which the disciples "dipped" with their Master, such a common dish as peasants and other poor people still use. The churches, these reformers believe, ought to come up to the customs of refined society in which separate cups and plates are vigorously demanded.

It is on this ground that the debate which is certain to come—and to stay with us for some years—will have to be carried on. Meanwhile, the innovators must expect to be under fire as "schismatics," rending the unity of a common custom, of the simplicity of the common cup.

THE MIKADO OF JAPAN.

Now that Japan has loomed up into such prominence before the eyes of the world, in the Korean war, great interest attaches to the personal history of its ruler, the mikado. That anything may be known generally of his personal history marks one of the great steps taken in the development of Japan.

The name mikado is of doubtful origin but it is commonly understood to signify "illustrious gate," and is thus analogous to the Turkish title, "sublime porte." By a figure of speech it was transferred from the abode of the sovereign to the sovereign himself. One hundred and twenty-three successive rulers have borne this title, the first one beginning his reign, it is said, in 660 B. C., making this the longest dynasty in the world's history.

Mutsuhito, the present ruler, was born in 1850 and succeeded to the throne in 1868. He stands unique in history as the ruler who helped to establish the most complete change ever made in the long established habits and customs of a royal nation. Under this *régime* so effeminate had the emperors become that they were not much more than figure-heads in the nation. Closely secluded, and being esteemed by the common people too sacred for their eyes to rest upon, the long line of mikados had

given their days up to pleasure and to self-indulgence in the midst of luxurious surroundings.

It was to such a condition of things that Mutsuhito succeeded. But Commodore Matthew Perry a few years before, in 1854, had accomplished his wonderful work in opening the hermit nation to the world, and, the change once effected, old customs were fast being revolutionized. No more ready disciple of the advanced western ideas then forcing their way there, was to be found than the young mikado. With the help of a few radical reformers the office of shogun was abolished in 1868; the emperor took his proper place at the head of the government; and Japan set out on an era of progress which is unprecedented in history.

At the beginning of his reign the mikado for a few years clung to the regulation dress of his office and seldom appeared to public view save in flowing robes of crimson and white satin. Now he habitually wears a costume which is thoroughly Europeanized. So general has this fashion of dress become that it is commonly worn throughout the empire. In commerce and education, in literature and religion such decided changes have also occurred as to make Japan's history for the last quarter of a century seem like a tale of romance.

While it is true that to a small body of thinkers, of statesmen, of keen observers of the times, of leaders of men, are primarily due these changes in Japan, yet the mikado has emphatically shown himself possessed of many of the traits of a true reformer as well as of a true ruler. He has remarkable independence and firmness of character, as is shown in his disregard of old landmarks and his adoption of and adaptation to western practices.

In 1869 the mikado was married to Haruko, the daughter of a noble of the first rank. His wife, a beautiful woman, is two years his junior. No children have been born of this marriage but the son of the mikado by one of the imperial concubines, Yoshito, born in 1879, his only living child, was proclaimed heir to the throne in 1887.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

FOR THE PERIOD ENDING OCTOBER 10.†

THE CONCENTRATION OF THE U. S. ARMY.

ON September 16 the secretary of war, upon the recommendation of the commanding general of the U. S. army, issued a general order calling for the redistribution of the military forces of the United States. The order involves the abandonment of ten military posts and provides for the concentration of United States troops at railroad centers. The concentration of the army by regiments as well as the other features of the new policy have long been contemplated. The effect of the change is to increase the number of companies serving east of the Mississippi River from 100 to 119, comprising about 6,000 men, the number of posts being 31. This gain in the East draws from the troops in the territory west of the Mississippi, there being 49 posts retained in the West garrisoned by 245 companies of about 9,000 men, exclusive of 7 Indian companies. Thus more than two thirds of the regular army is still stationed in the West. It is thought the changes provided for by the new order will all be made before December 25.

Army and Navy Register. (Washington, D. C.)

No order has been issued in recent times which has attracted greater notice in military and civilian circles than the one in question. The *Register* learns that the recent strikes in the West and the importance of the troops being stationed in large numbers at convenient points where disorder may be expected in the future entered materially into the considerations of the authorities in determining upon the provisions of the order. The decrease in the cost of maintaining troops when concentrated, rather than when widely separated as now, also entered into official calculations. It is well known that the commanding general favors the policy of concentration, and it is safe to say that when the funds will warrant further activity in this direction he will urge its being taken in pursuance of this program.

Harper's Weekly. (New York, N. Y.)

As the Indians in the far West decrease in numbers and hostile activity, fewer troops are needed to look after them, while the massing of population in the great cities calls for an increased military force available for the protection of property and the maintenance of order in times of special popular excitement. As the West becomes still more settled, and the surviving Indians more perfectly civilized, we shall see the same process continued, more posts being abandoned and more troops coming East, until the little army of the United States shall be parcelled out so that East and West may enjoy more equal shares of its society and protection.

New Orleans Picayune. (La.)

There can be no question but that this is a wise policy. The country has more to fear from internal disturbances than from Indian wars, and all the outbreaks which have occurred of recent years have

been in the large cities, like Chicago and New York. There will in future be large garrisons close to these cities, as well as near other large communities.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

This change in the distribution of military forces seems to us wise from every point of view. There is much less work to be done in the far West than there was in former years. The progress of settlement, the admission of new states into the Union, improved management of the reservations, and the gradual transformation of Indian character and habits through the breaking up of tribal relations and the introduction of land-owning and the arts of peace, have wrought a great change in the conditions of military service. Not only is it unnecessary to distribute the army among as many posts, but it is also practicable to concentrate a larger force east of the Mississippi, where it can be maintained less expensively and will be available for emergencies. It is a movement in the direction of retrenchment of military expenditures and increased efficiency of the army for all purposes.

Omaha Bee. (Neb.)

There has been constant complaint on the part of the people of the South and East that the massing of the army on the western frontier left them with too little protection against the emergencies of domestic violence and foreign invasion. The economic advantage, too, which goes with the location of the troops in the way of supplies consumed by them and their individual expenditures in various directions has been regarded as accruing unequally to different sections of the country, and has been the cause of no little dissatisfaction. Above all, the efficiency of the army itself is weakened by the necessity of scattering it in small detachments in so many different garrisons and the expense of maintaining the troops greatly increased. These were doubtless the principal points considered by the Department in arriving at its conclusion to make the forthcoming changes.

* This department, together with the book, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. Course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

† From September 5 to October 10.

WORK OF THE NEW YORK STATE CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION.

ON September 28 the New York State Constitutional Convention, by a vote of 95 to 45, adopted thirty-three amendments to the state constitution, 400 having been the total number proposed in the Convention. One Democrat voted with the Republicans in favor of the amendments and three Republicans voted with the Democratic minority. These amendments will be submitted to a vote of the people at the November election. The 18th amendment, providing for a new legislative appointment, and the 24th, relating to canal improvements, are to be submitted to the voters separately and the remainder as a whole. The Democratic members refused to sign the address adopted by the Convention declaring the 18th and other amendments to be partisan measures adopted by the Republican majority. These amendments, especially the 18th, form one of the issues of the state campaign now in progress. The Convention adjourned *sine die* September 29. The thirty-three amendments adopted and upon which the voters will pass judgment are briefly described as follows:

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| (1.) Making possible the abolition of coroners. | (15.) Authorizing bi-partisan election boards. |
| (2.) Legislative bills to be printed three days before passage. | (16.) Providing for unsectarian education. |
| (3.) Speaker to fill vacancy as governor after lieutenant governor. | (17.) Providing a new judiciary system. |
| (4.) Removal of \$5,000 limitation of recoverable damages in cases of death by accident. | (18.) Providing a new legislative apportionment. |
| (5.) Authorizing the president of the Senate to act as lieutenant governor. | (19.) Providing for the preservation of forests. |
| (6.) Providing that no person shall have gained or lost a residence by becoming an inmate of a charitable institution. | (20.) Regulation of personal registration. |
| (7.) Authorizing the sale of salt springs. | (21.) Fixing terms of governor and state officers. |
| (8.) Authorizing the use of voting machines. | (22.) Providing for separate municipal and state elections. |
| (9.) Abolishing the codification commission. | (23.) Authorizing sale of Hamburg Canal. |
| (10.) Prohibiting "riders" on appropriation bills. | (24.) Providing for canal improvements. |
| (11.) Making the term of citizenship before voting ninety days, instead of ten as heretofore. | (25.) Providing for public charities. |
| (12.) Fixing the date of assembling of the Legislature. | (26.) Classification of cities and debt limitations. |
| (13.) Forbidding the issuing of railroad passes to public officers. | (27.) Making the new constitution take effect January 1, 1895. |
| (14.) Prohibiting labor in prisons in competition with free labor. | (28.) Establishing civil service appointments by examinations. |
| | (29.) Providing for the drainage of agricultural lands. |
| | (30.) Relating to future amendments. |
| | (31.) Regulating the liability of bank stockholders. |
| | (32.) Prohibiting pool selling. |
| | (33.) Relating to the militia. |

MORMON MORALS AND PHILOSOPHY.

THE semi-annual Conference of the Mormon church convened in Salt Lake City, Utah, October 5. The session consumed three days. The leading representatives of Mormonism were present and the branches of the church in Mexico and Canada were reported flourishing. The people were exhorted to abandon the use of tea, coffee, and tobacco, and figures were quoted showing that a great part of the wheat crop of Utah went to pay for these stimulants.

(Methodist.) *The Christian Advocate.* (New York.)

At the semi-annual Mormon Conference, the first president, Wilford Woodruff, made an appeal to the people to abandon the use of tobacco; and he seems to have taken Nathan the prophet as an example, for he called out the name of John Smith, "Head Patriarch of the Church," and directed him to quit the use of tobacco or resign his position. The patriarch sat in a commanding position, with the authorities. The dispatch does not tell us how John Smith looked or what he will do. As respects politics, all the speakers exhorted the people to keep united in the faith, even when divided on party lines. Both these advices might, with propriety, be applied to Christians.

President Smith preached a sermon to young people in favor of early marriages, and denounced

bachelors for selfishness. As a general principle this may be correct, but St. Paul was not selfish; he was a bachelor (though Jerome intimates that he was a widower). Isaac Watts was a bachelor, and as far removed from selfishness as a man can be. Francis Asbury was a bachelor, and was led to be such, against his own desires, by his interest in humanity. In the long history of the Roman Catholic church many of its priests have demonstrated their unselfishness by laying down their lives for the people they went to serve. Some bachelors are not selfish, but merely timid. In the days of early Roman history, when the Roman citizens ceased to marry, a sage made a singular address, appealing to them thus: "If you will not marry because you feel it necessary yourselves, you should do so for the good of the state."

THE NATIONAL IRRIGATION CONGRESS.

AT the third annual meeting of the National Irrigation Congress held in Denver, Colorado, the first week in September, there were present between two and three hundred delegates. Seventeen states and two foreign nations were represented. The most important question considered was the cession of the arid lands to the states by the national government. A resolution favoring such cession was defeated. The recommendations of the Congress contain the following points:

1. Repeal of desert land laws.
2. To withdraw from settlement all lands except mineral, for which water is not accessible.
3. States to be permitted to select reclamation lands as security basis for irrigation works, title to remain in the federal government until it passes from the state to the actual settler in forty-acre homesteads.
4. States to make hydrographic divisions of such lands.
5. States to have proper irrigation departments; a national irrigation committee to be created. The territories to receive a million-acre bounty provided for arid states by the Carey law.
6. International commissions to settle stream and water questions between the United States, Mexico, and Canada.
7. The unification of the irrigation and water administration is recommended and it is proposed to have state conventions discuss the million-acre state grants and their proper use.

Minneapolis Journal. (Minn.)

What has already been accomplished by private enterprise is proof positive that no government irrigation works are needed. In Colorado there are 12,000 miles of main irrigating canals, which have cost \$50,000,000, and are worth to-day more than \$100,000,000, and Southern California exists by the facilities furnished agriculture by the irrigation companies. And it is estimated that there are 800,000,000 acres of land in this country which, when irrigated, will be as productive as any acres on the face of the earth.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

There is before the whole country an impressive object-lesson, inculcating the need of the very thing this convention is trying to promote. Both East and West have this year suffered from an intense and long-continued drouth. At times the rivers are almost dry, and at other times they overflow their banks. And both extremes are ruinous. These evils are, we confidently believe, largely to be corrected by irrigation, conjoined with tree-planting and forest-conservation; and this belief is founded not on theory alone, but on actual achievements. Vast areas in the West, once sterile as the Sahara, are to-day rich and fruitful. The loss suffered by the average farmer in this one season, amounts to as much as the cost would be of equipping his farm with appliances sufficient to make him practically independent of the weather.

Denver News. (Colo.)

The *News* is unalterably opposed to the cession of the arid lands to the states, and in this opposition it voices the sentiment of a great majority of the people of the trans-Missouri states and territories. The demand for this cession springs very largely from corporations, who hope to profit by the adoption of this policy on the part of the general government. Congress has already granted 1,000,000 acres of land to each state that shall reclaim the same. The *News*

insists that this is sufficient as an experiment, and as an experiment only it need not be condemned. The attention of the Congress should be directed to the making of this experiment a success. If the scheme works well, anticessionists will be without an argument when more land is demanded. If these acres be gobbled up by corporations then the cessionists will have discovered their mistake.

The Advertiser. (Boston, Mass.)

The federal government has often given assistance to various projects for the improvement of different sections of the country. Sometimes the aid had been directly given, and sometimes indirectly. Whether the federal government will ever assist directly in the construction of irrigating canals may be doubted; but it ought to be possible for the nation to surrender to certain states a portion of the great tracts that now lie arid and desolate, if the states in turn will construct storage reservoirs and viaducts that will prove of benefit not only to the ceded tracts, but to other public land adjacent to those tracts. If the states themselves are unwilling to undertake the work, a similar method might be pursued in dealing with corporations which would construct the needed works.

Denver Republican. (Colo.)

No attempt has been made to develop varieties of plants that, being adapted to arid conditions, would thrive with but little irrigation or none at all. Consequently the world knows little about what may be practicable in that direction. The establishment of agricultural experiment stations in the arid regions of the United States opens the way for experiments of the kind suggested, and it may be hoped that in the course of time it will be discovered that some varieties of grains and grasses will thrive under very arid conditions. Nothing should be done which would retard the reclamation of the arid region, and this is one reason why no attempt should be made to induce Congress to undertake the construction of irrigating reservoirs and ditches.

DEATH OF FIVE EMINENT MEN.

THE necrology of the past few weeks contains the names of five eminent men. The Comte de Paris September 8, at Stowe House, in Buckinghamshire, England, at the age of fifty-nine. On the same date occurred the death of Prof. Hermann Ludwig Ferdinand von Helmholtz, the noted German physiologist and physicist, at the age of seventy-three, in Berlin. Professor David Swing, the famous preacher, died at his home in Chicago on October 3, aged sixty-four. Andrew G. Curtin, the war governor of Pennsylvania, died at Bellefonte, Pa., October 7; he was seventy-nine years old. On the same day, at Beverly, Mass., occurred the death of the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table, Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes, one of the foremost American men of letters. He was eighty-five at the time of his death.

THE COMTE DE PARIS.

Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

He was but ten years old in 1848 when his grandfather, Louis Philippe, was dethroned, and thereafter his life was spent for the most part in England. He received his education there, and became so thoroughly English in his style of living that though he was the recognized successor to the defunct French royalty, the French people could scarcely be brought to regard him as a Frenchman at all. He came to this country during the Civil War, and with his brother and uncle accepted positions on Gen. McClellan's staff. Subsequently he wrote a "His-

tory of the Civil War in America," in seven volumes, which has been characterized by Major General Schofield as "an exceedingly able work, free from prejudice and bias." Once or twice in the course of his career he had reason to hope that he might mount the throne of France, and reign wisely and constitutionally over a united and loyal people; but these hopes were doomed to disappointment. The expulsion bill of 1887 drove him into exile, and the espousal of the republican *régime* in France by Pope Leo XIII. sealed the fate of the legitimists in that country.

PROFESSOR VON HELMHOLTZ.

The Outlook. (New York, N. Y.)

Those not especially interested in the progress of science will little realize what the world has lost in the death of Professor Hermann von Helmholtz. Few men in the history of science have rendered her such signal services. His eminence and his contributions to the sum of human knowledge are about equally great in the three large fields of physiology, physics, and mathematics. His parentage was in no wise distinguished, and his university education consumed all the available means of his parents. Helmholtz's first important discovery, made now nearly half a century ago, consisted in measuring the exact rate of motion of a nerve-impulse, by a method simple, conclusive, and so described that it could be easily done in any laboratory. His invention of the ophthalmoscope, a little later, practically created the entire medical specialty of ophthalmology. Gifted with an ear of unusual delicacy, he devoted himself to the study of physiological acoustics, and not only analyzed a simple note, but recomposed it out of its overtones, showing that it was in the number and relative

loudness of these that all differences of *timbre*, or the difference in quality of the same note when played on different instruments, consist. He also showed that we hear by means of sympathetic vibrations of a system of tiny rods in the ear, which vibrate, sympathetically, each to its own note. The history of music was now first completely studied and written up in a scientific manner. This great work on the sensations of tone is still supreme in its field.

Endowed with power of vision no less remarkable than that of his hearing, Helmholtz next subjected all the problems connected with color, light, form, and binocular vision to minute experimental investigation, collecting and freely criticising all the literature upon each topic. When that remarkable institution, the new *Reichsanstalt*, was opened at Berlin three years ago, Professor von Helmholtz, naturally, became its head. He was a poor lecturer and teacher, but in the work of investigation with a few advanced and chosen students he probably has had no superior and very few equals.

DR. DAVID SWING.

Northwestern Christian Advocate. (Chicago, Ill.)

Dr. Swing was a lovely, able, loving, pure man, and a most attractive preacher. He had scarcely any of the physical graces of the orator, but his subject matter was clear, adorned yet simple, winning and elevating. He began his professional life in the Presbyterian ministry. He served first as a theological professor in Ohio, but came to a pastorate in this city before the Chicago fire. Then came his trial for heresy, he having dissented from the extremes of

Calvinism, and being accused of divergencies concerning the text of the Scriptures very like those which are still stirring the Presbyterian church under the leadership of Dr. Briggs and Dr. William P. Smith. It will be recalled that Dr. Swing was condemned by the Chicago Presbytery, that he appealed to the synod of Illinois, which did not concur with the Presbytery, and that pending a rehearing in the latter he withdrew from the Presby-

terian church. The trials and its incidents caused national debate, and not a little ill-feeling. Dr. Swing built up a wonderful congregation in Music Hall. We know of no church in Chicago which can be more sadly bereft. Dr. Swing had armies of friends, for a face, a manner, a sympathy, and a

modesty like his are irresistible. Some of his isolated utterances may seem to compel sharp dissent with respect to the severer tests of orthodoxy, but the collated, harmonized, and fair rendering of his general teachings is immensely helpful, uplifting, blessed, and enduring.

ANDREW GREGG CURTIN.

Pittsburg Commercial-Gazette. (Pa.)

ANDREW GREGG CURTIN, "Pennsylvania's war governor," early embraced the principles of the Whig party, of which he became a most successful advocate. He was nominated for governor in 1860 and was elected by a majority of over 32,000 votes. Governor Curtin organized, equipped, and had under thorough discipline for state defense the Pennsylvania Reserve Corps, which consisted of fifteen regiments of infantry, one of cavalry, and one of field artillery. Besides the reserves, Pennsylvania, under the administration of Governor Curtin, organized 217 regiments of all arms, and furnished for military service 367,442 men and 87,000 in addition for domestic defense called during the four years of the war; that is to say, Pennsylvania gave one in fourteen of her people to the service of the United States, equal to any other state of the Union. The governor maintained a great reputation for promptness in his official duties throughout the war. His career as executive was filled with acts of devotion and benefit in behalf of the state and his administration was conspicuous for the merciful policy adopted to temper the terrible scourge of war.

Governor Curtin was re-elected governor in 1863 and in 1867 he retired. He took an active part in the election of General Grant, and one of the first acts of the latter, after his inauguration, was to appoint him minister to Russia, the nomination being promptly confirmed by the Senate. In the discharge of his diplomatic duties he proved himself one of the ablest and most popular representatives the nation has sent abroad. It is the general belief that Governor Curtin's personal influence with the czar had more to do with the breaking of the shackles of serfdom in Russia than any other circumstance connected with that hitherto unprecedented act of liberality in the history of the Russian government. Governor Curtin served in the last of his career in public life, three successive terms in Congress with great ability and credit. He was elected as a Democrat, having gone over to the Democratic party in the Greeley campaign. At the close of the Forty-ninth Congress he retired permanently from office to his birthplace, Bellefonte, where his library has occupied the greatest part of his time of late years.

OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

IN Oliver Wendell Holmes the literature of our country has lost a veteran representative, who may be said to have spanned the whole interval between its first creditable leafage and its ripest flower. Outside of the medical profession, in which he was a painstaking, stimulative, and highly respected lecturer and writer, Oliver Wendell Holmes was chiefly known to his countrymen as the maker of occasional and extremely effective verses, from 1829, when he graduated at Harvard College, to 1857-58, when he sent to the *Atlantic Monthly*, then just founded, the papers collectively entitled "The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table." Poet he was not, according to the modern esoteric definition of the term; but if we consent to rate him only as a rhetorician in meter and rhyme, we must at least put him somewhere in the class to which Pope, Goldsmith, Crabbe, and Campbell belong. He proved that it was possible to produce a song, which, while not strictly lyrical in treatment, should yet by exquisite felicity of phrase and electric adaptation to the feeling of the hour, shake the hearts and live upon the lips of men.

It was not, however, by his verses, taken as a

whole, that Holmes made the deepest impression in his lifetime. Nor is it by them that he is likely to be longest remembered. In "The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table" it was that he placed himself at a bound on the highest, or near the highest, level of American literature. Holmes was not only an accomplished man of letters but a trained and expert scientist. He was thus peculiarly qualified to discuss the questions of deepest interest to the readers of the last half of our century. He brought to their investigation the double gift of technical acquirement and curbed imagination, with which the star-gazer of genius approaches the problems of astronomy. Naturally, all the work of assimilation, interpretation, and suggestion to which Holmes applied his literary powers, could not be of equal permanence; some of his deductions and surmises, being based on a transitional or tentative stage of scientific opinion, are already out of date. Viewed collectively, nevertheless, the ideas touching the origin and destiny of man and his relations to the cosmos, which are set forth in the "Autocrat" and the "Professor," are as sound and fruitful in substance as they are delightful in presentation.

POLITICS AND THE AMERICAN PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION.

THE American Protective Association, an anti-Catholic secret organization, has lately developed as a political factor in many sections of the country. It is impossible directly to estimate its influence in any appreciable degree mainly because it is a secret order, and for the additional reason that its membership is an unknown quantity. The organization is likely to be an important feature of political campaigns in the immediate future if the reports of its recent activity throughout the country are to be relied upon. The movement of the A. P. A., as it is informally called, is in some respects compared to that of the old Know-Nothing society, which was formed at the time of the dissolution of the Whig party about 1852.

Boston Advertiser. (Mass.)

The association was started in Clinton, Io., in March, 1887, by H. F. Bowers, an American. For a few years it made slow progress, but after the excitement in Boston, in 1888, when a Roman Catholic priest sought to dictate what text-books should not be used in the public schools of Boston, and the committee of one hundred was formed, and some 10,000,000 pages of literature were published and circulated by the committee all over the land, the American Protective Association as well as the other patriotic organizations increased in membership, especially the former, the growth of which during the last few years has been phenomenal.

The Rev. J. B. Dunn, D. D., secretary of the committee of one hundred of the American Protective Association in an interview in the Boston Advertiser. (Boston, Mass.)

The organization is not a religious order opposed to Romanism as a religious order. The American Protective Association is only, as its name signifies, an association of men for the secular business of protecting our country against the encroachments of political Romanism, corrupt politics, and whatever danger may menace the republic. One of its leading principles is that it shall not interfere with any man's religion, except his religion interferes with politics or good citizenship, and those who charge the A. P. A. with inciting a religious war make a false charge.

What are the principles as adopted by that organization and set forth in the declarations of its supreme council, and not such principles as its enemies say it holds? Here they are summarized: Restriction of immigration—extension of time for naturalization—an educational qualification for suffrage—one general, non-sectarian, free public school system—no public funds or public property for sectarian purposes—taxation of all property not owned and controlled by the public—the opening to public official inspection of all private schools, convents, monasteries, and places of a reformatory character—no support given for any official public position to any person who recognizes primal allegiance in civil affairs to any foreign or ecclesiastical power—American lands for American settlers.

It is charged against the organization that it is a secret society. Suppose it is. Unless such a society

is treasonable or dangerous to the safety and peace of a community by its principles or methods, it has a right to exist. It is something very noticeable that those who rail against the American Protective Association because of its secrecy features have nothing to say about other secret societies, such as the Clan-na-Gael, the Ancient Hibernians, the Foresters, the Jesuits, etc.

The charge is groundless that the A. P. A. is a wing of the Republican party. It is neither the wing nor the tail of any party. Its members are seeking to place in official positions true and tried loyal Americans who will administer public office for public good.

(Dem.) The Times. (Chicago, Ill.)

The Republican party is not only affiliated with the A. P. A.—it is dominated by it. The Republicans were very willing to form a partnership with the A. P. A. when it first showed its strength. They fawned upon it, flattered it, sought it out for friendly overtures. Now that they find that A. P. A.-ism is calculated to arouse earnest opposition in certain quarters, they are anxious, still retaining their interest in the unholy partnership, to deny the connection which was originally of their own seeking.

(Rep.) The Commercial Advertiser. (New York, N. Y.)

It is evident that the fighting knighthood of the church has made up its mind that the A. P. A. movement is a serious one, and the cavaliers intend to give it a hard fight. The promptness with which the Democratic party has taken up the cudgels against the A. P. A. is evidence that we are about to have another momentous political issue, and perhaps another lamentable internecine struggle. The Catholic Knights throughout the land are undoubtedly in a fighting humor, and it is plain to be seen that the A. P. A. is lining up for the contest.

Dr. Edward McGlynn at Prohibition Park. (N. Y.)

What is this mysterious something, termed the American Protective Association? I see in Canada, they have it the Protestant Protective Association. What is it designed to protect, any way? We are not told, so, I suppose, pretty much everything that needs protecting is to be taken care of. But, as a matter of fact, it is the Roman Catholic church, her bishops and her priests, that this institution is to guard against. Now, what view must both Catholics

and Protestants take of this thing? Are Catholics responsible for this attack on them, or is it the fault of Protestants? In the first place, the people of this country are in no danger from the pope, the bishops, and priests of Rome. I'm a priest myself, but I'm no source of danger to this country's liberty. I am an American by birth, and there are just as good

Americans among Catholics as among Protestants. As to the charge that the Catholic priests would subject this country to the pope of Rome, I say they wouldn't if they could, and they couldn't if they would. The American Catholics aim to stand upon the same ground, enjoy the same privileges, share the same responsibilities as any of their fellow-citizens.

THE CHINO-JAPANESE WAR.

THE press dispatches from the scene of the war in the East during the past few weeks have given the news of the early outcome of Japan's aggressive campaign in a series of almost unbroken victories. At Ping Yang, in the northwestern part of Corea, the Japanese practically annihilated the whole of the Chinese army in Corea, three fourths of the Chinese forces amounting to many thousands being killed, wounded, or captured. About the same time an engagement took place between the rival fleets near the mouth of Yalu River in the Gulf of Corea. The Japanese gained a signal victory, their vessels being but slightly damaged while the Chinese warships were all seriously damaged, four being totally destroyed, including the large battleship *Chen Yuen*. The Japanese fleet was composed of cruisers and gunboats of high speed; that of the Chinese contained five heavily armored battle ships. It is the first battle to be fought with modern armored ships and it is highly significant that the victory was won by the nation having the light equipment. Having defeated the Chinese invaders in Corea on land and sea, routed the invading army, and disabled the whole Chinese navy, at least for all practical purposes, it is probable that the Japanese, with that superior skill which has characterized their campaigns, immediately proceeded to carry the war into China, by a double movement of land and naval forces, the objective points being Peking and Mookden, the two first cities of China. This probable condition of affairs is at the basis of the reports relating to the intervention of European powers with a view to bringing the war to a close.

The Tribune. (New York, N. Y.)

It will be a blessing if this present war adds to Japan's power and prestige, and makes her dominant in Asian affairs. It would be a greater blessing if this war, or any other cause, should arouse China herself and all Asia to such newness of life that they would forsake the ways of barbarism for the ways of civilization. Nothing but utter selfishness can make men fear the civilization of their fellows; and nothing but a base spirit of caste, illogical as it is contemptible, can make Europeans regard with disfavor the development of culture among Asiatic races. This is no time to cry halt to civilization, on the Yang-Tse any more than on the Thames.

Army and Navy Register. (Washington, D. C.)

Should the war be prolonged for several years the resources of Japan in men and money will be severely taxed, and internal politics will suffer the usual turmoil. Meantime, China is likely to remain the stolid block that has resisted change for many centuries. Great Britain, Russia, France, and Germany, by concert of action, can very suddenly bring the war to an end. It is probable that Great Britain can do so of her own motion by financial pressure upon the belligerent nations.

Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

England has already accepted the new status of Japan and has ratified a treaty, which, going into effect five years hence, does away with restrictions on travel, extraterritoriality, and consular courts, and arranges tariff schedules. A similar treaty is being drawn up with this country.

I-Nov.

London Times. (Eng.)

The Japanese army has unquestionably justified the opinion formed by all who had had the opportunity of seeing its training and estimating the capacity of its efforts. The Japanese nation has received a triumphant reward for its ambitions in a new and powerful impetus. Henceforth Japan must be reckoned with as a living force in the East, and Englishmen, at least, should be able to view without jealousy or misgiving the uprising of these island people, whose interests are largely their own, and with whom they may before long come into closer contact.

Albany Argus. (N. Y.)

The Japanese are proceeding with their military operations in a very businesslike manner, and the capture of Peking or some other important Chinese city in the near future is by no means an improbability. The Chinese conduct of the war thus far seems half-hearted by comparison.

New York Herald. (N. Y.)

Russia, with her unknown quantity of troops along the Amoor, is ready to swoop down upon Manchooria, France is waiting in Tonquin for the word to advance northward, and for every English warship sent to Chinese waters these two powers will send another, so that Japan will be left to fight out her battles with China to the end without fear of interruption. This is as it should be. Eventually, when Japan's work is achieved, a conference of the great powers of the world will doubtless be called and a satisfactory arrangement regarding China's future be settled upon.

WORK OF NINETEEN STATE POLITICAL CONVENTIONS.

THE platforms adopted by the nineteen state political conventions held throughout the country during the last few weeks furnish an unusual opportunity for an engaging comparative study of American politics. A careful summary of the reports brings into view a few general facts of wide interest and importance. Six Democratic and one Republican Convention denounced the A. P. A. movement, directly or indirectly, as follows,—Democratic: New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Ohio, Minnesota; Republican: Massachusetts. A majority of the platforms contain planks relating to the free coinage of silver. Those favoring such action are, Democratic: Nevada, Arizona, Nebraska, Ohio; Republican: Colorado, Montana; Populist: Colorado, Nevada. The Republican platforms of the New York and Connecticut Conventions declare in favor of an international agreement for the use of both gold and silver and that of Massachusetts declares for "gold and silver dollars unchanging in value." The Republican platform of New York specifically condemns the free coinage of silver and the Republican Convention of Washington defeated a resolution in its favor. Thus it will be seen that eight platforms, four Democratic, two Republican, and two Populist, and all of western states except Ohio, declare in favor of free silver, while the Republican platforms of three eastern states evidently favor the maintenance of gold and silver at a parity and the Republican Conventions of two states, Washington and New York, almost at the two extremes of the country, are obviously opposed to the free coinage of silver. A few other points are to be noted. The Colorado Republican platform commends woman's suffrage; the Populist and Democratic platforms of Nevada and that of the Minnesota Democrats favor the election of United States senators by a direct vote of the people; the Democratic platforms of Nevada and Minnesota commend the employment of methods of arbitration in labor disputes; the New York Populist platform favors state operation of the liquor traffic; the Connecticut Democratic Convention denounces the use of free railroad passes by public officials, and the Massachusetts Democratic platform favors the use of voting machines. Condensed reports of the work of the nineteen Conventions are given herewith:

REPUBLICAN.

The Massachusetts Republican Convention, in session October 6, re-nominated F. T. Greenhalge for governor by acclamation and placed other candidates in nomination for the remaining state offices. The platform of principles adopted reads in part: Every dollar paid by the government, both the gold and silver dollars of the constitution, and their paper representatives, honest and unchanging in value and equal to every other; a school at the public charge open to all the children, and free from partisan or secular control, and no distinction of birth or religious creed in the rights of American citizenship."

The Connecticut Republican Convention held September 20, nominated a state ticket headed by O. Vincent Coffin for governor. The platform declares in favor of judicious tariff principles. The following is the financial plank: "The Republican party, now as always, the party of honest money and opposed to any debasement of the people's currency, holds that American silver as well as American gold should be used as standard money under such international agreements as will insure the maintenance of a parity of values, so that the purchasing and debt paying power of every dollar issued by the government whether gold, silver, or paper, shall be at all times the same."

The Republican State Convention of New York, which met September 10, nominated ex-Vice President Levi P. Morton for governor, Charles T. Saxton for lieutenant governor, and Albert Haight for judge of the Court of Appeals. The following is an important extract from the platform adopted:

"We favor an honest dollar and oppose any effort, whether by the removal of the tax on the state bank issues or the free coinage of silver, to lower our currency standard, and we favor an international agreement which shall result in the use of both gold and silver as a circulating medium."

A resolution indirectly condemning the A. P. A. was introduced in the Convention and laid on the table.

The Montana Republican Convention held Sept. 6 nominated candidates for Congress and associate justices of the Supreme Court. The platform adopted places the responsibility for the hard times on the Democratic party, and demands free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1.

The Colorado Republican Convention in session September 13, nominated a full state ticket. The platform adopted denounces the present state Populist administration and declares the paramount issue in Colorado to be the suppression of the spirit of anarchy and the restoration of law and order; favors the free coinage of gold and silver; and deals with matters of local interest. Regarding equal suffrage, the platform says: "In the enfranchisement of women we recognize the power of that ever-advancing thought and civilization which lead up to perfect justice; we gladly welcome the influence of women in the affairs of public life, and we confidently look to them for aid in this hour of Colorado's distress."

The Washington Republican Convention defeated a resolution in favor of the free coinage of silver at a ratio of 16 to 1, by 37 votes.

POPULIST.

The New York Populist Convention in session September 12, nominated a state ticket. The platform reaffirms the Omaha national platform, and declares in favor of state ownership and control of the liquor traffic.

The Colorado Populist Convention held September 5, nominated D. H. Waite for governor by acclamation. The sixty women delegates sitting in the Convention were, upon their request, accorded the privilege of escorting Governor Waite to the platform, where he made an address. The platform adopted by the Convention declares in favor of

the free and unlimited coinage of silver at a ratio of 16 to 1, and endorses the Omaha platform, proportionate taxation, the referendum and the legislation recommended by the State Labor Congress.

The Nevada Populist Convention nominated Geo. Peckham for governor. The platform declares allegiance to the National People's party, demands free and unlimited coinage of silver at a ratio of 16 to 1; favors the election of United States senators by a direct vote of the people, and endorses government ownership of railroads.

DEMOCRATIC.

The New Hampshire Democratic Convention, held September 7, nominated a state ticket headed by Col. H. O. Kent for governor. The platform adopted declares against attempts to make any religious test a qualification for office, and denounces the prohibitory law as a failure.

The Massachusetts Democratic Convention held October 8, nominated John E. Russell for governor and named other candidates to complete the state ticket. The platform reiterates the loyalty of the Massachusetts Democracy to President Cleveland; endorses the Wilson Tariff bill as "an honest effort to carry out the Democratic policy," and denounces the Democratic senators who opposed its passage. The principle of the income tax is approved. Any organization which aims to introduce distinction of birth or religious creed in politics is opposed, and any party which tacitly accepts an alliance with such an organization is condemned. The adoption of voting machines is favored.

The Connecticut Democratic Convention, which met September 25, nominated Ernest Cady for governor and other candidates for the remaining state offices. In the platform adopted the A. P. A. movement is denounced as a vicious thing, dangerous to civil liberty and in violation of the Declaration of Rights. The use of free railroad passes by public officials is condemned.

The New York Democratic Convention in session September 26, nominated a state ticket by acclamation as follows: For governor, U. S. Senator David B. Hill; for lieutenant governor, Congressman Daniel N. Lockwood; for judge of the Court of Appeals, Judge Wm. J. Gaynor. The platform adopted approves the tariff legislation enacted by the last Congress in part; reaffirms the principles contained in the Democratic national platform of 1892; commends the efforts made by the senators and representatives of New York in Congress to avert the imposition of the income tax, and deplors the fact that the reform of the tariff was embarrassed by ingrafting in its provisions a direct tax to which many Democrats were strenuously opposed. The platform contains this reference to secret political organi-

zations: "We denounce as contrary to the spirit of our institutions any display of religious intolerance in political discussions. We denounce any attempt to proscribe candidates for office on the ground of religious belief by secret organizations or otherwise. The Democratic party, which has always stood for political and religious freedom, does not hesitate to condemn all efforts to create a distinction among citizens because of differences in faith as unworthy of an enlightened age and as abhorrent to the instincts of American freedom." After a brief interval, following the adjournment of the Convention, Judge Gaynor declined the nomination for judge of the Court of Appeals and the state committee nominated in his stead Judge C. F. Brown, who immediately accepted.

The Ohio Democratic Convention met September 12, and made nominations for minor state offices. The platform vigorously denounces the A. P. A. movement. The McKinley law is held to be responsible for the hard times. A resolution favoring the free coinage of silver was incorporated in the platform by a vote of 468 to 319.

The South Carolina Democratic Convention, which met September 20, nominated a full state ticket headed by John Gary Evans, author of the Dispensary Liquor Law, for governor. The nominees are all members of the Tillman Democracy. The platform endorses both the Chicago Democratic and the Ocala Populist platforms.

The Wisconsin Democratic Convention met September 7, and renominated Geo. W. Peck for governor. The platform adopted asserts that the new tariff law affords substantial relief, but that the complete fulfillment of the demands of the people has been defeated by the solid opposition of Republican senators supported by a few Democrats.

The Minnesota Democratic Convention on September 6 nominated George L. Becker, the present state railroad commissioner, for governor. The platform adopted reaffirms the platform of the national Democratic Convention of 1892; commends the coinage of silver whenever it can be accomplished consistently with the maintenance of a sound and

safe currency; favors the election of United States senators by direct vote of the people; denounces all secret political organizations as unpatriotic and un-American, and proposes the employment of methods of arbitration and conciliation in the adjustment of disputes between capital and labor.

The Nebraska Democratic Convention met September 26 and nominated a complete state ticket, the nominees, with the exception of those for state treasurer, auditor, and attorney general, having been originally nominated by the Populists. As a result of this action about one hundred administration members of the Convention withdrew, organized a separate Democratic Convention, and nominated a ticket composed entirely of Democrats. Both Conventions declared in favor of free silver.

The South Dakota Democratic Convention was held September 6. James A. Ward was nominated for governor, other candidates being nominated for the remaining state offices. A proposition to fuse with the Populists was defeated.

The Arizona Territorial Democratic Convention declared in favor of the free coinage of silver at a ratio of 16 to 1.

The Nevada Democratic Convention met September 12, and nominated a full state ticket. The platform adopted by the Convention declares adherence to Democratic principles and favors bimetallism and the free coinage of silver at the ratio of 16 to 1. The platform favors the election of United States senators by direct vote of the people and the settlement of labor difficulties by arbitration.

NEW YORK POLICE INVESTIGATION.

THE Lexow committee, charged with the investigation of the New York Police Department, authorized by the last New York State Senate, in which a Republican majority prevailed, resumed its sitting on September 9, having adjourned on June 29 for the summer. After a three days' session the committee again adjourned until October 1, when it resumed the work previously begun. The investigation almost since its beginning last spring, has been a veritable drag-net over the operations of the New York Police Department. To the assiduous labors of Rev. Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst, pastor of the Madison Square Presbyterian Church, New York, the investigation is primarily due. It has been conducted in a large degree upon the information furnished by the Society for the Prevention of Crime, of which he is the head. The committee sitting from day to day has pursued the most searching inquiry into the conduct and methods of the New York police. Scores of witnesses have been examined, including officials of the department high and low, and the evidence produced has been little short of a revelation. The methods of the department are according to the evidence criminal in many respects and a large number of officers in all grades of the service have been seriously and alarmingly compromised.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

The revenue system of the police shows more intricacy and elaboration than that of the Cæsars when the decree went forth that all the world should be taxed. It spared nothing that could be reached, or from which a dollar could be squeezed, laying its levy indiscriminately on crime and industry, driving honest, helpless people out of business when from mere inability they could no longer respond to the demand of the harpies which preyed upon them.

(*Meth.*) *Zion's Herald.* (Boston, Mass.)

Keepers of disorderly houses, green-goods swindlers, pedlars, gamblers, saloon-men, violators of city ordinances, have all paid blackmail to the police for the privilege of breaking the law. It has been blackmail rather than bribery. The police did not wait for these offenders to come to them; they went or sent to the offenders. A careful estimate of this revenue from protected crime collected by policemen puts the aggregate at over \$5,000,000 annually. Paid to enforce the law, they have basely enriched themselves and those knavish officials who appointed them to office, by licensing its violation.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

The further revelations concerning the green-goods

industry, which the Lexow committee has brought out, are serious. . . .

There is another side to the business, however, which is wholly grave. How was it possible to send so vast a quantity of circulars through the mails without detection by the post office authorities all over the Union? How could so many guys be caught without the knowledge of the game played on them extending to great numbers of people who made themselves morally partners to the swindle, and oftentimes were actually in the pay of the rascals? They were not merely policemen in New York, but many other real and virtual confederates here and elsewhere. It was a business of swindling swindlers which must have had widespread ramifications among people apparently honest and respectable, who understood its purpose and assisted it.

(*Ind.*) *The Herald.* (New York, N. Y.)

Its main purpose is not to show individual guilt, but to lay bare the corruption of a system. The remedy for which its disclosures will call will be not simply the dismissal of the guilty members of the force, but the thorough reform of the system.

(*Evan.*) *The Independent.* (New York, N. Y.)

And who is Dr. Parkhurst? He is a plain Presbyterian minister, whose business it is no more to

purify the city than that of any other citizen, except that a minister is a professed philanthropist. His main work is given to the spiritual interests of his church and to the care of his pulpit. He was not brought up, like our boss Croker, in the prize ring, nor is he as ignorant of the niceties of the English grammar

as the president of the Board of Police Commissioners. He is a thoroughly educated man, a Christian and a gentleman; and he possesses the divine faculty of indignation. He has the shrewd sense which knows how to go directly to the root of things, and will not waste energy about inconsequentialities.

WITHDRAWAL OF LOUISIANA SUGAR PLANTERS FROM THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.

THE Convention of Louisiana Sugar Planters held at New Orleans on September 17, was attended by eight hundred delegates, who determined by a unanimous vote to join the Republican party. The Convention declared itself in favor of the protection of all American industries, demanded the abrogation of the Hawaiian Reciprocity treaty, and called for an honest election. The resolutions, which were unanimously adopted, contain the following relating to the question at issue:

Resolved, That the people of Louisiana never asked for a bounty on sugar. It was granted by Congress against our protest, but after it was enacted into a law which declared that it should last until 1905, we accepted it as a solemn pledge of the government of the United States which we did not believe any Congress controlled by any party would repudiate. In accordance with that belief, and relying upon the honor of our government, we expended enormous sums of money, mortgaged our property for immense loans in order to meet the expectations of the country and increase the production of sugar, which, in point of fact, we have doubled in three years under the McKinley act. That indebtedness is still unpaid and the Wilson bill has made it impossible for us to meet our obligations. Bankruptcy stares us in the face. We declare that no honest government can afford to break its faith with its own people or ruin its own citizens.

(*Rep.*) *St. Louis Globe-Democrat.* (*Mo.*)

The revolt of the Louisiana sugar planters against the political party which they have heretofore supported illustrates an important fact that is too often overlooked in discussions of economic issues. Their course is inspired by self-interest, as they frankly acknowledge. The motive by which they are influenced is a defensible one; the end that they are seeking is justifiable; the means that they have chosen to reach that end are permissible. They are only doing what men have always done, and duplicating, in a limited way, the standing policy of nations.

(*Dem.*) *New Orleans Picayune.* (*La.*)

The *Picayune* has from the first expressed its sympathy with the sugar planters in the wrongs that have been inflicted on them by Congress; but it does not agree with them that a remedy for the evil is to be found in joining the Republican party.

Governor Foster of Louisiana.

In my opinion, this movement on the part of the sugar planters is wrong in principle and fatal to its policy. If there be any hope for the sugar interests in the way of national legislation, it must be found in the revenue principle of the Democratic party.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

The true course for Louisiana Democrats, and others in similar predicament of betrayal, is to reaffirm their allegiance to Democracy, and to follow Governor Foster, the first southern statesman who has emerged from the muddle of incompetence and treachery which has stricken his party, and still holds aloft the Democratic flag.

(*Rep.*) *Detroit Tribune.* (*Mich.*)

The defection of the Louisiana planters from the Democratic party is perfectly natural. Upon the

first practical application of Democratic principles in legislation their fatuity becomes apparent to everybody. The sugar raisers are only the beginners of a movement that is likely to become general throughout the party and especially in Dixie. The South has been voting the straight Democratic ticket while basking in the sunshine of Republican protection. In the chill of Democratic "reform" they will change their political faith, naturally enough. Since the war the South has become an empire of industry.

(*Dem.*) *New Orleans States.* (*La.*)

This is the maddest movement that was ever made in politics.

(*Ind.*) *New York Evening Post.* (*N. Y.*)

The action of the Louisiana sugar-planters in joining the Republican party releases the Democratic party from its greatest embarrassment—that of being obliged to cater to a lot of protectionists in its own camp. The claim of the Louisiana men, and also of the Nebraska and California beet factories, to the bounty for the present year is valid, in our judgment. It is our belief, also, that they were tricked out of this bounty by the agents of the Sugar Trust in the Senate. Strict justice requires the payment of the present year's bounty, which can be allowed only by an act of Congress.

(*Dem.*) *The Star.* (*Kansas City, Mo.*)

Those planters claim some six or eight million dollars from the government, because they construe the McKinley law as having been in the nature of a contract with them. But this is a mistaken notion on their part. If they are entitled to the money they can get it through the Court of Claims, but in no other way can the justice of their pretense be established.

ANTI-LYNCHING MOVEMENT.

MISS IDA B. WELLS, a young colored woman formerly of Memphis, Tenn., has lately been conducting a lecturing crusade in England against the lynching of negroes in the South. An Anti-Lynch League has been formed in England, and a number of prominent men have signified their intention to support the movement. Mrs. Humphry Ward is president of the Woman's Auxiliary to the league and Lady Henry Somerset and the Countess of Aberdeen are members. A fund of £5,000 has been subscribed and it is reported that a committee will be sent to this country to make an investigation. It is intended that the league shall co-operate with a similar society to be organized in the United States. Among those whom it is said will interest themselves in the work in this country are Hon. Carl Schurz, R. W. Gilder, Hon. Bourke Cockran, and Dr. John Hall of New York, Archbishop Ireland, Archbishop Janssens of St. Louis, three Protestant Episcopal bishops of the South, and many others. The opinions of a few southern governors on the visit of the English committee are quoted below. They are taken from a symposium in the *New York World* and are fairly representative of the large number of comments received from the executives of the states in the South and Southwest, a majority of which ridiculed the movement.

Governor Northern of Georgia.

We challenge investigation by all persons who have the right to investigate these charges, but any attempt upon the part of Englishmen, tainted by their own national crimes, to arraign us for trial must be considered by us a gross impertinence.

Governor O'Ferrall of Virginia.

Things have come to a pretty pass in this country when we are to have a lot of English moralists sticking their noses into our internal affairs. It is the quintessence of brass and impudence.

Governor Hogg of Texas.

Neither moral nor political sentiment or law will prohibit Englishmen or other people from freely and fully inquiring into supposed race troubles or other questions in Texas.

Governor Tillman of South Carolina.

The Englishmen are welcome to come to South Carolina and learn the truth. They can't investigate us in New York. I will afford them every facility to get at facts.

(Rep.) Chicago Inter-Ocean. (Ill.)

Miss Wells is to be congratulated upon the success of her crusade. It has aroused the people north and south, in England and America, with the exception of a few southern governors, who begin to feel the lash of public condemnation and are giving public exhibitions of their squirming, and attempts to evade the responsibility which rests upon them.

(Dem.) Richmond Times. (Va.)

We welcome these cranks and hope they will travel from one end of the South to another and make all the inquiries they may feel inclined to make about our customs in lynching, or our customs in any other behalf. They will find the negroes responsible for terrible provocations for lynchings, to which the more inflammable and light-headed of our population are only too prone to yield. But they will find the great body of the thinking and conservative people of the South deplore lynching as one of the very worst evils and curses that can befall a people, and that they are exerting themselves all the time, to the best of their ability, in an endeavor to break it up.

(Evan.) The Outlook. (New York, N. Y.)

International public opinion is one of the prime elements in modern civilization. It put an end to the atrocities of the Bourbon rule in Italy; it has modified the anti-socialistic and repressive legislation in Germany; it is exerting a cognizable influence upon corrupting influences at work under the English government in India; it is beginning to have some effect on the horrible atrocities perpetrated by the Russian government in Siberia; it is stirring philanthropy and religion to deal with the problems of the "submerged tenth" in London; and it is little short of absurd for the governors of Virginia and Georgia to suppose that a Chinese wall can be built about the southern states so high and so thick that crime perpetrated behind that wall can be kept concealed from the observation of Christendom and the condemnation of a universal and enlightened conscience.

(Dem.) The Post. (Houston, Tex.)

The best way to cure the evil is to remove the cause.

(Afro-American.) The Freedman. (Indianapolis, Ind.)

In some instances, we have no doubt, colored men have been guilty as charged, and have contributed to the deplorable condition that civilization stands aghast at, but a mistake was made and a double crime committed, that a punishment was not meted out to them by a legitimate process of law.

(M. E. Church, South.) Christian Advocate. (Nashville, Tenn.)

A different course must be pursued—a different object must be aimed at. Let Englishmen protest, let our northern brethren protest, let Ida Wells protest—that is all right—we join them all in protesting against lynching, and will go as far as any to put a stop to it, but to go that far and cease is to stop far short of duty. What is needed is a few Englishmen, and a few northern men, and a few Ida Wellses to come south and do duty as missionaries among the colored people, and teach them better morals. The white people have been preached to, and lectured to, at long range, long enough. Let the missionaries come south and work among the negroes.

WHAT UNITARIANS BELIEVE.

THE National Conference of the Unitarians met September 24 at Saratoga, N. Y., and remained in session four days. The revision of the constitution, probably the most important work of the Conference, was characterized by broad liberality and unanimity of action.

Preamble of the Revised Constitution.

The Conference of the Unitarian and Other Christian Churches was formed in the year 1865, with the purpose of strengthening the churches and societies which should unite in it for more and better work for the Kingdom of God. These churches accept the religion of Jesus, holding, in accordance with his teaching, that practical religion is summed up in love to God and love to man. The Conference recognizes the fact that its constituency is Congregational in tradition and policy. Therefore it declares that nothing in this constitution is to be construed as an authoritative test, and we cordially invite to our working fellowship any who, while differing from us in

belief, are in general sympathy with our spirit and our practical aims.

Extract from an address before the Convention by U. S. Senator Hoar of Massachusetts.

Unitarianism does not consist of a statement of things in which we don't believe. Such a statement never saved a soul and rarely makes a convert. Unitarianism is not made up of negations, doubts, denials, hesitations, uncertainties. It is positive faith and practical works. . . . The Sermon on the Mount, the two sublime commandments upon which hang all the law and the prophets, the entire precept and example of Jesus Christ constitute to our minds the chief portion and essence of Unitarianism.

THE MINISTER'S DUTY TO THE SOCIAL FABRIC.

THE one hundred and eleventh Annual Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church of the Diocese of New York was held in New York October 4. The opening address was made by Bishop Henry C. Potter, from which a few extracts are made on the relation of the minister to social questions.

From Bishop Potter's Address.

Let it be clearly stated that there are such things as unjust combinations of employers, a veritable tyranny of capital, profound indifference to the hardships of the man of scanty wage and scantier privileges. I have myself more than once called attention to these things in terms which some of you may have thought unnecessarily strenuous. I should still maintain it to be not only my right, nay, my duty, to do so, and that of every other minister of Christ. But it is a very different thing when the pulpit or the religious teacher, passing on from his own province of rebuking things that are evil, becomes the advocate and defender of a new social philosophy which perilously

misconceives the problem of which it proposes the solution. . . .

The religion of Jesus Christ is here in the world to mitigate the hardships which arise out of the seemingly inexorable operation of the laws of nature, whether they are laws of trade or of disease or of death. 'But it is not here to dismiss them out of existence, whether by arbitrary lawmaking or anarchistic violence. Our duty to the social fabric is not to pull it down because its existence seems to us to involve certain intolerable hardships, but to make those hardships tolerable, by an inexhaustible sympathy and a never-tiring helpfulness toward all within our reach.

GENERAL BOOTH IN THE UNITED STATES.

GENERAL WILLIAM BOOTH of London, founder of the Salvation Army, arrived in Canada early in October and will reach New York about October 20. He will remain in the country several months making a general inspection of the Salvation Army work in the United States and putting into effect new plans for the extension of the social work of the army. General Booth is now sixty-six years old.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

General Booth is a most interesting and forceful man. He began life with no advantages of birth, wealth, or education, as a lay exhorter of a small and obscure sect of Christians. But he soon outgrew the narrow limitations of such work. It is entirely within bounds to say that to the unique genius and organizing skill of William Booth the Salvation Army owes its existence and success. And to say this is to put him among the remarkable religious leaders of the world. In fact, he has done for this age much the same thing that the founders of the great monastic orders did for the Middle Ages.

General Booth will not find the Salvation Army in this country the power that it has become in England. There are many reasons for this, perhaps the greatest being the fact that religious forces more or less akin to the Army are already at work here. But just because American Christianity is alive to the duty of reaching the masses, its feeling toward the Army is one of friendly sympathy; and its great founder will find that he has a host of friends and well-wishers in America, whose names are not recorded in the roster of the Salvation Army.

THE REVIVAL OF BUSINESS.

THE consensus of opinion on the business situation warrants the assertion that there has been more or less of a revival in most sections of the country and that the outlook for trade is encouraging and full of promise. Better conditions have been the rule rather than the exception during the month. Ending with September the number of business failures for 1894 as recorded by *Bradstreet's* was 9,251; the amount of actual assets was \$59,707,031 and the liabilities \$110,647,934. This is an improvement over the corresponding period of 1893 when the number of failures amounted to 11,140, the assets being \$227,373,231 and the liabilities \$327,275,109. While the difference in the number of failures between the two yearly periods is only about 2,000, the liabilities were nearly two thirds greater in 1893 than the present year. The press opinions appended refer particularly to the business situation during the month of September.

(*Ind.*) *The Evening Post.* (*Chicago, Ill.*)

Industrial and commercial activity are still the order of the hour. Factories everywhere are going, and merchants in most branches of trade report a fairly satisfactory business. The aggregate volume of trade is lighter than usual at this season in what are called "good years," but distinctly ahead of last year. The greatest mercantile activity is in food stuffs and other necessities of life, and operations are on a low basis of value. The masses are therefore the direct beneficiaries of the broadening out of general trade. That is the way we like to see a boom develop—broaden and thicken from the bottom. The boom in prices will follow in due time.

The American Grocer. (*New York, N. Y.*)

Retail trade, the last step in the movement from producer to consumer, is at the same time the first step upon which depend empty shelves in the stores and future orders to the mills. After months of unnatural economy, buying should be large enough to send the mills further orders very soon. Wide diversity appears in different trades, and the details of business at the different cities merit general attention. The main facts disclosed are, first, a marked improvement within the past month, and a considerable excess over the business done a year ago, particularly in the necessities of life. But second, it appears that the volume of trade at present is on the whole considerably less than in a normal year, at most points, and in the more important trades is apparently about 20 per cent smaller than in September, 1892.

(*Rep.*) *The Journal.* (*Kansas City, Mo.*)

Business in Kansas City shows decided improvement over last year, and as compared with the showing of other large cities is highly gratifying.

(*Dem.*) *New Orleans Picayune.* (*La.*)

In New Orleans the improvement has been slow but sure, and now that cotton is beginning to move freely, trade is reviving more rapidly, notwithstanding the very low price at which cotton is selling. Should the sugar crop prove as large as is generally expected, trade in the section tributary to this city will be given a further im-

petus, and the season's business, while not assuming the proportions of the years prior to the panic, will, nevertheless, prove satisfactory and profitable.

(*Ind.*) *Public Ledger.* (*Philadelphia, Pa.*)

The improvement of business conditions can be no longer successfully disputed. The leading financial and trade journals of the country give the most gratifying reports of reviving activity. Despatches and correspondence from all parts of the country tell of the revival of industrial enterprises; of works which have been shut down resuming operations; of others, which have been operated on reduced time or with a lesser number of operatives, running upon full time and with an increased force of employees, and of capital providing new plants in all those industries which are as props and pillars of mercantile success. The great transportation companies, which probably suffered as much as, or more than any of the representatives of important business interests during the late prolonged period of depression, are daily showing the assured increase of the volume of business. The statements of the banks in all the large financial centers are equally satisfactory as indisputable testimony to the return of prosperity.

(*Dem.*) *Cincinnati Enquirer.* (*Ohio.*)

The fall trade of Cincinnati is, considered altogether, a good index of better times. The Queen City is fit to lead in the rehabilitation of business. A good beginning has been made, and the growth will be steady, though perhaps not sensational.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (*N. Y.*)

While some trades are doing well, and in a few cities better than in previous years, others are lagging behind, and in several cities the aggregate is said to be less than a year ago. That there has been a recent increase is clearly shown, but it may also be perceived that reductions of wages and want of employment lessen the buying power of the people. It is natural to infer from such accounts that the further orders, for which the industries are waiting, can hardly be expected unless distribution to consumers expands somewhat more. The point of apprehension at present is not unsoundness of business, but doubt whether in volume the business will suffice to sustain even the industrial force now employed.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

September 8. A decision of the Supreme Court of the territory of Oklahoma nullifies all divorces granted by probate judges in Oklahoma since March, 1893. These are about 400 in number.

September 10. The National Encampment of the G. A. R. meets in Pittsburg.—The Republicans elect their state ticket in Maine by a plurality of over 35,000, the greatest ever given to the party in the state.

September 12. At the Convention of Catholic Knights at Dayton, Ohio, a resolution is defeated providing for the observance of Bishop Watterson's decision against the admission of liquor dealers to membership in Catholic societies.

September 13. At the National Encampment of the G. A. R. at Pittsburg Colonel T. G. Lawler is elected commander-in-chief and it is decided to hold the next national encampment at Louisville, in 1895.

September 16. The Court of Inquiry recommends the dismissal of many members of the state militia of the state of Washington for insubordination during the great railroad strikes in Chicago and throughout the West.—The secretary of war issues an order for the redistribution of the United States army.

September 17. The Convention of Sugar Planters at New Orleans unanimously decides to join the Republican party.

September 21. A cyclone passes over parts of Iowa and southern Minnesota, destroying much property and causing a number of deaths.

September 26. Great damage to the cotton and rice crops in Florida and Georgia caused by the West India cyclone which sweeps along the Florida and Georgia coast.

September 27. President Cleveland issues a proclamation granting amnesty and pardon to persons convicted of polygamy in Utah.

September 29. The New York State Constitutional Convention adjourned *sine die*.—All the tin plate factories in the country reported closed.

October 3. The Democratic candidate for governor of Georgia elected by an unusually small majority of 15,000. Reports show heavy Populist gains throughout the state.

October 4. A test case begun by sugar planters in Washington, D. C., to compel the Treasury Department to pay sugar bounties for the year ending June 30, 1895.

October 5. The anti-Tammany organizations and the Republicans nominate the following municipal ticket in New York: Mr. W. L. Strong, a Republican, for mayor, and John W. Goff, council of the Lexow Committee, for recorder.

FOREIGN.

September 7. In an address at Königsberg the German emperor rebukes the Prussian nobles for opposition to his agrarian policy.

September 11. A treaty of alliance is ratified between Japan and Corea.

September 15. The main and auxiliary Peary expeditions arrive at St. Johns, Newfoundland, bringing news that Lieutenant Peary and two companions will remain in the North another year.

September 17. The Japanese defeat the Chinese army at the battle of Ping Yang.

September 19. The Japanese defeat the Chinese in a naval battle at the mouth of the Yalu River in the Gulf of Corea.

September 20. The Japanese army in Corea begins a march to the Chinese frontier.

September 23. The czar of Russia reported to be in a serious physical condition.

September 26. Cholera reported as spreading in Russia.

September 27. The Chamber of Commerce in London gives a dinner to Congressman Wilson.

October 1. It is reported in Berlin that the czar of Russia is suffering from Bright's disease in a mild form. It is said there is no immediate danger.

October 2. It is officially reported that the czar of Russia will spend the winter in Corfu and that the czarevitch is likely to act as regent.

October 6. An agreement is made by Russia, Germany, France, and England to protect missionaries in China, and guard the treaty ports.

NECROLOGY.

September 6. Admiral Sir Edward Augustus Inglefield, a naval inventor and commander of three Arctic expeditions.

September 8. Prof. Hermann Ludwig Ferdinand von Helmholtz.—Louis Phillipe Albert d'Orleans, Comte de Paris.

September 10. Heinrich Karl Brugsch Pasha, the most noted of German Egyptologists.

September 18. Rafael Nufiez, president of the United States of Colombia.

September 20. Giovanni Battista Rossi, the most celebrated Italian archæologist.—Amy Fursch-Madi, born 1847 in Belgium, well known as a prima donna.

September 26. Launt Thompson, the famous American sculptor.

September 27. F. W. Parker, auditor of the Chicago, Rock Island, and Pacific Railway.

October 3. Dr. David Swing, the noted preacher.

October 7. Andrew G. Curtin, the famous "war governor" of Pennsylvania.—Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR NOVEMBER.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First week (ending November 10).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter IV.
 "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters X. and XI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "Development of Steamships in the Nineteenth Century."
 "Social Life in England in the Eighteenth Century."

Sunday Reading for November 4.

Second week (ending November 17).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter V. to page 94.
 "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XII., XIII., and XIV.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Legislature of the German Empire."
 "Modern Agriculture in France."

Sunday Reading for November 11.

Third week (ending November 24).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter V. concluded.
 "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XV., XVI., and XVII.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Newspaper Press of the United States."
 Sunday Reading for November 18.

Fourth week (ending December 1).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VI. to page 123.
 "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XVIII., XIX., and XX.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Germany of To-Day."
 "The Value of Geological Science to Man."
 Sunday Reading for November 25.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Story of Robin Hood, as illustrating one phase of English life of the period treated in the week's lesson.
2. Paper—The Congress of Vienna: its *personnel*; its work in the redistribution of European lands; the cause of the unstable nature of its results.
3. A representative character sketch, from fiction,

of English social life at the close of the last century: Baroness Bernstein in Thackeray's "The Virginians."

4. Table Talk—The life and works of Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes.
5. Debate—Resolved, that the possible good to be gained by arctic expeditions is not sufficient to warrant the danger and expense involved in such expeditions.

SECOND WEEK.

1. Character study—Shakespeare's "King John" with selections from the play.
2. The story of Maximilian, emperor of Mexico, and the part he played in European politics.
3. Paper—What irrigation has done for the western states and territories.
4. Table Talk—The career of Andrew G. Curtin.
5. Debate—Was France justified in expelling all the princes of houses that had resigned?

BISMARCK DAY—NOVEMBER 19.

"Nor has our fatherland produced and brought us up so that it should derive no advantage from us or that we should regard it as created for our mere convenience—as a place where we may tranquilly while away our useless existence in idleness and sloth. Such is not the proper view in which we should regard our country. She claims from us the mightiest exertions of our mind and of all our powers, and only gives back for our private use what remains of our stock of time after we have been so employed."—*Cicero*.

1. Roll-Call—Quotations on "our country."
2. The life story of Bismarck.
3. A contrast—The Germany that Bismarck found when he entered upon his public career, and the Germany he left at his close.
4. Paper—The relations between the present German emperor and Bismarck.
5. Table-Talk—Recent honors paid to Bismarck.
6. Discussion—Did the glorious results achieved for the Fatherland justify the wily, questionable policy by which Bismarck gained them?

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Sketch—Queen Victoria, and her reign up to the year 1870.
2. Paper—Child labor in England at the beginning of the present century.
3. Discussion—The rise, the growth, the aim of the American Protective Association.
4. *Questions and Answers* in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
5. Questions from *The Question Table*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR NOVEMBER.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

P. 71. "An'ge-vin." Pertaining to Anjou, a former province of France. The name was especially applied to the royal house in power from 1154 to 1485, called also the Plantagenet house. Henry II., the first ruler in this line, was the son of Geoffrey V., count of Anjou, and Matilda, daughter of Henry I.

P. 72. "Adulterine castles." Castles built by the Norman barons in England after the Conquest, without warrant from the king.

P. 74. "Exchequer." The word comes from a French word for checker-board or chess-board. Any material marked off in squares was called checkered or excheckered; and it became customary to calculate accounts by means of counters on material of this kind used as covers for tables. In the room where the royal court met was a table covered with a checkered cloth used for this purpose, hence arose the name, exchequer, for this court.

"Curia Regis." See note on page 105 in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for October.

"Assize." From a French word meaning a sitting. An assembly of knights and other leading men in a certain place and at a certain time, for business. Also an ordinance or edict issued by the assembly, as the Assize of Clarendon, the ordinance which introduced changes in the English administration of justice; and the Grand Assize which substituted for judicial combat as a form of trial, a jury of sixteen persons.

"*Vere dicta*." Latin words meaning truly and spoken.

P. 75. "Primacy." The office of primate, the chief ecclesiastical position in a national church; the office of an archbishop.

P. 78. "Scutage." From the Latin word for shield. Commutation of military service for a given sum of money. The tenant was bound to follow his lord to war and at his own expense; but by paying scutage he could be released from his service of the shield.

P. 80. "Justiciar." This officer was not only "the chief justice of the kingdom but also the *ex officio* regent in the king's absence."

P. 82. "Tallage." Same as tailage. From a French verb meaning to cut. A part of a man's possessions paid as tax.—"Hid'age." A tax paid to the king for every hide of land. A hide of land was the allotment of one tenant, which varied in amount from sixty to one hundred acres or even more.—"Carucage" [kār'-u-kāg]. From the Latin

word for plow. The tax on every carucate [kār'-u-kāt] of land, which was as much land as one plow could work, usually deemed to be about one hundred acres.

"Danegeld." The tax laid on the English people to raise money to buy off Danish invaders or to pay troops to fight them.

P. 90. "Chapter." An assembly of monks, or of the clergy connected with a cathedral.

"See." From the Latin verb *sedere*, to sit. The seat or place of episcopal power; the jurisdiction of a bishop.

P. 96. "Grosseteste" [grōs'test]. The word means literally great head.

"Brē'-vī-a-ry." The book of daily public prayers used in the Roman Catholic and Greek church.

P. 101. "Hohenstaufen" [ho'en-stow-fen]. The name of a family of German princes who ruled in Germany almost continuously from 1138 to 1254.

P. 102. "Evesham" [ēvz'um].

P. 105. "Maid of Norway." "Margaret, daughter of Eric and Margaret of Norway. On the death of Alexander III. she was acknowledged queen of Scotland and was betrothed to Edward, son of Edward I. of England, but she died on her passage to England."

P. 108. "Maletote" [māl'e-tōt]. Compounded from the Latin *malus*, bad, and *tolta*, a levy or tax. An illegal imposition.

P. 112. "Edward II." He was the first English heir apparent who bore the title of prince of Wales. He was born during the war with that country, at Carnarvon Castle, in Wales, and was given the title which has ever since belonged to the heir to the throne.

P. 113. "Dispensers." These new favorites were men of high rank, engaging appearance and manner, a father and son. The name is frequently written Spenser.

P. 115. "Sū'-ze-rain-ty." The authority of a suzerain or feudal lord or lord paramount.

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

P. 120. "Vendetta." The blood feud. The duty of the nearest of kin of a murdered man to kill the one who murdered him.

"Bandit." French *ban dit*, declared an outlaw. As outlaws often became robbers the term was given to members of bands of highwaymen.

P. 125. "Congress of Vienna." The conference of the European Powers held after the fall of Napoleon for the purpose of reapportioning the lands

conquered by him and of reorganizing the political system of the continent.

P. 129. "Quadrilateral." In military usage this name is given to the space enclosed between and defended by four fortresses. The most famous of all quadrilaterals was the one mentioned here.

P. 133. "*Coup d'état*." A French expression meaning a stroke of policy; a violent measure of state in public affairs.

P. 142. "Legitimist and Orleanist." The Legitimists supported the claims of the elder branch of the Bourbon family, the descendants of Louis XIV., against that of the younger branch, the descendants of the duke of Orleans.

P. 144. "*Mésalliance*" [mā-zā-le-ans]. A French word meaning specifically a marriage relation which is considered degrading to one of the parties on account of the inferior birth or position of the other.

P. 146. "*Pär've-nu*." From a French verb meaning to succeed, to rise higher. The word is applied to any person or thing newly come into notice; an upstart.

P. 167. "The Eastern Question." See pages 274 and 282 of the text-book.

P. 176. "*Tä'tärs*." Same as Tartars; the latter form being the more common but the former more correct. Members of tribes whose original home was in the region known as Chinese Tartary (Manchuria and Mongolia), and who are now chiefly represented by the Manchus, the present rulers of China.

P. 182. "Panslavism." A plan for bringing about the union of all Slavic peoples in a confederation. Pan is the neuter form of the Latin word for all. The Slavs, or Slavonians, are peoples widely spread throughout eastern and southeastern and central Europe, including Russians, Bulgarians, Roumanians, Poles, etc.

P. 193. "Princes expelled from France." Among the banished princes was the count of Paris, who since the death of the count of Chambord, in 1883,—the last heir of the principal line of Bourbons,—has been the next heir to the throne of France, being the grandson of Louis Philippe. The count of

Paris died at Stowe House, a quiet English country place, on September 8, of the present year. He held a peculiar place in American history, having joined the Federal army during the Civil War, serving with distinction as an aid-de-camp to General McClellan. His son succeeds to his title.

P. 194. "*Fiasco*" [fe-äs'ko]. An Italian word meaning a humiliating failure. It is used especially of a failure in a musical performance or in any attempt to please an audience.

P. 195. "The Berlin Congress." See pages 203 and 279 of the text-book.

P. 199. "Thirty Years' War." This was rather a series of European wars lasting from 1618 to 1648. "They were carried on at first by the Protestants of Bohemia and various Protestant German states against the Catholic League headed by Austria. Afterwards Sweden and later France joined the former side, and Spain became allied with the latter. . . . The causes which led to this struggle reach back to the early part of the sixteenth century when the Reformation divided Germany into two hostile religious parties."

"*Cujus regio, ejus religio*." Latin. Literally, the kingdom of anyone, the religion of that one; or of his region, of his religion.

"*Bon voyage*." French. A good journey.

P. 214. "Scot and lot." "Scot means tribute or tax, and lot means allotment or portion allotted. To pay scot and lot, therefore, is to pay the ordinary tributes and also the personal tax allotted." To pay one's share of the rates or taxes.

"*Viva voce*" [vī'vā vō'se]. Latin. By the living voice; by word of mouth, orally.

P. 215. "*Hab'as cor'pus*." Latin. Literally, you may have the body (supply, of such a one brought into court). A writ requiring that a person be brought before the judge or into court in order that his case may be investigated, thus doing away with a long, arbitrary detention of any one in prison awaiting the calling of the case, arranged to suit the despotic will of those in power.

P. 228. "*Ex officio*." Latin. By virtue of their office.

REQUIRED READINGS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"DEVELOPMENT OF STEAMSHIPS IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

1. "Bulkheads." Water-tight partitions made of steel, placed in the hull of a ship to keep either water or fire from passing from one separated compartment to another in case of accident.

2. "Skin." As a nautical term the word is used as the name of the planking or iron plating which covers the ribs of a ship on the inside; also, the thin plating which forms the outer side of the ribs of a ship. Two plates, called flat keel plates, placed one over the other and riveted together, each plate

being from one half to one inch thick, and from four to eight feet wide, form the bottom plate of the outside skin; and they with a vertical plate riveted to them form the keel of the vessel.

3. "Knots." Nautical or sea miles, each one measuring one-sixtieth of a degree of latitude, or 6,080 feet, so that six knots are roughly estimated to be equal to seven miles. The distances are measured by knots tied in the log line, hence the name.

4. "Traf'al-gar." The fleet which Nelson had at this famous battle between England on one side and France and Spain on the other,—the battle at which

the great commander lost his life,—consisted of twenty-seven ships of the line carrying from sixty-four to one hundred guns each, and from five hundred to one thousand men each. The fleet of the enemy consisted of thirty-three ships of the line with from sixty-four to one hundred and thirty guns each. Besides the ships of the line the English had four frigates, one schooner, and one cutter; the enemy had five frigates and two brigs.

5. "Hard." In nautical use "the terms for putting the helm hard alee, hard up, hard over, etc., mean as far as it will go in the direction indicated."

6. "Patent logs." Devices for measuring the speed of the ship through the water. There are many varieties of them. They usually consist of a small metal propeller, which is towed astern, and a system of small cog wheels, in a metal box on the rail, near the stern of the ship. The forward movement of the vessel through the water causes the small propeller to twist the towing line, which gives motion to the system of cog wheels, which cause small pointers to indicate the number of knots the vessel has run since it was last read, or set. "Patent leads" are devices for measuring the depth of water. One variety consists of a lead weighing about fifty pounds, attached to fine steel piano wire wound on a reel. To the lead, or near it on the wire, is attached a small glass tube, about two feet long, and about the diameter of an ordinary lead pencil. The tube is closed at its upper end, and is coated on the inside with chromate of silver, which is of a brown or salmon color. As the lead with the tube descends, the water rises in the tube, as in a diving bell, depending on the depth. The salt water causes the chemical to change color to white. When allowed to run out until bottom is reached (indicated by the sudden slacking of the wires) the wire is wound in, and the tube taken off, and the depth of water in fathoms is read off on a suitable scale. In another variety a spring is compressed by the pressure of water instead of using the chemical.

Since this article was written, the time across the Atlantic has been still further reduced. The *Campania* has made the passage in 5d 9h 29m, and in September, 1894, the *Lucania* made both the western and eastern passages in 5d 8h 38m.

"SOCIAL LIFE IN ENGLAND IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY."

1. "Quickset." Living plants grown for the purpose of forming a hedge; especially, hawthorn planted for a hedge.

2. "Recoup." From a French verb meaning to cut off, to cut again. To keep back as a discount; to make good a loss by some corresponding advantage.

3. "Cereals" [sĕ're-als]. In the ancient myths

of Greece, Ceres was the goddess of agriculture; sowing and reaping and all harvest festivals were under her especial care. From her name is derived the word cereal as a name for all grain plants, such as wheat, rye, oats, corn, and rice.

4. "S." A shilling is worth nearly twenty-five cents; an English pound is valued at \$4.25 of our money and the shilling is the twentieth part of a pound. An English penny—plural pence—is equal to nearly two cents.

5. "O'nus." A Latin word transplanted into English, meaning burden, load.

6. "Leagues." A league is a distance of three marine miles; a marine mile measures 6,080.27 feet, making it nearly identical with a knot.

7. "Fleet weddings." Clandestine weddings; so called because at one time they were performed without bans or license by the chaplains of Fleet Prison, London, who were very needy.

8. "30 Car. II. c. 3." The third chapter of the Statutes of Parliament enacted in the thirtieth year of King Charles II.

9. "Bemused." Stupefied, muddled, confused.

10. "Bacchanal" [băk'ka-nal]. A festival occasion marked by boisterousness and much wine drinking. The name was given in ancient times to festivals held in honor of Bacchus, the wine god.

11. "South Sea bubble." "A stock-jobbing scheme devised by Sir John Blount, a lawyer. The object of the company was to buy up the national debt and to be allowed the sole privilege of trading in the South Sea. The £100 shares soon realized ten times that sum, but the whole bubble burst in 1720 and ruined thousands. The term is applied to any hollow scheme which has a splendid promise, but whose collapse will be sudden and ruinous."

12. "Sillabubs." Drinks made by mixing cream or milk with wine, ale, or cider, forming thus a soft curd which is sweetened and flavored. When thoroughly beaten these drinks are called whipped sillabubs.

13. "Hectors," etc. All of these words were characteristic names given to braggarts, blusterers, roisterers, etc. The name "Tityre Tu's" is derived from the reference in the first line of the first eclogue of Virgil, to the shepherd Tityrus.

14. "Pepusch" [pə'poosh]. (1667-1752.) A German composer.

15. "King's evil." "Scrofula, so called from a notion which prevailed from the reign of Edward the Confessor to that of Queen Anne, that it could be cured by the royal touch."

16. "Ramilie." This style of wig, having a long, gradually diminishing plait or tail, with a large bow at the top and a smaller one at the bottom, took its name from Ramillies, in Belgium, in commemoration of the victory gained there in 1706 over the French by the duke of Marlborough. Various styles in

articles of dress were distinguished by this name, among them the Ramlie hat.

"THE LEGISLATURE OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE."

1. "Carolingian" [kār-ō-lŭn'jŭ-ān]. Pertaining to the royal family founded by Charlemagne. The name is said to be derived, however, from Charles Martel, the ancestor of Charlemagne.

2. "Reichstag" [rĭks'täg]. A German compound, the two parts of which mean kingdom and parliament. The chief deliberative body, the House of Representatives of the German Empire.

3. "Cā-plŭ-tŭ-lā-ries." The laws, civil and ecclesiastical, passed by Charlemagne for the administration of the empire. These edicts are among the most valuable relics of the Middle Ages and they show the wisdom and prudence of their author.

4. "*Wir . . . von Gottes*," etc. We, by the favor of God, the German Emperor, King of Prussia, etc., in the name of the German Empire and according to the following agreement of the Bundesrath and of the Reichstag decree what follows.

5. "Proroguing" [prō-rōg'ing]. Discontinuing the meetings for a time—which time is usually not stated.

"MODERN AGRICULTURE IN FRANCE."

1. "Hectare." A superficial measure equal to nearly two and a half acres (2.4711 acres).

2. "Cā-dās'ter." "A register of the real property of a country or region, with the extent, value, and ownership of each holding or lot, serving as a basis of taxation; a kind of Doomsday Book."

3. "Ar-gil-lā'ceous." From the Latin word for clay. Of the nature of clay; containing a considerable amount of clayey matter.

4. "Cal-cā're-ous." From the Latin word for lime. Partaking of the nature of lime; chalky.

5. "Her'bi-vores." Animals which feed on herb-ages. The word comes from two Latin words meaning herb or grass, and to eat.

"Arrondissements" [ā-rōn-dēs-mān]. The largest administrative division of a department, in France, corresponding nearly to a county in this country. See "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," page 188.

7. "Seepage." Percolation; the moisture that oozes through a porous soil.

8. "Phyl-lox'e-rā." Small insects which attack the leaves and roots of the grape-vine; the worst enemy of the vine.

9. "Artesian wells." The name comes from the province of Artois, France, where these wells have been long in use. They are formed in regions of country having a complete basin formation, by boring often to a great depth, when the water will rise as from a fountain. In the United States any deep bored wells, even those in which pumps are used, are called artesian wells.

"SUNDAY READINGS."

1. "Twelve Tables." The earliest code of Roman law; so called because it was cut on twelve bronze tables or tablets. The laws were originally engraved upon wood or ivory and placed upon the platform of the forum, where they might be read by every one. Later they were put in the more durable form on the tablets.

2. "Aristotle." A Greek philosopher who lived in the fourth century B. C.—"Plato." See note on page 109 in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October.

3. "Val-en-tin'i-an." The third emperor of the West (the western of the two parts into which the Roman Empire was divided on the death of Theodosius the Great, in 395 A. D.; also known as the Byzantine Empire), who bore this name and ruled from 423 to 455.

4. "Jus-tin'i-an." A Byzantine emperor who reigned from 527 to 565. The code of Roman laws which bears his name is the great monument of his reign.

5. "Exposure of children." Among the ancient Greeks it was not uncommon for parents to abandon their young children in some wild, unprotected spot, and to leave them there to be saved by some chance or to die.

6. "Sto'ic-al." Of the nature of the Stoics, who were disciples of the philosopher Zeno. They took their name from the Greek word for porch, as they had their meeting place in the Painted Porch of the Agora, or market place, at Athens. They taught that men should be free from passion, unmoved by joy or grief. Hence the name is applied to one indifferent to pleasure or pain, who always exhibits a calm fortitude.

7. "Catacombs." From two Greek words meaning downward and cavity or tomb. "Originally, the name of a locality near Rome, the 'Hollows,' in which the church of St. Sebastian, with extensive burial vaults, was built; but afterwards applied to the vaults themselves and to similar underground burial places."

8. "Jū've-nal." A Roman satirical poet, who lived in the first century A. D.

9. "Augustus." (63 B. C.—14 A. D.) The first Roman emperor.

10. "Ter-tul'i-an." A Latin father of the church who lived in the second century A. D. Fathers of the church was a name given to the early teachers and expounders of Christianity, "who, next to the apostles were the founders, leaders, and defenders of the Christian church, and whose writings, so far as they are extant, are the main sources for the history, doctrines, and observances of the church in the early ages."

11. "Mar'cus Au-re-li-us." (121-180.) A Roman emperor and a philosopher.

12. "Con'stan'tine." (274-337.) A Roman em-

peror, surnamed the Great.

13. "Val-en-tin'i-an I." The Roman emperor who reigned from 364 to 375.—"Ho-nō'ri-us." The emperor who ruled over the Western Empire from 395 to 453.

14. "Sen'e-ca." A Roman philosopher who lived from about 60 B. C. to 35 A. D.—"Ep-ic-te'tus." (60-120.) A Roman Stoic philosopher.—"Plī'ny." (About 61-113.) A Roman writer.—"Plu'tarch." A Greek biographer and moralist, who lived during the latter part of the first century A. D.

15. "Theodosius" [the-o-dō'shūs]. (346-395.) A Roman emperor surnamed the Great.

16. "Sharp," Granville. (1734-1813.) An English philanthropist who devoted his powers to overthrowing slavery and the slave trade. The author of numerous pamphlets on the subject.—"Wilberforce," William. (1759-1833.) The great English philanthropist who had a leading share in the movement for the abolition of slavery in the English colonies.—"Clarkson," Thomas. (1760-1846.) An English abolitionist; the author of several works on slavery.

"THE GERMANY OF TO-DAY."

1. "Holbein" [hōl'bīn], Hans, the Younger. (1495-1554?) A German historical and portrait painter and engraver in wood, who executed many remarkable works for private houses, public buildings and churches.

2. "Dürer," Albrecht. (1471-1528.) A German painter and engraver, one of the most remarkable in that age so prolific of great artists. He was the first who taught the rules of perspective and insisted on the study of anatomy.

3. "Rembrandt," Paul. (1607-1669.) A Dutch artist. He held that the imitation of vulgar nature was better than the cultivation of ideal beauty and gave most attention to the elaboration of light and shade.

4. "Martial." A word owing its origin to the name of the god of war, Mars. Pertaining to or characteristic of this god; hence of warlike character, military.

5. "Beethoven" [bē'tō-ven], Ludwig von. (1770-1827.) A Prussian musical composer.

6. "Rhinedaughters." River spirits or nymphs of the river Rhine.

7. "Siegfried" [sēg'frīd]. The hero of the first part of the "Nibelungen Lied," a famous German epic poem of the thirteenth century.

8. "Te-trāl'ō-gy." A group of four dramatic compositions, three tragic, and one satiric. The word has been made to cover a group of four operatic works treating of related subjects and performed in connection.

9. "Al-tru-is'tic." From the Latin word for other. Regardful of others, unselfish. Opposed to egotistic.

10. "Chauvinism" [shō'-vīn-iz'm]. A word derived from a soldier named Nicholas Chauvin, "who was so enthusiastically devoted to Napoleon I., and so demonstrative in manifestations of his adoration of him that his comrades turned him into ridicule." It designates any enthusiastic, unreflecting devotion to a cause, especially patriotism carried to absurd exaggeration.

11. "*Romanus sum.*" Latin. I am a Roman.

"THE VALUE OF GEOLOGICAL SCIENCE TO MAN."

1. "Tālūs-es." The masses of rocky fragments lying at the base of cliffs, formed by pieces broken off from above.

2. "Rafinesque" [rā-fē-nēsk], Constantine Smaltz. (1784-1842.) An American botanist born of French parents in Constantinople. He wrote many botanical and zoölogical works.

3. "The fall of Troy." The date of this event is placed at 1184 B. C.

4. "Cāl'i-fate." The office or government of the caliphs, the successors of Mohammed, who were at the head of the Moslem state, and were the defenders of that faith. Their different lines continued in power from 632 to 1031.

5. "The fall of Constantinople." This event occurred in 1453 when the Western, or Byzantine, Empire, of which it was the capital, was taken by the Turks.

6. "Leonardo da Vinci" [vin'chee]. (1452-1519.) A Florentine painter.

7. "Strā'tā." The plural form of stratum, a Latin word meaning a layer or bed. "A bed of earth or rock of one kind, formed by natural causes, and consisting usually of a series of layers which form a rock as it lies between beds of other kinds."

8. "Lamarck." See note on page 109 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October.

9. "Darwin," Charles Robert. (1809-1882.) A great English naturalist, the expounder of the development theory of the organic world.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

1. Q. Were the interests of Henry II. as king, bounded by England? A. No, he subordinated England to the interests of his continental domains.

2. Q. What crime blackens the memory of Henry's reign? A. The murder of the archbishop, Thomas Becket.

3. Q. By what works did Henry impress his personality on the national life? A. He destroyed feudalism as a system of government, brought the church under the control of the state, and established a strong centralized administrative system.

4. Q. How was the son and successor of Henry II. known in history? A. As Richard the Lion-hearted, the valiant crusader.

5. Q. How much of his ten years' reign did he spend in England? A. Only a few months.

6. Q. In what channels did the new impulses stirring the life of this time find the freest expression? A. In literature, in the universities, in municipal freedom, and the development of commerce and industry.

7. Q. How does John rank in the line of English kings? A. As the most worthless and vicious.

8. Q. Into what three periods does the reign of John fall? A. The wars with Philip of France; the contest with Rome; and the granting of Magna Charta.

9. Q. What led John to surrender his realm to the pope after having so fearlessly defied him? A. The rising of the barons against him which made it necessary for him to have the pope as an ally.

10. Q. Who, as archbishop of Canterbury, nominated by the pope, became the able leader of the English people in their struggle for freedom? A. Stephen Langton.

11. Q. What is the Magna Charta? A. In form it is a royal grant; in reality it is a formal statement of liberties wrung from the king by the barons; it is the instrument by which freedom was secured, and it overlooked no interest, no class.

12. Q. When and where was this great charter granted? A. June 15, 1215, at Runnymede.

13. Q. What was the condition of the church at the beginning of the thirteenth century? A. Its political power was boundless, but its spiritual influence was almost nothing.

14. Q. What two great orders sprang into existence having for their aim the recalling of the clergy to their proper work? A. The Franciscans and the Dominicans, or the Gray Friars and the Black Friars.

15. Q. How did the orders affect England?

A. They aroused the church to a higher religious life; their sympathies were with the people and they exerted a strong influence on political thought; but they made the intellectual life of the nation narrow and unproductive.

16. Q. How was the reign of Henry III. characterized? A. By misgovernment at home and inefficiency abroad.

17. Q. Who stood forth as the chief opponent of Henry and his misrule? A. Simon de Montfort.

18. Q. How far was the revolt against the king carried? A. To civil war, the barons meeting the king and his French allies in the two battles of Lewes and Evesham.

19. Q. By what step did Montfort gain lasting honor? A. By instituting what was practically the first House of Commons, summoning representatives from every shire and borough to sit in council with the barons and bishops.

20. Q. Who stands out as the first truly national king of England? A. Edward I.

21. Q. Of what country did Edward I. make a conquest? A. Wales.

22. Q. What event in Edward's reign marks a turning point in English history? A. The calling by the king of the first Parliament in which there were representatives from all the people.

23. Q. In what battle did Scotland free herself from the claims of England and gain complete independence? A. Bannockburn.

24. Q. What led to the deposition of King Edward II.? A. The extravagant honor and authority bestowed by him upon his favorites.

25. Q. What war absorbed the energies of Edward III.? A. The war with France, to whose crown he laid claim through his mother Isabel.

26. Q. Who was the hero of these French wars? A. The Black Prince, the oldest son of Edward III.

27. Q. What was the only useful purpose served by the French wars? A. They furnished opportunity for constitutional progress; in order to gain grants from the people the king was forced to surrender many of his prerogatives.

28. Q. After the death of Edward who reigned in England during the minority of Richard II.? A. John of Gaunt.

29. Q. On taking possession of the government what form of authority did Richard II. gradually establish? A. That of absolutism.

30. Q. To what did this assumption lead? A. The trial of the king in full Parliament and his deposition.

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

1. Q. Why are Americans apt to form an inadequate idea of Italy? A. Because they give too much attention to some one phase of the subject to the exclusion of others.

2. Q. How is Italy described? A. As a land of contrasts; a land fertile in great men and in republics; the object of foreign rivalry, and the seat of the papacy.

3. Q. When did the idea of Italian unity become a definite popular aspiration? A. When Napoleon ruled over Italy as a kingdom.

4. Q. How did the Congress of Vienna defeat these national aspirations? A. By parceling out the land again to petty princelings and by refusing to restore the old republics.

5. Q. How did the suppressed liberal thought of the land find means of expression? A. Through the channels of secret revolutionary societies, chief of which was the Carbonari.

6. Q. How did this general uneasiness culminate in 1848? A. In a determined demand for constitutional government.

7. Q. After the insurrection in Vienna and the flight of Metternich what demand was made by Italy? A. That the Austrians be expelled from the land.

8. Q. How did the Italian revolution against Austria, led by Mazzini and Garibaldi, end? A. In complete defeat.

9. Q. Why did it fail? A. For lack of an intelligent policy; it put its trust in rulers and allowed the Austrians to remain in the peninsula.

10. Q. When did a new phase of Italian history begin? A. With the accession of Victor Emmanuel.

11. Q. How are the three great Italian leaders under Victor Emmanuel characterized? A. Mazzini, as the prophet of the revolution; Garibaldi, its knight-errant; Cavour, its statesman.

12. Q. What were the first three steps taken by Sardinia toward the establishment of Italian liberty? A. Its king persisted in maintaining constitutional government; the church was compelled to relax its grasp upon the state; and by intrigue Sardinia entered the Crimean war as the ally of England and France, thus gaining for its troops valuable experience and winning the good will of the two great powers.

13. Q. What was the next step gained in the now statesmanlike movement? A. An alliance, although at bitter sacrifice, was formed with France against Austria, and then the latter country was aggravated to declare war.

14. Q. When the Austrians were defeated what demand was made by the different divisions of Italy which was more than Napoleon had bargained for? A. Immediate union with Sardinia.

15. Q. During the complications that followed what brilliant movement was made by Garibaldi? A. He organized an expedition which entered and freed Sicily and Naples; then Victor Emmanuel reduced the papal territory and the two forces united and drove the last of the Bourbons from Italy.

16. Q. When and where did the king of Italy meet the first national legislature? A. At Turin, February 18, 1861.

17. Q. When and how were Venetia and Rome gained to the Italian kingdom? A. In 1866 Italy joined Prussia as an ally against Austria and as a reward received Venetia; in 1870 France needing all of her troops in her struggle with Germany, withdrew her garrison from Rome, and Italy seizing her opportunity attacked and conquered the papal troops and gained the Eternal City.

18. Q. What arrangements were made after this victory? A. The capital was moved to Rome; the spiritual power of the pope was recognized but his temporal power denied; and a revenue of \$645,000 provided for him from the Italian treasury, which, however, he has never touched.

19. Q. What is Italy's condition to-day? A. It is a free and united kingdom bound together by common blood, common language, and common institutions.

20. Q. What lasting purpose did the seemingly futile French revolution of 1848 serve? A. It pointed the way to the future reconstruction of Europe.

21. Q. Why did it fail? A. For lack of definite leadership and adequate organization.

22. Q. How did the *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon affect France? A. It changed the second republic into the second empire.

23. Q. How did Napoleon III., out of revenge, emphasize the thought that he was at the head of a democratic empire? A. By contracting a marriage alliance with the beautiful Spanish Eugénie, who had no royal blood in her veins.

24. Q. How did he seek to divert the attention of the French people from his despotic rule? A. By a successful foreign policy, and accordingly he took the side of Great Britain in the Crimean war and the side of Italy in the Austrian war.

25. Q. How did the United States interfere with Napoleon's scheme of uniting all the Latin races under the lead of France? A. By notifying him that it would be advisable to withdraw his troops from Mexico, where he had established Maximilian as emperor.

26. Q. When did the second empire collapse? A. In 1870 at the battle of Sedan in the war waged by Prussia against France.

27. Q. What form of government succeeded? A. A republic with Thiers, an Orleanist, as its president.

28. Q. Who succeeded Thiers in a few months? A. Marshal MacMahon, a Royalist, who was elected for seven years.
29. Q. When did the Republicans under the leadership of Gambetta secure a majority in the senate and elect Jules Grévy president? A. In January, 1879.
30. Q. What have been the leading events in French history since that time? A. The expulsion of the Jesuits; the expulsion of the princes; the administrative scandals which led to the resignation of Grévy; the election of President Carnot [and his assassination]; the Panama Canal scandals.
31. Q. How only did logic foreshow that the unification of the German nation could be brought about? A. Under the lead of Prussia.
32. Q. What was the first step taken by King William I. which tended to bring about German unity? A. The summoning of Bismarck as the head of his cabinet.
33. Q. What two movements in the wily diplomacy of Bismarck led up to the North German Federation? A. The dismemberment of the Danish kingdom and the forcing of Austria out of German affairs by means of war.
34. Q. What afforded the South German states an opportunity of joining this Federation? A. The war with France declared in 1870.
35. Q. When was the German federal empire, consisting of twenty-five states, established as the result of Bismarck's policy of "blood and iron"? A. In 1871.
36. Q. How is the German army described? A. As being since 1870 the standard of the military profession for the world.
37. Q. What contrast is presented between old and new Austria? A. Under Metternich Austria was in the forefront of European conservatism and absolutism; now it is one of the most liberal countries on the continent.
38. Q. How is the Austro-Hungarian monarchy politically organized? A. It is a dual federation with a single government for common purposes and separate governments for local purposes.
39. Q. What has always been a source of trouble in this monarchy? A. The mutual jealousies and antagonisms existing among the various races composing it.
40. Q. What other question makes problematical the future of this empire? A. That of Pan-Slavism.
41. Q. Whose creation is the Triple Alliance; when was it formed; and what nations compose it? A. Bismarck's; Germany and Austria effected an alliance in 1879; and in 1881 Italy joined them.
42. Q. What vital difference appears between the development of continental Europe and that of Great Britain? A. The former was reconstructed by means of war; the latter, without bloodshed, by means of constitutional action.
43. Q. How is England now governed? A. By a democratic parliament.
44. Q. What were the "pocket boroughs" and the "rotten boroughs"? A. Old parliamentary boroughs which had dwindled until they were nearly or quite depopulated, and boroughs which were sold to the highest bidders by clubs.
45. Q. What was the first government Reform Bill which became a law in England? A. The third one introduced, and which was passed in 1832.
46. Q. What was the result of this Reform Act? A. Political power was transferred from the upper to the middle classes.
47. Q. With what does the reconstruction of English political parties date? A. With the first Parliament under the Reform Act, in which William E. Gladstone took his seat.
48. Q. What was the aim of the Chartists? A. The enfranchisement of the masses.
49. Q. What two acts have virtually rooted bribery out of English politics? A. The one insuring practical secrecy in voting, and the one punishing the buying of votes.
50. Q. How is the House of Lords characterized? A. As a mediæval institution which seems to Americans like a grotesque anachronism.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—II.

1. What is literature?
2. What civilized nation can boast of the oldest literature?
3. Who was the first English poet?
4. What is the most important specimen of primitive English literature extant?
5. Who is known as the father of English poetry, and what is his principal work?
6. How did Chaucer's "stanza" receive the name of Rime Royal?
7. Who was the earliest writer of English prose, and what his chief work?
8. By what name is John Wyclif known in English history and literature?
9. What English writer first used blank verse?
10. In what did English blank verse reach perfection?

WOMAN'S WORLD.—II.

1. By whom was it said of Cornelia, who gave public lectures in Rome, "Cornelia, had she not been a woman, would have deserved the first place among philosophers"?
2. Who was the first woman known by name who wrote German verse?
3. Who was the first American woman to follow literature as a profession?
4. What African woman while still the slave of an American had a volume of poems published in London?
5. By whom, where, and when was written the "Battle Hymn of the Republic"?
6. Aside from the effect it had in promoting the abolition of slavery, what victory did "Uncle Tom's Cabin" score for women?
7. Who was the author of "Evelina," of which Lord Macaulay said it "was the first tale written by a woman, and purporting to be a picture of life and manners, that lived, or deserved to live"?
8. Who was the most gifted and best trained of all the female writers of the earlier part of the nineteenth century?
9. What eminent Scottish astronomer and scientific writer, 1780-1872, was elected an honorary member of the Royal Astronomical Society and received a pension of £300 a year in acknowledgment of her valuable services to science?
10. Who is noted as the best English poetess?

ART.—II.

1. When did painting in Greece begin to assume a national character and to be practiced as an independent art?
2. Where did the Greeks chiefly find the subjects represented in their paintings?
3. Who is mentioned as the first master in Greek painting?
4. Of what two painters of the Ionic school is it told that on a wager as to which one could imitate nature most closely, the one painted grapes so perfectly that birds came and pecked at them, and the other, a curtain so exactly that his rival asked him to draw it aside and display his picture?
5. What story of Apelles, the most celebrated of Greek painters, gave rise to the expression, "Let not the cobbler go beyond his last"?
6. Who succeeded in painting a portrait of Alexander in so satisfactory a manner that he himself exclaimed there were two Alexanders—the unconquered son of Philip and the inimitable one of the picture?
7. What Greek artist acquired the name of the "painter of shadows"?
8. How is Zeuxis said to have met his death?
9. The first painted Greek vases were imported into Italy in very early times, where many of them

have in modern years been discovered; by what name are they now wrongly known, having taken it from the place of discovery?

10. Upon what did the Greeks paint their pictures; and what were the colors chiefly used?

CURRENT EVENTS.—II.

1. Where is the sugar-growing district in Louisiana?
2. When was the sugar industry in the United States first fostered by a protective tariff?
3. To the invention of what instrument for the use of oculists was Helmholtz led by reflecting on the fact that while it is impossible to see clearly into a room in daylight from the other side of the street, it can be done at night when the room is illuminated?
4. What is the origin of the term lynch law?
5. What is the most daring of all the recent irrigation schemes advanced?
6. What work touching the United States was written in the French language by the late Comte de Paris?
7. What action was taken by the New York State Constitutional Convention regarding prison contract labor?
8. What is said to have led to the revolution in Corea which gave rise to the Chino-Japanese war?
9. Who is known in Corea as the Tai Wan Kun?
10. Why was Li Hung Chang, the noted Chinese viceroy, recently deprived of the emperor of his yellow jacket of honor?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR OCTOBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—I.

1. Chroniclers. 2. Henry Thomas Buckle's "History of Civilization in England." 3. Sir Walter Scott. 4. Sir Walter Raleigh. 5. Thomas Babington Macaulay, whose great work has been compared to a vast painting in which the different figures correspond to prominent historic characters. 6. Thomas Carlyle, whose "French Revolution," published in 1837, is the first of his works to which his name was attached. 7. Mark Twain's, "The Prince and Pauper." 8. Charles Dickens. 9. His "History of John Bull," pronounced by Macaulay "the most ingenious and humorous political satire extant in our language." 10. "Wealth of Nations," by Adam Smith, who maintains that labor rather than money or land is the true source of a national wealth.

WOMAN'S WORLD.—I.

1. 232 years. 2. There women were admitted and had been for centuries, both as students and professors. 3. At Bethlehem, Pa., in 1749, by the "Moravian Brethren." 4. Mrs. Emma Hart Willard;

New York. 5. Barnard College, whose instruction and degrees are given by the Faculty of Columbia College, New York City. 6. The western states and territories. 7. Mrs. Lincoln-Phelps (*née* Almira Hart), Mrs. Emma Hart Willard, and Maria Mitchell. 8. Oberlin. 9. Queen's College, in London. 10. Miss Emily Davies.

ART.—I.

1. The root conveys the meaning of jointed, fitted, skillfully fastened together. The Latin noun *ars* means skill in joining or producing any material form. 2. *Relief* denotes that management of light and shade which makes a figure stand out from the background; *perspective* means the representing of objects as they are affected by distance and the atmosphere as they appear to the eye. 3. It stands for *pinxit*, a Latin verb meaning (he) painted (it). 4. Shape, size, light and shadow, local color, and texture. 5. To make painting serve the purpose of

writing and convey impressions to the mind. 6. They were commemorative in their nature. 7. Four thousand years. 8. Those of Beni Hassan. 9. The fate of the soul after death, and also scenes from daily life. 10. The Assyrians.

CURRENT EVENTS.—I.

1. It is said to have come from Tarifa, a town of Spain, which during the Moorish domination compelled all vessels passing through the Straits of Gibraltar to pay duties. 2. July 4, 1789. 3. In 1816. 4. The tariff act passed 1828 whose high duties raised an angry storm in the South. 5. That relating to works of art. 6. Over every inch of the soil and over every individual citizen. 7. The survivors of the Taiping Rebellion. 8. That prohibiting the publication by any paper of any part of the proceedings in a case involving anarchists. 9. That of "correctional tribunals" composed of magistrates appointed by the government. 10. In 1880.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1898.

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."
"The truth shall make you free."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. F. Crafts, Pittsburg, Pa.
Vice Presidents—Prof. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.; the Rev. J. B. Morton, Winter Park, Fla.; Mrs. Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.; George P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.; Robert A. Miller, Canton, O.; Mrs. H. S. Hawes, Richmond, Va.
Recording Secretary—Miss Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.
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Treasurer—R. M. Alden, 625 Maryland Avenue, Washington, D. C.

Trustee—George Hukill, Oil City, Pa.
Historian—Miss Janette Trowbridge, New Haven, Conn.
CLASS FLOWER—GERANIUM.

A PHYSICIAN in Philadelphia, a member of the Class of '95, writes that of their little company of readers for the past few years, one is about to graduate from a training school for nurses and with her medical examinations and other duties has not quite completed the year's work but expects to do so before the first of October. She says: "In the winter of '93 we had a circle that met at my office. One member who was in private nursing found it impossible to continue on account of such frequent and prolonged interruptions. Two young men also read with us. In the case of one of them the C.L.S.C. was an incentive to further study, and he joined a night school of stenography. Besides this work he has been the means of keeping younger children in the family at school, so that one sister aspires to be a teacher." Our correspondent adds: "I am delighted with the reading; it keeps out worrying and

anxious thoughts about my patients during leisure hours, and tends to broaden my views."

ONE of the members of the Class of '95 is a young Japanese student who has been for some years at Wilson College, Pa. She had intended to return to Japan, this year, but writes in a recent letter: "Since I had the good fortune of winning a fellowship in the Graduate Department for Women at the University of Pennsylvania, I shall remain in this grand country another year. I spent about three weeks at the Mt. Gretna Chautauqua, and had the pleasure of meeting and hearing the father of Chautauqua, Bishop Vincent. I hope to visit Chautauqua next summer and pass the golden gate."

CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

"Truth is eternal."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. Chas. C. Johnson, Arcade, N. Y.
Vice Presidents—R. C. Browning, Orange, N. J.; Mrs. Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Cynthia I. Boyd, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna Hodgson, Athens, Ga.; F. G. Lewis, Manitoba; Oliver Ellsworth, Niles, Cal.; Mrs. Wheaton Smith, Detroit, Mich.
Corresponding Secretary—Miss Anna J. Young, 237 Wylie Ave., Pittsburg, Pa.
Recording Secretary—Miss Grace G. Merritt, Montclair, N. J.
Treasurer and Class Trustee—John A. Seaton, Glen Park Place, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

A MEMBER from Missouri writes: "I have just finished my memoranda for the Roman Year and

cannot half express how much the reading has done for me. I feel encouraged to take up the Garnet Seal Course."

A TEACHER in a busy western city writes: "I mail with this all memoranda on the last two years' C. L. S. C. work. I was late in beginning the first year, so did not get the reading finished until the beginning of this year. Our school work takes a great deal of time, but I have always made time to do the required readings. I never enjoyed anything else so much as the C. L. S. C. work."

CLASS OF 1897—"THE ROMANS."

OFFICERS.

President—Prof. F. J. Miller, University of Chicago.

Vice Presidents—Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss. ; Mrs. M. T. Gawthrop, Swarthmore, Pa.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, O.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; the Rev. James E. Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, South Wales; Charles E. Boyd, Cambridge, Mass.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Dayton, O.

Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Meadville, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

A CALIFORNIAN member of '97 reports the completion of the first year's work. She has all the enthusiasm of one who has run her first year's race successfully. She writes to say: "That I am delighted with the year's work only feebly expresses it. You can tell by the way I have answered the questions that I have been reading alone. This is my first year, and not having the benefit of the experience and the opinions of others, it has been more laborious than it otherwise would have been. I know I shall have a pleasanter year of it in '95, for I have learned better how to economize both time and labor. I hope to join a circle for the coming year."

ONE of our classmates is evidently determined to do his part in adding to the Class of '98. He writes, "I am a Roman of '97. I am in a town of about twelve hundred inhabitants and think that I can work up quite a local circle. Will you kindly send circulars at once."

CLASS OF 1898—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Walter L. Hervey, New York City.

Vice Presidents—Clifford Lanier, Montgomery, Ala.; Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.; Dr. Richard T. Ely, Madison, Wis.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York City; the Rev. Mr. Parker, New Orleans, La.; Miss J. Solomon, South Africa; Miss Eliot Henderson, Montreal, Can.; the Rev. Mr. Chalfont, China; Dr. J. E. Williams, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Josephine R. Webber, Waltham, Mass.; Dr. J. W. Hartigan, Morgantown, W. Va.

Treasurer and Trustee—The Rev. Mr. Whistler, Kenton, O.
Secretary—Miss Elizabeth Brown, Janesville, Wis.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

MUCH zeal on the part of the county secretaries, of whom a large number are already at work, prom-

ises well for the membership of '98. The Chautauqua Office at Buffalo is in daily receipt of letters from all parts of the country from persons proposing to organize circles. A county secretary in Minnesota brought the C. L. S. C. work before the attention of a summer school of about a hundred teachers. Another, in Illinois, arranged for a rally at Evanston, where Bishop Vincent addressed a large gathering. The Chautauquans of Chicago under the leadership of the city secretary, who has been president for many years of Outlook Circle of the Third Presbyterian church, arranged for a large meeting in the First Methodist church on September 10. Bishop Vincent addressed the audience, and the meeting was full of interest. A circle at Reading, Pa., has taken the oversight of the work for its county, and a public meeting held in the summer was the first step in the direction of aggressive county work.

A CLUB of young men in Montreal proposes to join the Class of '98. All are graduates of the Montreal Senior School and feel that by uniting they will be able to help each other and accomplish better work.

A NEW plan was devised at Chautauqua this summer by means of which any pastor interested in the C. L. S. C. can hold a Chautauqua vesper service and make it a means of introducing the C. L. S. C. work. The Chautauqua Office at Buffalo has prepared a special vesper service, which will be furnished free in any quantity desired to any church or association wishing to hold such a service. Specimen copies will be sent upon application.

THE enrollment of the Class of '98 has already reached a thousand members. The new field secretary, the Rev. George M. Brown, started on his western trip September 13. He will travel through Michigan, Wisconsin, Illinois, and Indiana.

FURTHER reports from the South show a great degree of interest in the new class, "The Laniers." They express hearty appreciation of the action of the class gathered at Chautauqua in selecting the name suggested.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

ONE of the most important special courses offered to graduates this year follows a somewhat new plan. Readers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN will notice the new and important department known as *Current History and Opinion*. This will occupy a considerable number of pages in each issue of the magazine. The importance of the study of current history is considered so great that the officers of the C. L. S. C. decided to offer a seal to every graduate who reads carefully during the year the pages devoted to current history in each number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, and, in connection with these, gives

careful study to the new book on the required course, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," by Professor Judson. It is desired to emphasize the study of current history, and to encourage graduates to keep up this work in addition to any other special course of work which they may be taking. A twelve page paper will be furnished to all who pay the fifty cent fee for this course. This paper will contain a certain number of questions on Professor Judson's book, and blank spaces on which the student will be expected to write nine brief essays on subjects studied in the department of *Current History and Opinion* of THE CHAUTAUQUAN during the year. It is hoped that every graduate will decide to take up this special course, even though other courses also claim attention. The importance of careful and intelligent study of great questions of the present day cannot be too strongly urged. This new course is designed to aid busy people and especially graduates of the C.L.S.C. in keeping abreast of the times.

AMONG the Special Courses offered for graduates during the coming year, special attention is called to the courses in Art History and the Philosophy of Art History. Also to the three years' course in English History and Literature and to the two years' course in American History.

ONE of the most interesting and attractive of the C. L. S. C. Special Courses is that on Shakespeare, the suggestions and memoranda for which were prepared by Professor W. D. McClintock of the University of Chicago.

A NEW course in Sociology is in contemplation for the coming year, and will be ready for the use of Chautauqua students by the first of December. As this subject is one of great interest at the present

time, this new course will be welcomed with great enthusiasm.

SINCE last month's issue, the names of some new officers have been sent for the Class of '94. The following is the corrected list:

CLASS OF 1894.—"THE PHILOMATHEANS."

"Ubi mel, ibi apes."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. A. C. Ellis, D.D., Oil City.

Vice Presidents—The Rev. D. A. Cunningham, D.D., Wheeling, W. Va.; the Rev. E. D. Ledyard, D.D., Steubenville, O.; the Rev. L. A. Banks, D.D., Brooklyn, N. Y.; J. A. Moore, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. G. H. Bunnell, New Haven, Conn.; Miss Carrie S. Hamill, Keokuk, Ia.; Mrs. A. G. Brice, Chester, S. C.; the Rev. Dr. Livingston, Toronto, Canada; the Rev. J. W. Lee, D.D., St. Louis, Mo.; Mrs. J. A. Leyenberger, Cheefoo, China; the Rev. J. A. Cosby, Aurora, Ill.

Recording Secretary—The Rev. J. B. Countryman, Akron, N. Y.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Anna M. Thomson, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Treasurer—Henry M. Hall, Titusville, Pa.

Class Trustee—W. T. Everson, Union City, Pa.

Class Poet—W. W. Phelan, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Class Historian—Miss Margaret F. Lee, Holliday's Cove, W. Va.

CLASS FLOWER—CLOVER.

FROM IOWA: "Though I have enjoyed the Chautauqua work very much and have received great benefit from it I have been obliged to give it up until after the close of school. I found it very hard to keep up the readings and do my school work too; but not once during the four years have I been tempted to give up the readings."

FROM MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.: "Chautauqua has been to me as to many a '94, a great blessing. Last year I took the Literature and Ancient Art Courses, and found my Chautauqua training of inestimable profit to me."

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

OTTO VON BISMARCK DAY—November 19.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

JOHN WYCLIF DAY—December 10.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

NEW CIRCLES.

MASSACHUSETTS.—One Sunday in August a delightful outdoor five o'clock vesper service was held at East Boston Station. A good audience graced the occasion, including members of various classes

of the C. L. S. C. A number of prominent Chautauqua leaders were represented by their pictures. The minister conducted the meeting and made an eloquent speech on the value of home study and the uplifting influence of the C. L. S. C. The respon-

sive readings and songs were heartily rendered by all present. There is prospect of a fine circle here.

NEW YORK.—Williams Bridge has a class of eight members.—There is a circle at Babylon.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The class at Brockwayville has for some time intended to join the Central Circle. Its leader is a busy pastor whose duties to the class have been interrupted by a long and successful series of revival meetings, but the class members kept up their C. L. S. C. zeal though not their meetings and now as a circle are again in good working order.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—On the evening of September 6, a meeting was held at Yorkville for the organization of an additional Chautauqua circle. Officers were elected and a committee appointed to draft a suitable constitution and by-laws for the circle, to be submitted at some future meeting. Westbrook C. L. S. C. is the name chosen. At a later session the constitution and by-laws were adopted and the first Friday night in October appointed for the first of the regular weekly meetings. The circle is limited to twenty-one members. It starts out with twenty charter members and several applicants for vacancies.

ILLINOIS.—A class at Manix is taking vigorous steps toward success. In August it had elected officers. It then had eight members and a hope of three more before October.

IOWA.—Eleven persons constitute the S. I. O. Circle of Des Moines, organized September 15, 1893, in connection with Grace Church Epworth League. —Some members of the C. L. S. C. at Colfax during the year fell behind with their work. Instead of giving up in despair they formed a separate circle which they call the Arrears and vigorously went to work. They have so well lived up to their motto, "Redeeming the time," as to be about ready for the new year's work.

KANSAS.—One of the first circles to report a considerable membership for the Class of '98 is that of Independence, which sends eight names for enrollment.

MONTANA.—"Away off here in the interior of Montana, more than one hundred miles from the railroad, the flames of Chautauqua enthusiasm are bright," is the news from Lewistown. The secretary continues: "We report a new circle in our little town—the first in this part of the country. There have been several individual readers for four years but no attempt had been made to form a circle. The first of February six of us—married women and housekeepers all—organized a circle. The Grecian year was unfinished so we devoted our time and energies to it"; and to good purpose it would seem, for in April they had finished it, nearly all having sent in their memoranda. They began immediately the work of the Roman year, applying themselves faithfully with the expectation of being

ready to commence the fall work on time. Others have become interested and at the time of writing there was prospect that the membership would reach a dozen for the new year. The circle meets weekly as the Thursday Club.

REORGANIZED CIRCLES.

MASSACHUSETTS.—A circle of sixteen members was organized October, 1893, in connection with the Epworth League of the Prospect Street M. E. Church, Gloucester. It is called Mother Ann Circle, for a huge cliff on the shore of Cape Ann. Its weekly meetings, held at the homes of various members, are very lively. The circle is divided into two divisions, of which the one having the greatest number of points at the close of the season for attendance, questions, quotations, articles, etc., is given an evening's entertainment by the other division.—The following letter comes from Samoset Circle of Warren Avenue Baptist church, Boston, which has just completed its fourth year of C. L. S. C. work: "Meetings are held on the first and third Wednesday evenings of the month. The program is prepared by a committee of two, previously appointed. This year we have met from house to house but find that we are unable to accomplish as much good work as when we met in one stated place each time. We have twenty-three names on our list with an average attendance of seventeen. Whatever degree of prosperity has been reached by us is largely due to the enthusiasm and skillful direction of our president. We hope to begin a new year in September with a larger number and even greater interest in the reading."—The circle at Jamaica begins its eighth year with the same president and many others who have been in the class from the organization of the circle.—Onondaga is the name adopted by a class at Syracuse.

NEW JERSEY.—The C. L. S. C. of Central M. E. church at Bridgeton is a thriving organization. It has a large constituent of the class of '92, at one of whose banquets every article of the menu was quoted in geological terms, the interpretation of which caused considerable merriment. On this occasion, after the banquet the alumni assembled in the parlor and were photographed. The annual banquet of the whole Central Circle was one of those happy events well calculated to carry over a long vacation enthusiasm for the Chautauqua cause.—A class of seven reports from Deckertown.

PENNSYLVANIA.—In a letter from Keystone C. L. S. C. of White Haven, the avowal that the reading of the past four years has been a source of great pleasure and profit to the circle's members, may perhaps find its explanation in the sentence in the same letter: "We have more than read our books, we have studied them." The secretary of this circle is a home-keeper, the others teachers, and

it has cost them an effort to do the work of the past four years, but they have held meetings every two weeks, regularly, reviewing all work and discussing topics connected with the readings.—The circle at Bethlehem sends a sample of its general programs, which speaks well indeed for its meetings. According to this sample, "roll-call must be responded to by original Chautauqua chips" and there were refreshments, though the latter usually are served only on special occasions. This circle's prospects are favorable for a large and interested class.

DELAWARE.—There is a thriving class known as the Longfellow C. L. S. C. at Wilmington. It began the year 1893-4 with eight members, and closed it with ten. Meetings, of a most interesting character, are held weekly, the first one every month being devoted to the social element of the circle. The entire circle attended the lecture given in Wilmington by Bishop Vincent in the spring, at which also many Chautauquans from Townsend were present.

MARYLAND.—Punctuality at the weekly meetings is one of the virtues of Choptauk's of Denton.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—On September 3, of this, its sixth year, White Rose C. L. S. C. of Yorkville held its usual preliminary meeting for reorganization. Officers were elected, also new members to fill the few vacancies in the ranks of the circle. The president of the Baptist High School kindly offered the circle the free use of the school library, with its more than one thousand five hundred volumes and several periodicals, a favor which elicited hearty thanks from all concerned. A successful movement was made to organize another circle composed entirely of new members, as the White Rose C. L. S. C. membership had almost reached the limit prescribed.

ARKANSAS.—Kali-Inla Circle of Fort Smith reports activity.

TEXAS.—The secretary at Greenville records "a flourishing circle of thirty-five members, with nine names on the secretary's book awaiting vacancies, and a number of others who would like to take the course." If no leader appears to organize these aspirants into a rival circle, it might be a good plan for the established circle to select from its own number a committee each of whose members in turn could spare one night to conduct the infant circle.

OHIO.—The circle at Defiance "is in a flourishing condition, with sixteen good earnest workers. The meetings, which are very interesting and pleasant, are held bi-weekly at the homes of the members."—Twelve '94's of the Bellaire C. L. S. C., not all of whom graduated, have organized a class to review the four histories, Grecian, Roman, English, and American, in order of time. Arrangements have been made to receive a few other members. The old circle has filled the vacancies left by these twelve and is ready for the English year with forty members.

WISCONSIN.—Delta C. L. S. C. of Milwaukee, a

circle of '94's, celebrated its graduating exercises and banquet with charming and elaborate ceremonies.

MINNESOTA.—The victorious faction of the circle at Crookston, while proud of its conquest in the trial for honors, acknowledges that it has all the more cause for self-congratulation, because of the valiancy with which the other faction acquitted itself.

IOWA.—Vesta Circle at Newton, and the '95's at Osceola are prospering.—Frances E. Willard Circle of LeClaire, though diminished in number, has done faithful work during the past year, and knows that "a true seeker after self-culture will soon learn that mind has power to overcome material obstacles."—The seven graduates of the class at Dubuque wisely are continuing their studies. They meet with many others every two weeks in a class known as the Monday Afternoon Club, for the study of English poets.—Colfax Chautauqua Circle belongs to the Class of '96. Composed of fifteen members, it meets once a week and follows closely *The Lesson* as outlined in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. It has been happily entertained by frequent lectures on Roman and Greek history by a cultured woman who is now on her fifth trip to Europe. The circle members are enthusiastic and persistent. Several who fell behind with their lessons plucked up courage and organized themselves into a circle, which they call the Arrears, for the purpose of catching up with the work.—The five alumni of Manchester Circle held a reception September 14, for new members. The officers and committee in charge departed from their usual order, and "instead of giving a sumptuous banquet—the pleasure of a fleeting moment—they substituted therefor light refreshments and used the funds for securing to the class a memento which would afford lasting enjoyment." Therefore the Alumni Society presented to the whole circle a neat and suitable banner, to be displayed on memorial days and other momentous occasions. A '92 member of this circle, Mrs. Caroline J. Friend, in an address at the reception, says of the study of history:

"As down the ages thus you glide
With Clio ever at your side,
You see proud nations rise and fall,
O'er-spread, as by a dusky pall;
While from the ashes of the lost
Come, phoenix-like, a grander host."

The following lines are also from Mrs. Friend's pen:

"Chautauqua! Magic word—to set ajar
The portal, decked with Wisdom's pearly gem,
O'erhung with lintel, glim'ring like a star,
Guiding, as did the one at Bethlehem,
Toward priceless treasures, which all ages gone
Have stored, with lavish hand, for those to come.
Within these fields of thought, the hungry mind
May banquet day by day, and long for more;
And here the weary, heavy-laden find
A resting place, their courage to restore;
The tempest-tossed may seek an hour of calm,
And those who're broken hearted, healing balm."

THE SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1894.

ACTON PARK, At the Acton Park Assembly, **INDIANA.** on Recognition Day, the president, Mrs. Fannie L. Gatch, and the Rev. G. Cochran, gave the addresses. One graduate was present to take a diploma. The Round Table meetings were conducted by Mrs. Gatch. Several persons were invited to give talks on various phases of the C. L. S. C. work.

The Rev. G. L. Curtiss was the superintendent of instruction.

ALABAMA, The first session of the Alabama Assembly was one **SHELBY SPRINGS,** which held twenty days, and

ALABAMA. which held twenty days, and if it be the earnest of many yet to come then this state will be blessed through her Chautauqua's mission. Here truly was exemplified the motto, "Let us keep the Heavenly Father in the midst."

To the Rev. S. P. West, the superintendent, is due the credit of the splendid work. He was ably assisted by the best of Alabama's patriotic and scholarly men and women. Where so many noble sons and daughters of the state contributed to the success of the work it would be impossible to decide who is most deserving of grateful thanks. John Temple Graves added new laurels to his fame, and Clifford Lanier—well, it is not necessary to speak in his favor—the fact that his visit to the Alabama Assembly led to the selection of the name and motto and class flower of the Chautauquans of '98, is proof that this poet and patriot gave great pleasure to Chautauquans in his work at the Assembly. All C. L. S. C. readers, everywhere, may congratulate themselves that the Alabama Assembly gives to them Clifford A. Lanier as vice president for the South this year.

The C. L. S. C. Round Tables at this Assembly were under the direction of the secretary for the South, and were much enjoyed. Class work of every line was regularly conducted. Recognition Day was observed—two "Pioneers" were in the procession, two graduates of '86, and a number of others. One diploma was awarded.

The orchestra under the direction of Prof. Joseph, contributed much to the pleasure of the season. The elocutionists, the Misses Brown and Frazer, contributed much to the success.

ATLANTA, Mr. F. B. Shepherd was business **GEORGIA.** manager of the Atlanta Chautauqua, and made up the program. The Rev. C. P. Williamson acted as platform superintendent.

Many old Chautauqua friends met here again. Jahu De Witt Miller was the favorite of the summer, and Prof. W. H. Dana was most cordially greeted each

day of the entire session. Dr. Williamson conducted most efficiently and successfully a Sunday school normal class which resulted in lasting good. This with the C. L. S. C. Round Table, conducted by Dr. A. R. Holderby, assisted by Miss Love and Miss Massey, constituted the course of instruction. There were no schools in connection with the Assembly, but a widespread interest in the C. L. S. C. grew out of the Round Table exercises. At one of these a memorial service, where tender thought prevailed, was held for the sake of the pioneer in southern Chautauqua work, Dr. A. H. Gillet.

CENTRAL NEW YORK, At the Central New **TULLY LAKE,** York Assembly the **NEW YORK.** regular Round Table

meetings were conducted by Mrs. D. F. Hughson. The customary exercises of Recognition Day were observed. Dr. Bernard Bigsby delivered the chief address. Four graduates received diplomas, and twenty members joined the new Class of '98.

The president, T. H. Armstrong, served also as superintendent of instruction. The attendance is reported as about double that of last year.

The lecturers were Jahu DeWitt Miller, Col. L. F. Copeland, John H. Hector, the Rev. Anna Shaw, the Hon. R. G. Horr, the Hon. M. D. Harter, the Hon. F. M. Acherson, Charles Evans, Col. T. White.

CLARION, An unusually full program, **PENNSYLVANIA.** beginning with a sunrise chorus at five o'clock a. m. and ending with a feast of lanterns at nine o'clock p. m., marked Recognition Day at the Clarion Assembly. Between these two exercises there came the rally, the C. L. S. C. address, delivered by Dr. A. J. Merchant, the platform meeting, vesper service, band concert, and echo song. There were two graduates present and a promising new class was formed. Good work was done at the Round Tables.

At the head of the normal department was the Rev. C. C. Hunt; of the itinerants' club, the Rev. W. P. Graham, Epworth League, the Rev. J. C. Gillette; children's department, Mrs. A. M. Rice; C. L. S. C., the Rev. W. H. Bunce. The president and superintendent is the Rev. F. H. Beck.

Leading speakers were Prof. J. W. Van der Venter, D. N. Luccock, Dr. S. F. Upham, the Hon. N. K. Griggs, Dr. J. Morrow, Dr. A. A. Wright, Dr. A. R. Rich, Dr. R. M. Warren.

EASTERN MAINE, The second session of the **NORTHPORT,** Eastern Maine Assembly, **MAINE.** continuing from August 13

to 17, was a very encouraging one in attendance, in results, and in all other respects. The president and

superintendent is the Rev. George D. Lindsay.

In the educational line there were departments of Sunday school normal work,—advanced and primary,—of music, of physical culture, and of cooking, all well conducted.

Among the speakers were Dr. A. Dalton, Dr. R. S. MacArthur, Dr. G. D. Field, Frank R. Roberson.

At the Round Tables a vigorous effort was made to enlist new Chautauquans and to encourage the old Chautauquans to persevere in reading the seal course. Seven graduates appeared on Recognition Day; Dr. MacArthur was the speaker of the occasion. A new Class of '98 was organized.

HEDDING, The four weeks' session of **NEW HAMPSHIRE.** the Hedding Assembly, held July 23–August 18, proved a very delightful and profitable occasion. The leading officers were Pres. W. Ramsden and Supt. O. S. Baketel.

The summer school was very successful. The Sunday school normal was in charge of the superintendent; vocal music, Mrs. N. B. Mitchell; art, Mrs. L. Bates; physical culture, Miss W. Ball.

On Recognition Day only two graduates were present. The Rev. O. S. Baketel gave the address. A number of persons joined the Class of '98. Round Tables were held regularly during the session.

G. A. R. and Grange Day drew many people and were interesting events. One great attraction of the Assembly was the orchestra led by Mr. W. E. Thomas.

Among the speakers were Hezekiah Butterworth, the Rev. T. B. Johnson, Prof. Le Roy Griffin, the Rev. W. E. Bates, the Rev. C. M. Melden, Dr. G. M. Steele, Prof. Ford, the Rev. J. D. Segro, Dr. Severance.

IOWA, The great railroad strike so interfered **COLFAX,** with traveling facilities that the executive committee of the Iowa Assembly, on July 6, declared all engagements cancelled for the present year. At the annual meeting of the trustees, held in August, the officers of the Assembly were re-elected, the president being the Hon. H. S. Winslow and superintendent, the Rev. J. J. Mitchell. The financial reports were of an encouraging character and the board was unanimous in the purpose of pushing the work of the Assembly to success the next year.

ISLAND PARK, At the Island Park Assembly **INDIANA.** the C. L. S. C. department was conducted by the superintendent of instruction, Dr. N. B. C. Love. At the Round Table meetings topics connected with the year's readings were discussed. On Recognition Day diplomas were conferred on eight graduates. The Hon. B. W. Wattermire gave the address.

The regular departments of educational work were opened during the session and resulted in much good

for all in attendance. The president was the Rev. L. J. Nalzger.

The speakers were Chaplain McCabe, G. W. Geddings, Dr. C. N. Cate, Dr. A. Mahin, the Hon. J. W. Watson, the Hon. A. B. Hunt, H. S. Griggs, Ross Ghering.

LAKESIDE, Pres. J. S. Oram and Supt. B. T. **OHIO.** Vincent are at the head of the management of the Lakeside Assembly. The recent successful session, held July 13–August 7, at which the attendance was reported as nearly equal to that of the best of years, is cause for congratulation to all interested.

All the department work was conducted as announced in the program and both instructors and pupils rejoiced over the results attained.

On Recognition Day Supt. B. T. Vincent presented sixteen graduates with diplomas, and B. W. Wattermire made the address. Eight persons applied for admission to the new Class of '98, and many more were favorably considering the matter. At the Round Table meetings good work was done for the cause.

Among the speakers were Chaplain McCabe, Pres. W. H. Crawford, Bishop J. M. Thoburn, Frank R. Roberson, the Rev. C. N. Cate, Prof. L. C. Elson, Mrs. E. H. Miller, Wallace Bruce, Dr. J. D. Potts, the Rev. E. L. Eaton, H. S. Renton, Dr. D. H. Moore, P. M. Reese, Dr. J. Pearson.

MONONA LAKE, The fifteenth annual session **WISCONSIN.** of Monona Lake Assembly, held July 24–August 3, was most successful. The presence of Miss Kate Kimball was a great inspiration to Chautauquans. She presided at the Round Tables, and led in discussion of the various topics presented. The meetings were enlivened by talks from Prof. J. C. Freeman, Mrs. W. F. Crafts, Prof. H. H. Boyesen, and others.

The Recognition Day address was made by Dr. W. H. Crawford, after which Miss Kimball distributed diplomas to ten graduates. Forty registered for the Class of '98, and many who had fallen out, renewed their membership. A reception to Assembly officers, alumni, and speakers was given in Rustic Temple, and a glorious camp fire closed the day's proceedings.

The lecture course embraced the following speakers: Dr. J. A. Worden, Prof. H. H. Boyesen, Prof. Louis C. Elson, Miss Helen G. Rice, Dr. A. A. Willits, Dr. A. W. Lamar, John Temple Graves, the Rev. Sam P. Jones, John G. Woolley, Booker T. Washington, Mary Lowe Dickinson, Gen. John B. Gordon and others.

Entertainments were given by Edward P. Elliott, and Ransom and Robertson, music by Madam Jones, the "Black Patti," Mackenzie Gordon, Schubert Quartet, Arion Lady Quartette, and Nitchkiss Orchestra.

MOUNTAIN LAKE PARK, MARYLAND. The twelfth annual session of the Mountain Chautauqua, August 1-21, was in every regard the banner year. In attendance, receipts, and enthusiasm all former records were eclipsed. The five large hotels, and the one hundred and fifty commodious cottages were taxed to their utmost to entertain the guests from twenty-five states of the union, who found their way to this paradise of the mountains.

The summer schools, continuing in most instances from three to five weeks, and including twenty departments of important study, under the care of well-known instructors from leading universities, Dr. M. D. Larned of Johns Hopkins University, dean, attracted about two hundred and fifty different students.

This year a splendid new auditorium and electric lights were among the improvements. Next year will be added a fifteen acre lake, waterworks, a system of sewerage and a commodious and beautiful Hall of Philosophy. Seventy lots have been sold during the season. The Board of Directors, with the Rev. C. W. Baldwin as their president, are aggressive and full of faith. The time of experiment has passed. The Mountain Chautauqua, with its splendid summer schools and brilliant program is writing a wonderful history of progress. This summit can be seen from afar, and the intellectual fires here blazing are brightening every sky. The enterprise is thoroughly Chautauquan, and every effort is made to be a loyal and devoted daughter to the old and loved mother by the great lake. Dr. W. L. Davidson has for the sixth successive year been chosen superintendent of instruction.

The platform program included Sam P. Jones, Col. Homer B. Sprague, ex-Congressman R. G. Horr, Dr. H. V. Givler, Jahu DeWitt Miller, Frank R. Roberson, C. E. Bolton, Chaplain Lozier, Bishop J. M. Walden, the Rev. N. M. Waters, Dr. J. H. Morgan, Prof. E. B. Warman, Miss Julia Orum and others. Readers and entertainers included Miss Marion Short, Fred Emerson Brooks and Edward P. Elliott. The chorus work, which was very superior, was under the direction of Prof. W. H. Pontius.

Recognition Day brought six graduates. Dr. S. L. Beiler gave an appropriate address. A large class for '98 was organized, and much C. L. S. C. enthusiasm awakened.

NORTHEAST GEORGIA, DEMOREST, GEORGIA. This Assembly under the supervision of the Rev. William Shaw held a ten days' session in the picturesque town of Demorest. Aside from the pleasure and profit derived from the program, which was wisely planned and well carried into effect, the hospitality of the little place was something remarkable and added much to the pleasure of the guests. To those who were so fortunate as to visit this Assembly the truth and beauty of Lanier's "Song

of the Chattahoochee" were ever recurring—

"All down the hills of Habersham,
All through the valleys of Hall,
The rushes cried *Abide, abide*,—

The ferns and the fondling grass said *stay*,
The dewberry dipped for to work delay,
And the little reeds sighed—*Abide, abide*."

Such seemed the pleading of these woods and dells of Habersham to the walking botany class, at least—and to the geology students.

From this material the Chautauqua circles of Habersham have already set about collecting a geological exhibit for the C. L. S. C. exhibition at the Cotton States Exposition to be held in Atlanta next year.

All the mornings at Demorest were given up to class work. After the early devotional service, led by Dr. Shaw, the Sunday school normal class was conducted by Dr. Williamson. Classes in evidences of Christianity, parliamentary law, physical culture, and elocution were carried on.

C. L. S. C. Round Tables, under the care of the Misses Love and Massey, were held daily. Recognition service was said to have been the most impressive occasion of the Assembly; four diplomas were conferred. A "Pioneer" was present to grace the event, and she, for the first time, passed the arches of the golden gate—which golden gate, by the way, was formed of golden rod.

The regular work of the Assembly was somewhat more enlivened by steamboat excursions on the lake, and by one gala day, which included an excursion to Tallulah Falls.

NORTHERN NEW ENGLAND, FROM THE NORTH-FRYEBURG, MAINE. From the Northern New England Assembly comes word that the attendance during the last session, held from July 24 to August 11, was the largest in its history of eleven years.

On Recognition Day the Rev. G. W. Hunt spoke. One graduate only was present. A promising class of '98 was formed. Effective and interesting work was done at the Round Tables.

The list of speakers contained the following names: James Clement Ambrose, Dr. C. W. Gallagher, Mrs. Mary A. Livermore, the Rev. J. J. Lewis, the Rev. J. H. Packard, Dr. J. O. Wilson, Dr. B. L. Whitman, Madame Layah Barakat.

Under the direction of Superintendent G. D. Lindsay, who was also president of the Assembly, the departments of instruction were well provided for and the work was well executed.

OCEAN PARK, MAINE. The month's session, opening July 23, held at the Ocean Park Assembly, was better attended than any previous one had been, and the financial returns were greater. The management, whose chief officers were President E. W. Porter and Superintendent J. M. Loudon, were greatly encouraged by the successful year.

Well selected leaders carried on the different departments in the educational work.

The leading platform speakers were Dr. C. F. Penney, Dr. W. H. Bowen, the Rev. R. S. MacArthur, Dr. F. Hershey, James K. Ewer, the Hon. Theo. F. Clark, Dr. F. E. Buker, Prof. L. F. Griffin, the Revs. Harry W. Kimball and G. W. Hinkley, Dr. B. L. Whitman, the Rev. E. E. Hayes, Dr. Slattery, the Rev. C. A. Vincent, Mrs. A. M. L. Haines, Mrs. Minerva B. Tobey, Dr. Inez Ford, Mrs. Josephine R. Nichols, Mrs. E. H. Andrews, Miss Lucia E. F. Kimball, Miss L. A. DeMeritte, the Revs. J. W. Parsons, W. J. Twort, J. B. Jordan, O. W. Waldron, Prof. J. Y. Stanton.

On Recognition Day ten persons, seven of them graduates of the present year, passed the golden gate. Dr. B. L. Whitman gave the address. An alumni and class reunion and banquet, a Recognition Day concert and a camp-fire were other features of the day. A new Class of '98 was organized. Profitable Round Tables were held during the Assembly.

PIASA BLUFFS, The tone of the report from **ILLINOIS.** Piasa Bluffs Assembly is in unison with those coming from most of the Assemblies this year, as it announces the attendance far ahead of that of other years. The departments of instruction, under able leaders, gave general satisfaction.

The superintendent of instruction, Dr. Frank Lenig, was in charge of the C. L. S. C. work. Round Table meetings were held at which a general interest was awakened. A new Class of '98 was organized. Seven graduates were present on Recognition Day and heard the address which was delivered by Dr. J. C. W. Coxe.

The chief platform speakers were the Rev. Sam P. Jones, the Hon. Henry Watterson, Jahu De Witt Miller, Dr. W. H. Crawford, Frank R. Roberson, the Rev. E. R. Young. The president of the Assembly was Mr. J. B. Ulrich.

PUGET SOUND, The successful session of the **WASHINGTON.** summer schools at the Puget Sound Assembly was under the general management of the president, Prof. R. S. Bingham; the C. L. S. C. department was presided over by the superintendent of instruction, the Hon. J. W. Fairbanks. An admirable plan was adopted for the Round Table meetings, a program being prepared for each day's session, printed and distributed, so that all might be prepared to discuss it. The subject of the day was subdivided into topics and very systematically arranged. Seventeen diplomas were delivered on Recognition Day. A new class was registered.

The speakers were Dr. A. Allison, Dr. W. A. Major, the Hon. C. M. Fishback, Prof. F. T. Plummer, G. H. Walker, the Hon. T. D. Nash, Dr. T. W. Butler, Dr. G. R. Wallace, Dr. Schell.

ROCK RIVER, "More tents, more people, larger **ILLINOIS.** revenues than ever before," is the word from the Rock River Assembly, which met for the seventh time July 31 and disbanded August 16. The chief officers were President J. M. Ruthrauff and Superintendent Holmes Dy-singer, D. D.

The classes in the several departments of instruction provided were conducted by able leaders.

Nineteen persons passed through the arches and the golden gate on Recognition Day. Mr. W. W. Davis and the Rev. G. M. Brown, field secretary of the C. L. S. C., gave addresses. A fine Class of '98 was formed. Round Tables met regularly during the Assembly.

Among the speakers were Dr. S. A. Ort, M. Rhodes, H. C. Haithcox, the Rev. H. M. Banner, Cols. Owen Scott and G. W. Bain, and J. V. Farwell.

ROUND LAKE, From July 30 to August 17 the **NEW YORK.** session held at the Round Lake Assembly drew an attendance which was better than for years preceding it. The departments of instruction had been manned by earnest leaders and were thoroughly equipped, and goodly numbers were found ready to avail themselves of the advantages afforded.

On Recognition Day two graduates received diplomas—the smallest number in ten years, but a large new Class of '98 was formed; Dr. H. A. Butts gave the address; and the day, infused with the old-time enthusiasm, was pronounced a grand day. Round Table meetings, regularly held, were well attended and full of interest.

The platform speakers were Dr. W. V. Holley, Dr. James Strong, Dr. H. A. Butts, Homer B. Sprague, James C. Ambrose, Wallace Bruce, Major H. C. Doan, Prof. W. H. Wood, and others. The leading officers in the board of management were Dr. William Griffin and Dr. H. C. Farrar.

SILVER LAKE, On Recognition Day at Silver **NEW YORK.** Lake Assembly, five C. L. S. C. graduates were awarded diplomas. Full Chautauqua exercises were observed, and Dr. A. J. Fish was the speaker of the day. Ten new members formed the nucleus of a Class of '98 in this territory. Regular Round Table meetings were held.

The Rev. H. C. Woods and the Rev. Ward Platt are the president and the superintendent of the association. A full line of department work had been arranged, was excellently conducted, and well attended.

A partial list of speakers is as follows: Dr. F. E. Clark, T. V. Powderly, W. T. Mills, Frank R. Roberson, Prof. W. G. Ward, Dr. A. J. Fish, Dr. F. Smalley, Frederick D. Losey, Marie H. Losey, Cornelia C. Bedford, Dr. I. C. Eggleston. There were many fine elocutionary and musical entertainments. The attendance has never been surpassed

save in one year in the history of this Assembly. SOUTHERN OREGON, The office of both ASHLAND, OREGON. president and superintendent at the Southern Oregon Assembly, which met July 11-21, was held by the Rev. J. S. Smith. "Good, with a growing interest," is the report regarding the attendance.

The departments of instruction were well attended and the various conductors gained credit from

the able manner in which they were conducted.

Audiences were addressed by such speakers as Dr. Selah W. Brown, Dr. R. S. Cantine, President W. C. Hawley, Prof. G. W. Shaw, Dr. G. R. Wallace, and Mrs. A. R. Riggs.

The Recognition Day address was given by Dr. Cantine. No graduates were present to take diplomas, but a large Class of '98 was formed. Daily Round Tables were held.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

"Trilby." It is in vain we wish that Trilby* had possessed all the virtues instead of "all the virtues except one," for we remember her antecedents and surroundings and we know that Du Maurier is too true an artist to violate the logical consistency of human character. But his penetration is no greater than his tenderness and sympathy with weakness and suffering and he has pictured this young girl as so sincere, so loving, so self-forgetful that hard indeed must be the heart that does not feel a thrill of cordial love for her. Her personality is such an actual and haunting one that henceforth she must take a place in the realities of our world. The noble and winning Taffy, the Laird with his masterful good nature, and Little Billee, who is as deserving of immortality as the sweet and gallant Colonel Newcome, these three comrades and Sven-gali, that terrible creature of colossal selfishness and utter lack of moral sense, are too lifelike to be accepted as products of the imagination. In fact, there is no posing, no abstraction, in the book; while the dash and vigor of the drawings add to the robust realism. The narrative manner is so simple and the dialogue so natural that the writer is lost sight of and the plot seems to develop by internal impulse. No one who wishes to keep abreast of the best fiction will neglect "Trilby."

Other Fiction.

In "The Manxman"† Hall Caine adheres to his own familiar scene, the Isle of Man, lifting the simple people out of the commonplace by the art of a true romancer and clothing them with a genuine and pathetic interest. There is much that is somber and painful in the maturing of the plot, which deals with some of the deepest and most critical problems of life.

First to attract attention in "No Enemy (But Himself)"‡ are the illustrations,—an attempt to

make the photographer take the place of the artist. Subjects are posed to represent the principal characters in various scenes, but the posing is apparent and the lack of life and animation too evident. The man who had "no enemy but himself" was the possessor of an income of eight thousand dollars, but preferred the life of a tramp to that of the club rooms and fashionable hotels of the city. His adventures on the road, where he was known as His Whiskers, the conversations forming a large and spicy element, are told in a vigorous and racy style. The little runaway whom he takes under his rumpled wing brings out what is best in his nature, but he remains his own enemy in spite of the gentle influence. The closing chapter is written with undeniable power and pathos.

"The Artificial Mother"§ is a whimsical conception dedicated to "the oppressed husbands and fathers of the land and to the unknown young men who may be contemplating matrimony." The amusing attempts of a distracted father to make a lay figure stand *in loco matris* to his children are graphically described and illustrated with a half dozen clever drawings.

One of the most spirited books of the season is "Love and Shawl-Straps."¶ The characters are vital and interesting, there is abundance of humor in the situations, and the sprightly tone is maintained without flagging or weariness. It is a pleasure to note that no calamitous or even sad event is recorded and that all is as merry as the marriage bells which ring frequently enough to satisfy the most inveterate matchmaker.

Quite in keeping with the exquisite style of Theuriet's latest story¶ are its dainty binding and well-executed drawings. A timid abbé, a bluff farmer, his gentle daughter and her soldier lover, these are the four people whose fortunes we follow with a

* Trilby. By George Du Maurier. 464 pp. \$1.75. New York: Harper & Brothers.

† The Manxman. By Hall Caine. 329 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‡ No Enemy (But Himself). By Elbert Hubbard. 283 pp.

\$1.50.—|| The Artificial Mother. A Marital Fantasy. By G. H. P. 31 pp.—§ Love and Shawl-Straps. By Annette L. Noble with the collaboration of Pearl Clement Coann. 291 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

¶ The Abbé Daniel. From the French of André Theuriet by Helen B. Dole. 104 pp. \$1.00. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

tender interest. A wholesome, fragrant atmosphere pervades the whole.

Love making seems to have been usually a tragic affair in Old California in the days "Before the Gringo Came,"* judging from the eleven stories by Mrs. Atherton. Undeniable power they all have, passion and intensity, picturesqueness and rapidity of action, but not one without a heartache somewhere.

Ely's "Socialism and Social Reform." Prof. Richard T. Ely's work on "Socialism and Social Reform"† is the latest addition to the literature of this subject.

The book is divided into four parts, affording a critical survey of the whole question. Part first is taken up with an examination into the nature of socialism. The origin and progress of socialism are described, its elements are set forth, and various definitions are given; there is a picture of the socialistic state showing the operation of socialistic forces, a few misapprehensions concerning socialism are cleared away, and it is contrasted with other schemes of industrial change. An important chapter is the concluding one in this part devoted to the literature of the subject. The second and third parts are given over to a critical analysis of the strength and weakness of socialism. The method of treatment, in the main, is impartial, but it is true also that the author, in his anxiety to be fair in all things, has found socialism to be possessed of many strong points some of which will not be accepted as such by many readers. Not all, but many of the weaknesses of socialism are pointed out and ably discussed. The outcome of socialism Dr. Ely apprehends, "would be such an amount of dissatisfaction that one of two things would happen: either socialism would result in a series of revolutions, reducing countries like England and the United States to the condition of the South American republics, and rendering progress impossible; or the dissatisfaction would cause a complete overthrow of socialism and return to the discredited order." In the concluding chapters of the book some high ideals of social reform which are thought to be practicable are suggested, the argument resting in a large part upon the fact of social solidarity, the interdependence of men and nations. In his discussion of the "Golden Mean" or "Practicable Social Reform" Dr. Ely reaches one very wholesome conclusion in which most thoughtful people will concur. "Reforms," he argues, "must come from many different sources and of thousands of agencies of genuine reform and progress not one can be spared. . . . One line of reform will interest one class of

persons, and another line another class, and thus working together more or less consciously, the progress of society will be secured."

Other Social and Economic Studies.

Mr. Henry Wood is an evolutionist. When he writes upon an economic subject it is from a thoroughly practical standpoint. This he has done in his latest book.* Political economy is interpreted in the light of economic evolution and natural law. There are twenty-four chapters in the book, among the most important being The Law of Co-operation, The Law of Competition, Combinations of Capital, Combinations of Labor, Profit Sharing, Socialism, Economic Legislation, Can Capital and Labor be Harmonized? The Distribution of Wealth, The Centralization of Wealth, Booms and Panics, Money and Coinage, Tariffs and Protection, Industrial Education, etc., etc.

A useful reference book † is that which consists of a compilation of essays upon transportation by eminent experts. Almost every phase of the subject is discussed and the point of view varies between that of the economic theorist and the practical man of affairs. No new facts are set forth and indeed there is but little contained in the book which is unfamiliar to the students of the railway problem. Thirty-four papers written by as many authorities, both English and American, have been gathered together and arranged in orderly fashion, forming a valuable compendium, as the title implies, of representative theories relating to the subject of railway transportation.

In his argument ‡ for the consolidation of the railroads of the United States Mr. Lewis, who is a member of the Des Moines bar, restates some old theories relating to the socialization of enterprises which are considered to be inherently monopolistic and presents some new and interesting reasons why the functions of the state should be increased to include the control and operation of railroads. In many respects the book is written from a new point of view. It is evident that the author has made a long and thorough study of the subject.

A little volume containing popular discussions of questions relating to "Social Reform and the Church"§ is that by Prof. Commons. The church is urged to take up and push forward the several social reforms which, in the opinion of the author, are

*The Political Economy of Natural Law. By Henry Wood. 305 pp. \$1.25. Boston: Lee and Shepard.

†Compendium of Transportation Theories. Kensington Series.—First Book. 295 pp. Washington, D. C.: Kensington Publishing Company.

‡National Consolidation of the Railways of the United States. By George H. Lewis, M. A. 326 pp. \$1.50. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company.

§Social Reform and the Church. By John R. Commons. Indiana University. With an Introduction by Prof. R. T. Ely. 176 pp. 75 cts. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

*Before the Gringo Came. By Gertrude Atherton. 306 pp. \$1.00. New York: J. Selwin Tait & Sons.

†Socialism and Social Reform. By Richard T. Ely, Ph.D., LL.D. 449 pp. \$1.50. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co.

needed to-day. It is largely a book of advice, but strange to say very little stress is laid upon the real necessity which exists for the orderly and unbiased study of social and economic problems not only by the clergy but by all people in and out of the church. Careful and dispassionate study of social questions has a strong tendency to dissipate extreme and radical views, which in most cases are hastily formed. Prof. Commons might well have made more of this idea and included in his suggestions a few more thoughts on what *not* to do in the way of social reform. The chapter on Proportional Representation is the most valuable one in the book.

All philanthropists and social reformers will find an excellent book bearing on their special work in "Dependent, Defective, and Delinquent Classes."* Dealing with those groups of persons who cannot or who will not take care of themselves, it suggests methods of procedure regarding them which are most promising of good results; gives a sort of history of plans that have been fully tried; and briefly outlines the theories of those who have made long and practical study of the subject. The causes leading to the deplorable condition of the persons under consideration are closely examined, and the side of the story belonging to the accused is fairly presented. One of the most useful features of the book is found in the copious references to important works on the subject.

"An Old Master,"† the first of a collection of political essays forming a small volume, is a short study of the life and work of Adam Smith. In a condensed and comprehensive style the author has drawn a clear picture of the man whose "philosophy has entered everywhere into the life of politics." The other essays written in the same attractive and vigorous style treat of politics, political sovereignty, democracy, and the constitution of the United States.

A model book in its plan and treatment is "The Englishman at Home."‡ Municipal and national life in Great Britain are explained in complete and detailed manner. All special terms and customs are carefully defined and thus the confusion which so frequently attends works of a similar nature because of presuming on the reader's prior knowledge of the subject treated, is avoided. All of the workings of the English government, including the institutions, the poor law system, education, the administration of justice, and Parliament, the author has dealt with; there are besides chapters on the established church, on the army and civil service, on labor and land.

* An Introduction to the Study of the Dependent, Defective, and Delinquent Classes. By Charles Richmond Henderson, A. M., D.D. 277 pp. \$1.50. Boston: D. C. Heath and Company.

† An Old Master and Other Political Essays. By Woodrow Wilson. 181 pp. \$1.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡ The Englishman at Home. His Responsibilities and Privileges. By Edward Porritt. 379 pp. \$1.75. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

In the life of General Robert E. Biography.

Lee* there is to be found an excellent biography and an exhaustive history. A noticeable feature of the work is the care taken by the author in accurately tracing the many causal lines which focus upon the great events which he narrates. The feelings with which the great southern general entered the Civil War may best be understood from his own remark, that if he owned all the negroes of the South he would gladly yield them up for the preservation of the Union. This volume in the series of Great Commanders is rich in war data and in detailed descriptions of the events and persons connected with this period.

The third volume of the "Memoirs of the Baron de Ménéval"† completes that valuable work on the life of Napoleon I. Beginning with charming home sketches of the emperor, his wife Marie Louise, and his son, it shows Napoleon, who is generally supposed to be wanting in any tender sentiment, as a most loving husband and father. It then proceeds with a detailed account of his Russian campaign and his final overthrow. Special interest centers about the account of Napoleon's escape from the island of Elba as it is written from the very inside of affairs—the private secretary having opportunity to know all—and in his personal history during and after the battle of Waterloo.

"John Brown and His Men,"‡ written by a contemporary and co-worker, contains much matter that has never been in print before. The unavoidable delay of thirty years in bringing out the book, has but added to its value, as in the calmer, cooler atmosphere of the present the unprecedented events narrated will be weighed by unprejudiced minds. Some particulars of the dreadful scenes enacted in the struggles connected with the history of this unique character are given with revolting accuracy; but the whole work is the earnest, eager endeavor of one into whose memory is burned the awful history of that time, to raise to their rightful place in public recognition the leader in the events and his helpers.

In the Splendid Lives series one volume is devoted to the personal history of Alexander Mackay,|| the missionary hero of Uganda. The story of the earnest Christian life burning with zeal to spread the Gospel tidings through the Dark Continent, stands out in strong relief against the gloomy background of existence in Africa. The influence which

* General Lee. By Fitzhugh Lee. New York: 433 pp. \$1.50.

—† Memoirs of the Baron de Ménéval. By Baron Claude-François de Ménéval. 541 pp. \$2.00. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‡ John Brown and His Men. By Richard J. Hinton. 752 pp. \$1.50. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

|| Alexander Mackay. By the Author of "The Story of Stanley." 144 pp. 50 cts. New York: Thomas Whittaker.

a noble soul exerts even under apparently hopeless circumstances, as shown in this instance, proves effectively that noble deeds are never lost, but in the end win honor for the cause in which they were done.

Miscellaneous. A stirring account of the experiences of an army officer's wife in the frontier posts of the West and South is given in "Cavalry Life."* One special point to which attention is called and over which all will rejoice, is the recent improvement in the methods of the government of the men by the officers. Formerly young and inexperienced commanders exercised largely their own will regarding the punishment to be meted out to men in the ranks, often old enough to be their fathers. Now this is regulated more by rule and much suffering inflicted from a pure love of power is avoided.

A book to be prized by mothers is one which gives trustworthy instructions regarding the things required of them in their care of children. Mrs. Scovil has published a little volume on this subject which merits high recommendation. A long experience as nurse gave her ample opportunity both of gaining the knowledge which she imparts in this book and of testing and retesting it in actual experience.

To meet numerous inquiries concerning several memorial days and holidays now set apart for general observation in our country, a volume in the series entitled *Thoughts for the Occasion*, distinguished by the sub-title "Patriotic and Secular"† has been prepared. After giving the history leading up to the inauguration of such days as Arbor Day, Decoration Day, Labor Day, Flag-Raising Day, Forefathers' Day, and many other notable occasions, the book proceeds with numerous brief articles relating to many phases of the memorial occasions.

"Photography Indoors and Out"‡ contains directions explicit enough to meet the demands of the most exacting amateur. Guided by it, this most popular of modern recreations can be made to reveal all of its secrets to the persevering and plucky inquirer. Not only the *modus operandi*, but also the preparation of the chemicals needed and full instruction as to the use of the flash light are given. In addition the book explains the philosophy of the science and also gives the history of its development, thus forming a complete work on the subject.

* *Cavalry Life*. By Mrs. Orsemus Bronson Boyd. 376 pp. \$1.00. New York: J. Selwin Tait & Sons.

† *The Care of Children*. By Elisabeth Robinson Scovil. 348 pp. \$1.00. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.

‡ *Thoughts for the Occasion, Patriotic and Secular*. 576 pp. \$1.75. New York: E. B. Treat. Chicago: R. C. Treat.

§ *Photography Indoors and Out*. 240 pp. \$1.25. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

D. APPLETON AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Lefèvre, André. *Race and Language*. \$1.50.
Lee, Fitzhugh. *General Lee*. \$1.50.
Parker, Gilbert. *The Trail of the Sword*. 50 cts.
Norris, W. E. *A Victim of Good Luck*. 50 cts.
Sanborn, Kate. *Abandoning an Adopted Farm*. 50 cts.
Caine, Hall. *The Manxman*. \$1.50.

ROBERTS BROTHERS, BOSTON.

Bourget, Paul. *A Saint*. Translated by Katharine P. Wormeley. \$1.00.
Raymond, Evelyn. *The Little Lady of the Horse*. \$1.50.
Eckstein, Ernst. *A Monk of the Aventine*. Translated by Helen Hunt Johnson. \$1.00.
Smith, Mary P. W. *Jolly Good Times To-Day*. \$1.25.
Molière. *The Misanthrope*. *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme*.
Tartuffe. *Les Précieuses Ridicules*. George Dandin. Translated by Katharine P. Wormeley. 2 Vols. \$3.00.

HARPER & BROTHERS, NEW YORK.

Maurier, George Du. *Trilby*. \$1.75.
Davis, Richard Harding. *Our English Cousins*. \$1.25.

THOMAS Y. CROWELL & CO., NEW YORK.

Miller, J. R., D.D. *The Building of Character*. \$1.00.
Bolton, Sarah K. *Famous Leaders Among Men*. \$1.50.
Theuriet, André. *The Abbé Daniel*. \$1.00.
Dumas, Alexandre. *The Three Musketeers*. Two Vols. \$6.00.
Smith, Anna Harris. *Golden Words for Daily Counsel*.
Faber, Frederick William, D.D. *Faber's Hymns*. Illustrated by L. J. Bridgman.

CRANSTON & CURTS, CINCINNATI. HUNT & EATON, NEW YORK.

Halstead, William Riley. *Life on a Backwoods Farm*. \$1.00.
Willing, J. Fowler. *The Little-Book Man*. \$1.00.

FLEMING H. REVELL COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Sayce, A. H., LL.D. *A Primer of Assyriology*. 40 cts.
Murray, The Rev. Andrew. *Love Made Perfect*.

J. SELWIN TAIT AND SONS, NEW YORK.

Atherton, Gertrude. *Before the Gringo Came*. \$1.00.
Boyd, Mrs. O. B. *Cavalry Life in Tent and Field*.
Williams, Martha McCullough. *Two of a Trade*.

THE BAKER & TAYLOR CO., NEW YORK.

Cuyler, Theodore L., D.D. *Christianity in the Home*.
Pierson, Arthur T. *The New Acts of the Apostles*. \$1.50.

THOMAS WHITTAKER, NEW YORK.

Author of *The Story of Stanley*. Alexander Mackay. 50 cts.
Turner, The Rev. William. *Hand-Book of the Bible*. \$1.00.

HENRY ALTEMUS, PHILADELPHIA.

Scovil, Elisabeth Robinson. *The Care of Children*. \$1.00.

CHARLES H. KERR & CO., CHICAGO.

Bech-Meyer, Nico. *A Story from Pullmantown*. 25 cts.

E. B. TREAT, NEW YORK.

Thoughts for the Occasion. A Repository of Historical Data and Facts, Golden Thought, and Words of Wisdom. \$1.75.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS, NEW YORK.

Stephens, George B., Ph.D., D.D. *The Johannine Theology*. \$2.00.

Froude, J. A. *Life and Letters of Erasmus*. \$2.50.

Wendell, Barrett. *William Shakespeare*. \$1.75.

FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Hinton, Richard J. *John Brown and his Men*. \$1.50.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK.

G. H. P. *The Artificial Mother*.
Hubbard, Elbert. *No Enemy (But Himself)*. \$1.50.
Noble, Annette L., with the collaboration of Pearl Clement Coann. *Love and Shawl-Straps*.

D. C. HEATH & CO., BOSTON.

Chute, H. N., M. S. *Physical Laboratory Manual*.

THE PENN PUBLISHING COMPANY, PHILADELPHIA.

Otis, James. *Chasing a Yacht*.
Ellis, Edward S., A. M. *Among the Esquimaux*.
Immen, Mrs. Lorraine, Compiler. *Shoemaker's Best Selections for Readings and Recitations*. Number 22, 30 cts.
Griffith, B. L. C. *School and Parlor Comedies*. 30 cts.
Eureka Entertainments. 30 cts.

CONGREGATIONAL SUNDAY-SCHOOL AND PUBLISHING SOCIETY, BOSTON AND CHICAGO.

Nutting, Mary O. *The Days of Prince Maurice*. \$1.50.

MERRILL & BAKER, NEW YORK.

Fawcett, Edgar. *Her Fair Fame*. \$1.00.

GINN & COMPANY, BOSTON.

Dickens, Charles. *A Tale of Two Cities*.

LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO., NEW YORK.

Doyle, A. Conan. *Micah Clarke*.

Gilkes, Arthur Herman. *The Thing That Hath Been*.

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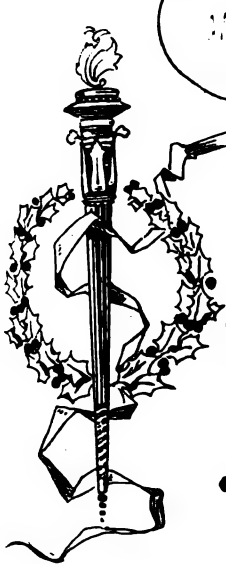
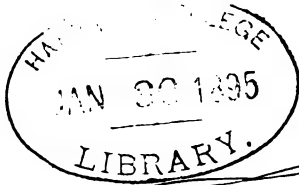


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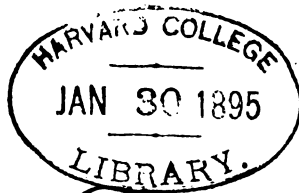
BOB'S STOCKING.

Susan and Mary, and dear little Rod,
All hung up their stockings, but greedy Bob,
Who was always hungry and dirty, too,
Thought he had a much better plan in view;
The rest went to bed, he lingered behind
With the largest stocking he could find,
And laughed with glee as he thought of the lot
Of things he would get by means of his plot.
When Christmas morn dawned, the children all ran
To the chimney-piece their treasures to scan.
A doll was for Mary, another for Sue,
And in Rod's stocking a horn hung in view,
While all of the three that hung in a row
Were stuffed full of candies from top to toe,
But greedy Bob's held to its utmost scope
Nothing but cakes of pure Ivory Soap.
Santa supposed it was for Bob's mother,
And knew she preferred this soap to all other.



DR. OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES.

See page 321.



THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

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OFFICERS OF THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

JOHN H. VINCENT, *Chancellor*, Drawer 194, Buffalo, N. Y. All "personal" letters should be so marked on envelope. LEWIS MILLER, *President*. JESSE L. HURLBUT, *Principal*. *Counselors*: LYMAN ABBOTT, D. D.; BISHOP H. W. WARREN, D. D.; J. M. GIBSON, D. D.; W. C. WILKINSON, D. D.; EDWARD EVERETT HALE, D. D.; JAMES H. CARLISLE, LL. D. Miss K. F. KIMBALL, *Executive Secretary*. A. M. MARTIN, *General Secretary*.

REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.



THE QUARRY TEAM.

From a painting by Stanhope A. Forbes, A. R. A.

THE PAINTER'S ART IN ENGLAND.*

BY HORACE TOWNSEND.

IN these closing years of the nineteenth century when art criticism has arrogated to itself, at the hands of some of its professors, the exactitude and *pari passu*¹ the diffuseness of treatment hitherto more associated with the sciences, it would be

difficult in the space of an ordinary magazine article adequately to set forth the history and merits of even one of the many schools into which modern English art finds itself subdivided. It is perhaps not necessary, however, to employ the exhaustive diligence and wealth of critical diction which such masters as Ruskin and Morelli set the fashion of employing to give a com-

* The Notes on the Required Readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

prehensive view of modern English art.

So it must be my excuse if I attempt to compress into the proverbial nutshell my views of its more recent developments that, confined to generalities as such a review must be, it may at least suggest to some of its readers certain lines of inquiry which they may follow up with advantage.

Divorced almost completely as the pictorial art of our century is from the national life, when we consider the legitimately close and intimate union which existed between them in most countries three centuries ago they yet bear to each other a more or less unacknowledged relation which renders it difficult perfectly to comprehend the one without a certain acquaintanceship with the other.

Thus a close regard of the art of to-day as of that of the Renaissance or to take an even more striking example that of the Hellenes, must proceed on distinctly sociological, as apart from purely esthetic lines. Bearing this in mind it would be interesting, if my space allowed me, to trace the ethical causes which intensifying the geographical insularity of Great Britain had led her at the beginning of the present century to a degree of isolation in regard to art as well as to commerce which was probably without its parallel in Europe. That she was forced to seek her own artistic salvation and to a certain extent was successful in the quest, ought to be accounted to her

for esthetic righteousness, and due appreciation of this will help to relegate to the Gehenna² of exploded myths the commonplace and banal³ superstition that the Anglo-Saxon race is contemptibly inferior to those of Latin origin in artistic appreciation and creative power.

One has only to glance backward and see how the sacred fire was decorously but none the less reverentially handed on by Reyn-

olds, Romney, Gainsborough, and their followers to the hands almost touching our own, of Turner and Constable. It was indeed by the last named fanned into so dazzling a blaze that its light penetrated through the murky fogs of our own island and became a beacon by means of which one great French school was helped to attain the secure harbor of pre-eminence in landscape art. It is true that with the deaths of these great masters English art



FATIDICA.

From a painting by Sir Frederic Leighton, P. R. A.

seemed to fall into a state of apathy and decline which for nearly a generation threatened more closely to approach annihilation.

The rampant commercialism which was not the product but the producer of the so-called Manchester School with its deification of the materialistic and its middle-class contempt of the idealistic, seemed to swamp for a time all that spoke for light and culture in regard to pictorial achievement.

It must be remembered, that it is a fact, though one that is often lost sight of, that

the measure of the artist when schools and not individuals are considered, is to be taken by that of his patron. It was for want of heads we espied upon the walls a collection of ingeniously ill-painted, pictorial anecdote, pseudo-biblical reminiscence, and impossible



THE ORDEAL OF PURITY.

From a painting by G. H. Boughton, A. R. A.

culture and sympathetic patronage that English art of the last generation suffered. From the court (and courts, it must be borne in mind, were, even so late as the eighteenth century, the hothouses of artistic genius) English art has, since the advent of the Georges, been an outcast and never so much so as during the reign of Victoria.

Nor with one or two exceptions have the great aristocratic families of our day followed in any worthy way the traditions of their order in regard to the sympathetic encouragement of the artistically meritorious. The sudden growth of large fortunes at the hands of self-made men was responsible for a body of patrons who worked incalculable harm to English art. They demanded vulgarity of sentiment, meretricious technique, and anecdotal banality, and I must regretfully own that their demands were not unsatisfied.

A quarter of a century ago those of us who were young enough to be enthusiastic, groaned in spirit as we wandered with the well dressed and snugly respectable crowd which thronged the rooms of the Royal Academy during each succeeding May. Over the complacently bobbing

landscape which harmonized curiously with the Philistines who bowed the knee in their own temple dedicated to their own uses. Color was lent to what I have referred to as the exploded idea, namely, that our English race is wanting in art instinct, by the remembrance that but a short day's journey distant was to be found in the Champs Elysées a similar national assemblage, concerning which, though keener observers than we might declare that academic technicality seemed to be its be all and end all, we could truthfully assert this much, that nine out of ten examples

were produced by men who at least knew how to paint.

Of course even in England, albeit sunk in obscurity more or less profound, so far as popular plaudits make fame, a painter was here and there to be found who could really paint as well as imagine pictures. Mason, for instance, sneered at and passed by in his lifetime, but whose pictures when they now reach the auction room are greedily striven for by the descendants of those who despised them; Walker, who, had he lived



THE TEMPTATION OF SIR PERCIVAL.

From a painting by Arthur Hacker, A. R. A.



A LADY IN BROWN.

From a painting by J. Lavery.

and ripened, might have developed into a great painter; Rossetti, whose pictures despite their glaring technical defects had each one of them more poetic imagination than could be found in a roomful of academic masterpieces; Watts, who, one must not forget, was at the plenitude of those superb powers which bring him into worthy competition with the great masters of the past, at the very period when English art was at its lowest ebb.

These and other individualities there were, but I want to insist upon the fact that just because they were individualities and the founders of no schools of their own, England had fallen far behind in the race for artistic pre-eminence. Only one worthy attempt had been made to found what may be called a school and it is remarkable, in view of the earnest devotion of some of its members, how slight an impress was made upon their time by the Pre-Raphaelite brotherhood. It is nearly half a century ago since they linked themselves together and yet it is only in our own day that their

most faithful lingering adherent, Burne-Jones, has secured public recognition. The greatest of them all in the person of Sir John Millais fell away from the grace of their professions very early in the day and was seduced by popularity and the Royal Academy in combination into an almost entire abandonment of his early faith.

Apart from this we have had in England until the last decade no genuine art movement which has affected more than a mere handful of students. It was from across the Channel that the Perseus⁵ who was to deliver English art from the fettering chains of fell tradition which bound her Andromeda-like to the barren rocks of prettiness and conventionality, was to wing his flight to us.

Until our students began to flock in increasing numbers some twenty years ago to the ateliers⁶ of Paris no united movement toward light and knowledge had been made. Here and there some individual influences may have been exerted but even these had been of a shadowy nature and had often sprung not from our own race but from foreigners domiciled among us. It was Tadema, a Dutchman, for instance who freed us from



IDLE FEARS.

From a painting by E. J. Poynter, R. A.

what has been happily termed "the banality of composition," that unnatural grouping of the figures of a picture with slavish regard to the boundary lines of the frame. It was Whistler, an American, who taught us among other important lessons the necessity of the effacement of details and the accentua-

or individuals forms the guide of the younger painters of our generation.

It is true that the great names in England, names that are known to the public at large as well as to the artistic world, are still in the very nature of things those of the men who worked out unaided their own way to



AUGUST BLUE.

From a painting by H. S. Tuke.

tion of the main thematic⁷ feature in a picture.

But the larger and broader changes have been brought about by French teaching, teaching which in many cases has been bettered by those instructed but which nevertheless had its initiation in the city of Corot and Millet, of Degas and Monet.⁸

Into the details of this movement it is impossible for me to go with anything approaching fullness, but I may at least point out that the influence exerted by Paris was of a dual nature. First was that of the school which has been nicknamed that of the "Pleine Airists"⁹ and second that of the Impressionists. That then there is more hope for English art to-day, that among the younger men there are many for whom an enduring reputation may safely be predicted, is due to the fact upon which I am insisting, that a school or schools in place of an individual

salvation before what almost may be called the period of the *fin de siècle* renaissance arrived, but it is at least hopeful for the future of the art loving public as well as for that of all art workers that of the reputations which were in all men's mouths in the early seventies only those have endured which rested on a surer foundation than the debased taste of that Philistine epoch. Names such as those of the late Edwin Long, R. A., or the present W. P. Frith, R. A., are rapidly assuming an interest that is merely historic, while however much we may differ as to our regard of the true principles of artistic achievement from such renowned personages as Sir Frederick Leighton, P. R. A., Sir John Millais, R. A., and Mr. Edward J. Poynter, R. A., we can at least accord to them a full measure of respectful admiration, and this not merely for what they might have been under other conditions but for

what they actually are under their own.

In the first name English art has a worthy and a dignified official head. A scholar as well as an artist, though he has condescended to an irritatingly mechanical perfection of finish and redundancy of insignificant detail, he has often expressed many beautiful ideas with unexceptionable taste, and year after year sees us the richer by such embodiments of courtly sensuousness as the "Fatidica" of the present year, the "Daphnephoria," "The Music Lesson," and the "Phryne" of other years.

To Sir John Millais I have already made reference and would fain linger over that unique study of artistic temperament which would set itself to trace his esthetic and psychological contrarieties. These it is which have made of the poet-painter of the "Isabella" or the "Christ in the House of His Parents" of the early fifties, the producer of such middle-class triumphs as the "Cherry Ripe" or the "Bubbles" of the nineties and which yet allow him from time to time to silence his detractors by such *tours de force*¹⁰ as the magnificent "Souvenir of Velasquez."



THE LADY OF SHALOTT.

From a painting by J. W. Waterhouse, A. R. A.



THE CHILD ENTHRONED.

From a painting by T. C. Goch.

In view of the fact that his election to the directorship of the National Gallery and of the consequent likelihood that his work in future will be rather critical than creative it is pleasant to record that in his principal picture, "Idle Fears," of the present year, Mr. Edward Poynter reminds us of those days—now twenty-five years ago—when by his picture of "Israel in Egypt" he promised to take that place among the masters of his craft, which in the interim he has failed to exactly attain.

Many as are the artistic sins which are to be laid to the charge of the last half century we can forgive them all when we reflect that it has given us Mr. Watts, who will probably in years to come be looked upon as the *great* painter of our generation. Out of accord as the didacticism which underlies so much of his work may be with our present esthetic notions it is yet good for us to remember that Mr. Watts has always borne in mind that he is a painter first and a preacher only in a subordinate degree. The magnitude of his output has only been equaled by its marvelously consistent quality.

Mr. Watts has held himself above pretiness, triviality, and mere popularity and his reward, greater than those ephemeral titles and honors which he has more than once declined to accept, is that every year has seen his reputation burn with a clearer and still further-reaching light, and that whenever artists are gathered together his name is spoken with reverence and esteem. That at an age when unfortunately for us he must be nearing the end of a glorious career he is able to offer us such work as appeared in this year's Academy is proof, if proof were needed, of the inexhaustible fertility of imagination, the loftiness of conception, and the glorious sense of color which erstwhile gave us "Love and Death," "Love and Life," "Fata Morgana" and "The Three Goddesses."

I have left to the last my necessarily hasty particularization of the members of those two new schools to which I have made reference as containing the hopes of our generation. It is to such men as Stanhope Forbes, A. R. A., Adrian Stokes, H. S. Tuke, and George Clausen, R. A., who are all in their separate ways lineal descendants of the "Pleine Airists" that we look for the enduring work of the future, while such latter-day idealists as Arthur Hacker, A. R. A., T. C. Gotch, J. W. Waterhouse, A. R. A., G. H. Boughton, A. R. A., and E. A. Abbey are equally worthy of record.

The two I have last mentioned are Americans and it must not be forgotten that Mr. Sargent, who bids fair to be the greatest portraitist whose works have been hung upon the walls of the Academy since those of its first president found a place thereon, is also a gift to us from the United States.

Among the younger and more pugnacious Impressionist school I may mention at random the names of Walter Sickert, Mr. Furse, and J. Lavery, the two latter of whom exhibited notable portraits in this year's Academy. These and the other names are selected but at random, for a score of others might with equal justice have been included in my list. I cannot help feeling, however, that without that detailed appreciation which space denies me to accord to them, names will merely represent names and nothing more.

It would be a pleasure to enter more into detail concerning the works of these younger schools which are gradually making their effect felt upon our national art; to consider the work of that younger school of sculptors headed by Alfred Gilbert, A. R. A., which includes such promising young men as George Frampton, A. R. A., and Onslow Ford, A. R. A.; and further to glance at that school of decorative art which has enabled England to show herself during our own generation, in this regard, at least, the peer of all the world.



SOCIAL LIFE IN ENGLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

BY JOHN ASHTON.

THE end of the eighteenth century left England very prosperous, although highly taxed for war, which, also, drew considerably upon her population. For the navy, this was met by impressment; for the army, high bounty was given for volunteers, and compulsory service by all who had no ostensible means of living, as well as being recruited, in a small degree, from the ranks of bankrupt debtors, who were thus released from jail. War was a terrible drain. There were wars with France, both under the Republic and Napoleon; while at the same time, war was being carried on with Holland, Spain, and America—nay, more or less, the whole civilized western world was against England.

This lasted till 1815, and then "the land had rest forty years"; which time raised her to a very high pitch of prosperity—in my opinion, her apogee.¹ The land was highly cultivated, artificial manures came into use, the chemistry of the soil was taught, steam cultivation introduced, until it became a necessity for every farm to have its steam engine. The condition of the agricultural laborer improved hugely, better homes were built for him, wages were advanced, he took to wearing broadcloth, had good clothes for Sunday and holidays, and the smock frock, a garment handed down from Saxon times, was gradually discontinued, until it has, now, almost entirely disappeared. Capital was embarked in agriculture, small farms made into large ones, hedges grubbed up, and ditches filled, while the soil was thoroughly drained by means of pipes.

Then came the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846, opening the markets of the world to compete with the British farmer: wheat came from Russia, the United States, Canada, Australia, and even from India. Frozen meat came to finish him, and, at the present time, the acreage of land gone out of cultivation is simply appalling—nor is it possible

to reinstate it for many years. This has reduced incomes, which, naturally, affects all trades and professions. Then, too, the attractions of the towns, with their lights, amusements, and the prospect of higher wages, draw away all the young men from the country villages: the towns have more labor than is wanted, much misery is created through lack of employment, and the country is starved of its natural population.

From the opening of the Stockton and Darlington Railway in 1825, it has been a race to cover England with a network of iron rails, a fact now nearly accomplished. The facilities of carriage afforded by those railways, in conjunction with the introduction of the steamboat, has led to the exceeding development of coal and iron fields, and manufactories—of the latter, perhaps, to too great an extent; and, with the advent of peace, the natural fertility of the English began to assert itself, until, by very force of quantity, they were obliged to leave their native land, and found homes for themselves elsewhere. Luckily, the world is large, and other lands were crying aloud for inhabitants. The number of millions of Englishmen and women who have emigrated, will never be known. The United States and Canada received them gladly, while the vast continent of Australia and the islands of New Zealand were all their own. And yet, at home, the population has been more than doubled, while Great Britain has not increased an acre. The first census, of 1801, admittedly faulty, gives the number of inhabitants as 16,345,646, while the last, of 1891, is 37,880,764.

This, in spite of the numbers employed on railways, and who are in the army, navy, and police, leaves too large a margin in the labor market, and efforts are being made, by trades unions, to diminish the hours of labor, and thus afford employment for more. Unfortunately, these trades unions have

developed into organizations which exercise the grossest tyranny over the workingman, striving, with might and main, to prevent all who do not belong to them, from obtaining employment. It is probable, however, that the common sense of the majority will in time modify this evil—but at present they have been too much petted by a political party, in order to secure their votes, and they have not had time thoroughly to consider the question. Several *bona fide*³ workingmen have been elected members of Parliament, and, with one or two exceptions, have shown themselves good and capable men. Parliament, or rather the representation thereto, has been thrice reformed in this century, in 1832, 1867-8, and 1884-5, each time becoming more democratic.

Railways and steamboats have revolutionized and entirely altered the characteristics of the middle classes, and deprived them of a great deal of their insularity. Visits to different parts of Europe are within the reach of most—while a trip to America, or even around the world, is a portion of the education of those who can afford it. Cheap trips to different parts of Great Britain are largely patronized by the lower, middle, and working classes, and must tend to expand their ideas and enlarge their views. All traveling is fairly cheap to what it used to be in the old coaching days, and the roads are, as a rule, irreproachable; so much so that they are daily gone over by thousands of cycles, an invention of these latter days, of immense importance to young men, keeping them away from many temptations, gaining for them health and a knowledge of their beautiful country.

Increase of wealth, and intercommunication with other countries, have brought with them a demand for luxuries unknown in the commencement of the century, notably in eating and drinking: the plain meals of our grandfathers being replaced by repasts worthy of Lucullus,⁴ partaken of in palaces, though bearing the names of hotels and restaurants. The dinner tables of ordinary folk are made pretty with silver, cut glass, fruit and flowers, and it is considered

an insult to give any guest wine that is not of *premier cru*.⁴ The markets are ransacked for fish, game, and fruits of the rarest, and, as to the price asked for some of the latter, I may say that I have seen, in Covent Garden Market, pears at 18 guineas⁵ a dozen.

Lower in the social scale, food is very plentiful and cheap. Beef from the vast continent of America, mutton and lamb from Australia and New Zealand, canned meats and fish, fruit from America, Australia, and the Cape of Good Hope; pineapples, bananas, grapes, peaches, and apricots, once the luxury of the rich, are now sold on barrows in the streets, and, with the exception of the very poor, these things which were unattainable by their fathers, are now within the reach of all. Of the very poor, especially among workwomen, the favorite drink is tea, which can be obtained from 1s to 2s per pound. Of late years a complete revolution has taken place in the public taste for this article. China, which, ten years ago, used to supply 90 per cent of the tea drunk in Great Britain, now sends only 30 per cent, the Indian and Cingalese teas having supplanted it in popular favor.

This increased luxury, which is not confined to the vulgarities of feeding, necessitates an increased income; and I regret to say this is generally sought for in speculation. How to get the largest income from one's capital, is the constant thought of those whose style of living is scarcely consonant with "the sweet simplicity of three per cents." The Stock Exchange, which, in former years, had comparatively small premises, near the Royal Exchange, where a legitimate business was done in buying and selling stocks and shares, is now an enormous place, with an equally enormous quantity of brokers attached to it, whose principal business is making speculative purchases and sales for their numerous clients, who are of all sorts and conditions. Certainly, the increased number of ventures dangled before their eyes, railways, mines, limited companies, etc., accounts for an increase of brokers; but, outside them, not

admitted to the Exchange, are an army of illegitimate dealers.

But if in the eighteenth century England was debauched by lotteries it is now equally so by the curse of betting on horse racing, a vice which enthrals both high and low, but which, licensed and legal at Tattersall's,⁶ is *supposed* to be illegal and immoral, and therefore punishable, in a lower grade of society. Nay, the sport itself has altered; no runners can be found for queen's cups of £100, and these prizes have been transferred to agriculture—and prizes are now given of the enormous sum of £10,000. Card playing, too, is rife, especially among the upper classes; and the Stock Exchange, betting and gambling, account for the many noble names that of late years have been dragged through the mire of the Bankruptcy Court. As regards morality, I do not suppose that we are worse than our forefathers, but the ease with which divorce can be obtained, and the publicity given both to those and police cases, tend to render people more familiar with them, and are likely to put into the minds of the young, thoughts and feelings which would better not be there.

Outdoor sports have made a marked improvement in the physique of the youth of both sexes, in this generation. Horse riding used to be the chief exercise, and cricket was almost the only outdoor game played in the early century; but as railways multiplied and people began to live in the suburbs near or among green fields, cricket clubs sprung up as if by magic, and now there is not a village or a district, not a bank or large house of business, that does not boast its cricket club. Cycling, rowing, swimming, football, foot racing, and athletics generally, are in high favor; while the upper part of the silver Thames is a "garden of girls."

In the last generation young ladies walked with mincing gait; otherwise they would have been considered inelegant, while it was the proper thing in society for them to have very slender appetites at dinner, for which they made up by a hearty meal at luncheon. Now-a-days a good healthy girl is a match

for most men at walking, and she is not ashamed to show that she possesses a good appetite. During the latter part of this century, woman has had many careers thrown open to her, and, as far as I know, her only disabilities now are the pulpit, the law, the public service, except the post office, and the Legislature, for which, at present, she has no vote.

All education has vastly improved, but it is only during the last thirty or forty years that great strides have been made. Latin and Greek are not the only things taught, even in public schools—modern languages, science, and even technical classes competing with them. This, doubtless, is much owing to the public service, the army and navy, being thrown open, and entrance to them being attainable only by competitive examination. A grand work has been done among the poor and lower classes, first by our voluntary, and next by our board schools, at the latter of which, attendance, although compulsory, is free of charge; and in which very much more is taught than reading, writing, and arithmetic. In fact, at this time, a poor man's son can receive an education for nothing, or by payment of nominal fees in the evenings, that the son of a peer could not have had at the commencement of the century for any amount of money. The technical schools are doing well and are training thousands of young workmen to do good work, thoroughly and conscientiously. Free libraries, too, are a boon vouchsafed in this *fin de siècle*.⁷

Music has become more popular than ever, and, thanks to the schools of music scattered all over England, the pupils are better trained and taught than was possible at any previous time. Good concerts, such as the Monday Popular, the Handel Festivals at the Crystal Palace, or some extra performance at the Albert Hall, are certain to be crowded, and that, too, by a very discriminating audience. The nineteenth century may be said to be that of opera, for, although there was opera of a sort, both in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the modern opera could hardly be considered to have started before Spohr's

"Jessonda," or Weber's "Der Freischütz" in 1813, or his "Oberon" in 1826. After them came Auber, Rossini, Bellini, Donizetti, Verdi, Meyerbeer, Wagner, and Gounod:⁸ while *opera bouffe*⁹ may be said to have begun with Sullivan's "H. M. S. Pinafore." As an aristocratic amusement, the opera is dead in England—the high prices paid to *prima donnas* killed it, and they were so exacting, at last, that no management could stand it. It now survives in a mixture of Italian, German, and English works, at popular prices.

At the commencement of the nineteenth century there were but three theaters; at present, counting both sides of the Thames, there are forty. It goes without saying that all these do not pay, and it is equally clear that there cannot be a sufficient supply of good actors for them; nor will there ever be, so long as the practice (fatal to good acting) of long runs is continued. In the old days three pieces were given every night, and the performances were changed two or three times a week, by which means the actor played many parts and received a theatrical education unattainable at the present time. In addition to the theaters, Londoners have provided for their amusement twenty-five music halls, in which variety entertainments are given, some of which are now developing into short stage plays. In these halls the frequenters have full liberty to drink and smoke while listening to decidedly third-rate music, or witnessing the feats of conjurors and acrobats.

There are, also, thirty exhibitions, among which may be mentioned the British Museum—to whose wonderful library the literature of England is so much indebted—the Natural History and South Kensington Museums, the Tower of London, National Gallery, National Portrait Gallery, Colonial Institute, Crystal Palace, and all of them well worth a visit. Every city and town is, in respect to theaters, music halls, and exhibitions, a small copy of the metropolis. The South Kensington Museum has traveling exhibitions which visit the chief cities in England.

There are numerous picture galleries in London belonging to the different societies

and to dealers; but the place to study contemporary English art is at the Exhibition of the Royal Academy (instituted in 1768) which is opened on the first Monday in May, and closed the first Monday in August in each year. For the first half of the century, English art was at a decidedly low ebb, but it received a waking up about 1850, when a few young artists, Millais [mīl-lā'], Dante Rossetti, Holman Hunt, and others (called the Pre-Raphaelite School), began to draw and paint carefully. The influence of this school has been immense, and although English figure painting as a whole cannot compare with the French and German schools, in landscape we are second to none. In sculptors, our greatest, in this age, have been Flaxman and Gibson, but as there is little scope for idealism in England the principal work for the sculptor is the manufacture of statues of deceased worthies.

The literature of England of this century belongs to the world, and has been sufficiently appreciated; but for the grains of wheat there are bushels of chaff. As education has progressed, a *cacoëthes scribendi*¹⁰ seems to have come to almost every man and woman, and the literary market is flooded with rubbish which, although lasting its brief hour, is unfortunately replaced by the efforts of never-ending recruits.

English people are very proud of their newspaper press, which, with very few exceptions, is free from vulgarity and scurrility. No exact information as to the number of the periodical literature can ever be obtained, for some papers have but an ephemeral existence; but the following is a list of newspapers taken from "The Newspaper Press Directory" for 1894:

England:			
London	449		
Provinces	1,332	1,781	
Wales	101		
Scotland	220		
Ireland	166		
British Isles	23	2,291	

The magazines now in course of publication, including the quarterly reviews, number 2,061, of which more than 471 are of a decidedly religious character.

But it is in practical science that this wonderful century has been most prodigal with its marvels. Electricity has been made subject to man, and has, for his benefit, been made to yield light, heat, motive power, the telegraph and telephone; photography has revealed worlds in the heavens, invisible to the most powerful telescopes; coal has been so treated as to give not only oil and gas for illuminating purposes, but colors more brilliant than had ever been conceived before, and, also, very many scents; new metals have been discovered; and no man can catalogue the list of scientific marvels propounded in this century in England. Even as I write, Lord Rayleigh has communicated to the British Association for the Advancement of Science his discovery of a new component part of the atmosphere, in the shape of an inert gas, not yet named, whose existence he not only proves, but of which he has secured about half a pint.

Of mechanical science, in the beginning of the century there was but very little, and that little has had to be superseded. Whitworth, with his gauges, screw threads, and magnificent tools, which have been the means of turning out of our workshops the perfections of machinery, Nasmyth, whose steam hammer has enabled us to forge such huge masses of iron as never before were dreamed of, and Bessemer, whose conversion of crude iron into mild steel has wrought a revolution in the iron trade, are men of whom any country might be proud. But it is impossible to keep a monopoly on anything, and if England invented and taught, she had plenty of copyists and pupils. Similar machinery will produce similar results in every country, and many nations are now producing articles formerly exported from England, to the great detriment of her trade. Take one example only—the cotton trade. Machinery has been exported and cotton is now made where it is grown. Cotton mills are all over the globe, and, I believe, the largest mill in the world is in Russia. New coal fields, too, are being found and worked which will destroy England's supremacy in this direction.

There is no doubt that from these causes the trade and commerce of England must decrease, and this is being rapidly helped on by the very class who mostly benefit by it—the workingman—whose demands for higher wages and shorter working hours are yearly increasing. Add to this, free trade, without reciprocity from other nations, and it does not need a prophet to foretell a national decadence.

Perhaps the most noticeable physical social improvement of the century in England is in the streets, not of the metropolis only, but of every city and town. New roads and streets are always made broad, as is by law provided. Where, as in the early eighteen hundreds, the streets were either unpaved or done with cobble stones, with wide kennels on either side and pools all over the road, and the sidewalks were mostly made with kidney flint stones set on end: now, streets are beautifully and evenly paved with cubes of granite, wood (some of it coming from Australia), or asphalt, and drained to perfection, so that storm water runs away at once; while the sidewalks are made of large smooth slabs of stone, guarded at the edges by massive granite curbing. Throughout the country the roads are either made of crushed flint stones, or are Macadamized¹¹ with broken granite.

The vehicles in those streets are all of this century. Gone are the sedan chairs, the hackney coaches, and the mail coaches, and in their stead are the omnibus (the first of which ran on July 4, 1829), which has been so improved as to bear no resemblance to its progenitor; the cab (diminutive of *cabriolet*) introduced in 1823, but unlike the present *Hansom*, with its well upholstered interior, with looking-glasses, India rubber tires, nickel fittings, and self-closing doors; the four-wheeled cab, the somewhat disreputable descendant of the old hackney coach; and, not to be forgotten, is the tram car, the latest addition to our vehicular traffic, with its metallic road. Vastly improved, too, are the private carriages, models of elegance and lightness, while the eyes of preceding centuries would open wide with astonishment, could they behold the enor-

mous shire-horses, having nearly the strength and size of elephants. Courtesy itself, to strangers, is the policeman, the universal referee, who will tell you unerringly your direction, or what omnibus is suitable for you, or will with equal calmness stop an incipient brawl, or delay the whole traffic of a busy road in order to escort a little child across it.

Vastly improved, too, are the shops. When one is pulled down in a good thoroughfare a miniature palace is built, while the clubs, banks, insurance offices, and public buildings are often very fine specimens of architecture. The improvement made in the manufacture of glass no longer restricts its size, the small panes having given place to huge plates, perfectly pellucid. Instead of the old, smoky, flickering oil lamps, we have the shops and streets brilliantly lit by gas (first used in London for street lighting in August, 1807) or electricity. Trees are planted wherever the roads and sidewalks are wide enough, and the overhead electric wires are, as rapidly as possible, being buried under foot. Instead of rows of houses all one pattern and all drearily ugly, there is some attempt at diversity of architecture, which is particularly and pleasantly noticeable in the countless suburban villas; while the modern innovation in England of "the flat" must not pass unnoticed.

The interiors of the houses, in sanitation, decoration, and furniture, have vastly improved. This century is the century of the bath in England. Previously, I will not say it was not in existence, but its use was not universal. Now the very pauper, before he can get a night's lodging in the casual ward of a workhouse, must have a bath. Public baths and wash-houses are in every parish, and in every house, say, of £40 annual rent and upward, built during the last twenty years, there is a bathroom, besides the "tubs" in different bedrooms. Wall decorations are varied, according to fancy and means, but, undoubtedly, the wall papers of 1801 bear no comparison with those of 1894, in beauty of design. Parquet floors,¹⁸ or even borders, are improvements; and as to

furniture, the improvement in it in the same time is marvelous.

In the early century, there was but one wood used for furniture, and that was mahogany. The chairs and sofas, or couches, were very solid, very heavy, and very ugly, with scarcely a curve in them. To add to their ugliness, they were upholstered with black horsehair cloth, which when a bit worn was not pleasant to sit upon. Bell ropes, which had a knack of coming down when pulled, have given way to the neat and effective electric bell. The Englishman still clings to his open fireplace; the little starved things which emitted no heat have given place to others constructed on more economical and scientific principles, and which do warm the room; gas and electricity have entirely superseded the early century candle, which required constant snuffing.

The sanitary arrangements of the house were very unsatisfactory, and, undoubtedly led to much illness. The first step in the right direction was to connect every house with a main sewer, but we are only just awaking to the danger of old and faulty work in this department, and proper connections are enforced by law. In case of epidemics, it is compulsory to separate the sick from those that are well, and for that purpose large hospitals and ships are provided.

But what an Englishman looks at with some pride is the number of hospitals and charities which have sprung up spontaneously within the century, all either endowed by wealthy patrons or supported by voluntary contributions. There is not a disease but what has its special hospital; there are homes for convalescents, institutions for the helpless, cripples and incurables, the deaf, the dumb, and the blind, orphanages, waifs and strays, and helps for all kinds of erring humanity. But the millions of money thus spent fade beside the sums spent in restoring old cathedrals and churches, and building and endowing new churches and chapels. We have often admired and wondered at the munificence of our forefathers in this respect, but it pales before that of this age.

Free libraries, open places for recreation and relaxation, technical schools, literary institutions, have been given prodigally.

Yet money has not been spared from social enjoyment. Clubs, originated in the previous century, are no longer confined to the rich, and they are multiplying rapidly; not only the genial social club, but that not altogether unmixed blessing—the political club.

Dress, in this century, has had many mutations, although male costume has not suffered so much as female. This latter has been mainly influenced by the fashions obtaining in France; so that we find during the Consulate¹³ and Empire our ladies copied their French sisters in having very short, or no waists, and very tight skirts. As time went on, the opposite extreme was reached, and waists as long and as stiff as those of the time of Elizabeth were in vogue, with the *gigot*¹⁴ sleeve lately revived. About 1850, crinoline came into fashion, and had a long run, until about 1865, when the fair ones went to the opposite extreme, and the “eel skin” dress was in vogue; since then,

there have been no very special vagaries in dress. The most extraordinary headdress was the “Oldenburgh poke,” introduced here by the duchess of Oldenburgh (sister to the Emperor Nicholas of Russia) in 1814. This had a very high crown, to accommodate the very high tortoise shell combs then in use. Perhaps the next eccentricity in female head-gear was the “spoon bonnet,” coeval with crinoline. Hair has been dressed in all ways, the ugliest being the “chignon” of 1865.

Men’s dress, ordinarily, was quiet; the round hat came in with the century, first of felt, then of beaver, and, lastly, of silk; and this latter, for our sins, fashion compels us still to wear. Coats have been tight, loose, long, and short; and, for the legs, we have had breeches and stockings, tight pantaloons, and trousers (which came in about 1815) so wide as to be called “peg-tops,” and as tight as those that used to be worn by grooms and other horsey people; but England is said to set the fashion for gentlemen’s attire, throughout the world.

THE FRENCH CHAMBERS.*

BY PROFESSOR JOHN W. BURGESS, LL.D.

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WHILE it is not strictly necessary that the Legislature of the French Republic should be treated so fully from the point of view of history as the British Parliament or the German Federal Council, still we must, in this case also, have regard to the immediate, if not the remote, history of the genesis of the bodies which compose it. We must at least go back to the Convention which formed and established the constitution of the present Republic.

This Convention sprang from the necessities of France after the overthrow of the Napoleonic empire by the battle of Sedan in September of 1870. The capture of the Emperor Napoleon, and the rejection of the regency of the Empress Eugénie by the im-

perial Legislature, were followed by the organization of a provisory government by a set of men who simply assumed power, and to whose usurpation the people temporarily submitted from the necessity of the case. This submission was secured, however, most largely by the declaration that the new government was only provisory, and by the issue of a call to the people of France to elect by universal suffrage members to a constituent convention, into whose hands the provisory government would immediately surrender its powers.

The occupation of a large part of the territory of France, however, by the German armies, and the internal disturbances inevitable to a provisory government delayed the elections of the members of the Convention until February of 1871. After the

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

capture of the city of Paris by the German forces on January 28, 1871, the king of Prussia insisted upon the immediate holding of these elections, in order that France might furnish herself with a government with which a valid treaty of peace might be made. Gambetta was inclined to postpone them indefinitely in favor of the continuance of his own dictatorship, by means of which he still hoped to unite the power of France against the invaders; but the triumph of the German arms and the pressure brought upon Gambetta, both by the king of Prussia and by the branch of the provisory government which had remained in Paris after Gambetta went to Tours, finally moved Gambetta to order the elections. He undertook to disfranchise the Bonapartists in the elections. The king of Prussia, however, put a stop to this by declaring that he would make no treaty with any body that did not represent the entire population of France.

The elections were at last held February 8, 1871, on the basis of the universal suffrage of all male citizens twenty-one years of age; and the persons chosen met in convention at Bordeaux on the thirteenth day of the same month.

The first and most pressing business of this body was to reorganize government in France and treat with the Germans for their retirement from French territory. It immediately elected Thiers as president of the Convention and chief of the administration, and exercised under this form of organization all governmental power for the next five years. Having at last discharged these most pressing duties, the Convention took up, in the year 1875, the question of forming the constitution. It could not have done this before 1875, because down to that year the majority of the members of the Convention were opposed to the republic, but were not united among themselves as to any other form.

During the year 1875 the Convention passed the organic laws which together form the present constitution of the French Republic. The Convention did not submit these laws to a popular vote. The present French constitution does not, therefore, rest

upon the plebiscite.¹ Its authority and genuineness have not, however, been seriously questioned on that ground.

With this brief survey of the history of the origin of the Convention of 1871, we may now proceed to consider its work in the creation of the present Legislative Chambers of the French Republic.

I. THE COMPOSITION AND POWERS OF THE CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES.

(1.) *Its Composition.*

The members of the Chamber of Deputies are chosen for a term of five years by the universal suffrage of all male French citizens twenty-one years of age, and six months resident in the commune in which the vote is offered. Specially disqualified from voting are all persons convicted by the courts of certain crimes, all condemned by the courts to the loss of civil or political rights, all declared in bankruptcy, all condemned for vagabondage and mendicancy, and all subject to guardianship.

The elections are by secret ballot, direct vote and district ticket. The electoral district is the *arrondissement*, unless the population of the *arrondissement* exceeds one hundred thousand persons, in which case it is divided into two election districts. There are now five hundred and eighty-four members of the Chamber of Deputies, and but three hundred and sixty-two *arrondissements*, so that quite a number of the *arrondissements* are divided into two election districts. Notwithstanding this the more populous *arrondissements* are still in disadvantage as to representation, against the less populous. There is here some concession to the principle of local organization in the representation.

The French have vacillated somewhat between the principle of the district ticket in the election of the deputies and that of the general ticket, or the *scrutin de liste*, as they term it, meaning thereby the election of the deputies according to *départements*, each suffrage holder being allowed to vote for as many candidates as the *département* in which he may reside, might have representatives in the Chamber of Deputies. There are eighty-seven *départements* in France. In

many cases, therefore, under the principle of the *scrutin de liste*, each voter would be obliged to deposit a ticket containing at least ten names. The *scrutin de liste* was followed throughout the period of the Convention for the election of its members. The Convention itself, however, established the principle of the district ticket for the election of the members of the first Chamber of Deputies. In 1885 the principle of the *scrutin de liste* was adopted for these elections. Gambetta was strongly for it, because it would give his party machine a vast power in the nomination of the candidates throughout the country. He came near securing it before his death in 1882. Four years' experience with it, however, convinced the French Legislature that it left the voter almost helpless in the selection of his candidates. In 1889 it was again abolished, and at present the district ticket seems to be the well established principle.

The general qualifications for membership in the Chamber of Deputies are the right to vote and the attainment of the twenty-fifth year of age. Members of families that have reigned in France, military persons in active service, and certain civil officers are disqualified, the first permanently, the others temporarily, from seats in the Chamber although possessing the general qualifications.

(2.) *The Powers of the Chamber of Deputies.*

This body is entirely independent in its internal organization, electing its own bureau of officers, and establishing its own rules of discipline and procedure.

It possesses in all respects by the letter of the constitution equal legislative power with the Senate, and in one very important respect greater legislative power than the Senate, viz., in the initiation of financial legislation. This Chamber is empowered by the constitution to initiate such legislation, while the Senate is not so empowered. In fact this power is denied to the Senate by article 8 of the law relative to the organization of the Senate, which provides that all financial measures shall be first presented in the Chamber of Deputies and passed by that Chamber before going to the Senate. This means that either the president of the

republic or the Chamber of Deputies may originate such measures, but not the Senate, and that when the president originates them, they must be sent to the Chamber of Deputies first and be passed by it before being sent to the Senate.

In regard to all other subjects of legislation there is parity of powers, by the express provisions of the constitution, between the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. Nevertheless the Chamber of Deputies has undertaken to work itself, in practice, into the position of the British House of Commons. I will relate, briefly, the history and the result of that attempt under the subject of the Cabinet at the end of this paper.

II. THE COMPOSITION AND POWERS OF THE SENATE.

(1.) *The Composition of the Body.*

The Senate consists of three hundred members, chosen for a term of nine years by electoral colleges in the départements, upon the principle of the *scrutin de liste*. The electoral colleges of the départements for the choice of senators are composed of the councilors of the respective départements, the councilors of the arrondissements, into which each département is divided, representatives of the council of each commune within each département, and the members of the Chamber of Deputies from each département.

The councilors of the départements, arrondissements, and communes are the members of the administrative boards of these respective divisions. They are allelected by universal male adult suffrage and direct vote. The deputies from each département are elected by the same suffrage, as I have already stated.

The members of the French Senate are therefore chosen ultimately by popular suffrage, but exercised indirectly.

In regard to three of the four classes of the senatorial electors, the indirection is of one degree only. In the case of the other class, the representatives of the councils of the communities, the indirection is of two degrees.

The members of this class far outnumber those of the other three classes taken to-

gether, so that the general principle of the manner of electing the senators may be said to be indirect election at two removes from the original voters.

While thus we may say that the universal suffrage of the male adult resident citizens of France is the source out of which the Senate proceeds, we must explain that the corresponding principle of the apportionment of the representation according to population does not prevail in the distribution of the seats in the senatorial electoral colleges nor in the Senate itself. The less populous communes have a relatively larger representation in these electoral colleges than the more populous, and the less populous départements have a relatively larger representation in the Senate than the more populous.

The apportionment of the representation in the Senate is thus seen to have large regard to community organization. This is very important, and very sound political science. The communities are the products of natural forces. They are the underpinning of the entire political order, and slight differences in population ought to give way before the historic principle of commune equality, at least in the distribution of the representation in one of the legislative Chambers. It is a conservative principle of great value. It must not, however, be insisted upon to an extreme degree. It is not so insisted upon in the apportionment of the seats in the French Senate.

The least populous département of France, according to the last census, contained one hundred and fifteen thousand persons, and is represented by one senator, while the most populous contained about three million people and is represented by ten senators.

Any commune in France no matter how small the population, and there are communes with no more than one hundred residents, sends one representative to the senatorial electoral college of the département in which it may be situated; while the city of Paris, with a population of two and a half millions of people, has less than two hundred representatives in the senatorial college of the Département of the Seine. In fact the city of Paris, as a commune, is entitled to send but about thirty

representatives to the senatorial electoral college of the Département of the Seine. The larger number is owing to the fact that Paris is virtually the Département of the Seine, and the communal councilors of Paris are also departmental councilors of the Département of the Seine. They therefore sit individually, as well as by representation, in the senatorial electoral college of the Département of the Seine.

There is no question that this very moderate and modified recognition of the principle of communal equality in the distribution of the representation in the Senate is a great offense to the French radical democracy. Their principle is representation according to population in both Chambers, and we may expect strenuous and continuous efforts from that quarter for a further reform of the present custom in the direction of mathematical politics.

When the Senate was created by the constitutional law of February, 1875, one fourth of its members were chosen for life terms by the Convention which made the constitution, and any vacancies in these life-sensorships were to be filled by the Senate itself. The National Assembly of 1884 abolished this provision, and the vacancies in the life sensorships have since then been filled in the manner provided for the other sensorships. There are still in the Senate a number of the life senators, elected before 1884, but the number is rapidly decreasing, and they will all soon disappear, since the qualifications necessary to the attainment of membership in the Senate, while in most respects those required for membership in the other Chamber, demand the completion of the fortieth year of age.

The election of the senators by the *scrutin de liste* is the one method which has been followed without change from the first. It has been found to work without difficulty in the case of those elections. In the first place, the electoral body is a comparatively well body; it is composed of men above the average voter in intelligence; and it is all assembled in one place. There is little danger that it will be controlled by a machine. In the second place, the Senate

changes by thirds, once in three years, and since the majority of the départements elect but three senators in all, the colleges of a majority of the départements may be called upon to elect only one senator at a time.

The *scrutin de liste* also gives the département a sort of recognition in the manner of electing the senators. It is a little balance to the intense centralization, in most respects, of the governmental system of the French Republic.

(2.) *The Powers of the Senate.*

The French Senate is the only Upper House in the great states of the world which enjoys an organization as entirely independent of the executive department of the government as the Lower House possesses.

The French Senate elects its own bureau of officers from the president to the door-keeper, determines its own rules of discipline, and enacts its own code of parliamentary procedure.

It is a judicial body for trying the president of the republic for high treason, the ministers for crimes committed in the execution of their offices, and anybody accused of an attack upon the public security. Of these functions I do not need to speak in detail in this paper, which purposes to deal with this Chamber only as a legislative body.

As a general principle it has, according to the letter of the constitution, parity of powers in legislation with the Chamber of Deputies, except in the initiation of bills relating to the finances. Such bills must, as I have already said, originate either in the Chamber of Deputies or with the president of the republic, and if with the president of the republic must be presented first to the Chamber of Deputies and passed by this body before being transmitted to the Senate. The Senate has claimed full power to amend such bills and reject them *in toto*. The Chamber of Deputies has denied such a power to the Senate to the extent claimed, but has in practice accepted many amendments to its financial bills made in the Senate.

This is another question which will probably give rise to many contests in the future.

III. THE MODE OF LEGISLATION.

THE process of legislation in the French Chambers is very simple. Each Chamber may initiate legislation upon any subject, as I have just said, except the finances; and a bill upon any subject whatsoever must be passed in all its parts by a majority vote in both Chambers in order to become a law. This is not only necessary, but it is also sufficient, i. e., the president of the republic has no veto power upon the legislation of the Chambers. The constitution provides a period of thirty days between the passage of the law by the Chambers and its necessary promulgation by the president of the republic, and reduces this period to three days in case the Chamber should vote that promulgation is urgent. Within these respective periods the president of the republic may demand of the Chambers a reconsideration of the measure, and they are required by the constitution to accord the request. If they repass the measure by majority vote, the president must yield and promulgate the law.

The Chambers can also initiate the call of the national assembly for the purpose of amending or revising the constitution. The chief question which has arisen in the exercise of this power is whether the Chambers can limit the action of the national assembly by their agreement beforehand upon the subjects in regard to which the constitution may be amended or revised. The affirmative view of this question would be a security to the rights and powers of the smaller body, the Senate, since the national assembly is composed of the members of the two Chambers in joint assembly, but the more numerous deputies have espoused with great unanimity the negative view; and it must be recognized that they have the logic of the matter with them. The national assembly is the sovereign power in the constitution and cannot be limited, therefore, by a branch of the government, or even by the whole government, in its action. The national assembly may consider any subject it will when once it is organized. The Chambers in joint assembly also elect the president of the republic.

The process of legislation cannot, how-

ever, be completely understood without an accurate knowledge of the French Cabinet and its relation to the Chambers.

The French ministry, or Cabinet, is created by the constitution in those provisions which declare that every act of the president of the republic must be countersigned by a minister, that the president is irresponsible except for the commission of high treason, and that the ministers are collectively responsible to the Chambers for the general policy of the government and individually responsible for their own personal acts.

These provisions require thus the appointment of ministers, their action as a body, and their responsibility to the Legislature for the acts of the president in the administration of the government. Whatever power the president has to participate in legislation must therefore be exercised through them, and their responsibility in the exercise of such power is to the Chambers.

Now the president of the republic is empowered by the constitution to call the Chambers to an extra session; to adjourn the Chambers twice during the same session, and for as long as one month each time; to prorogue the Chambers after they shall have sat in regular session for five months; to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, with the consent of the Senate; to propose to the Chambers to resolve themselves into joint or national assembly; to initiate every form of legislation upon all subjects; to require of the Chambers a reconsideration of any measure passed by them; and to promulgate the laws. All these things he must do through a minister or the ministry, and the minister or ministry is responsible for them to the Chambers.

Now, so far as the letter of the constitution is concerned, the president of the republic may select his ministers at his own pleasure and is not confined to the membership of the Chambers; and according to the express mandate of the constitution, the ministers and the ministry are responsible to the *two* Chambers, not to either exclusively. The question is whether the administration of government under responsibility to the Legislature can be worked according

to such principles. Let us consult the experience of the present French Republic itself upon the subject.

Marshal MacMahon was the president of the republic when the present constitution came into force. He had a sort of ministry, which he had constituted while the Convention was still sitting, under the leadership of Buffet [büf-fä], who was in politics a monarchist. The majority in the first Chamber of Deputies returned under the new constitution proved to be republican, but in the Senate the monarchists still controlled, as they had done in the Convention down to the moment of the establishment of the constitution and the dissolution of the Convention.

The president dismissed Buffet and called Dufaure [dü-fore] to form a new ministry. Dufaure was a republican and a member of the Chamber of Deputies. His colleagues in the new ministry were also republicans and were members of the Chamber of Deputies.

If any principle was to be generalized from this procedure, it was that the ministry must agree politically with the majority in the Chamber of Deputies, and be members of one of the Chambers, if not of the Chamber of Deputies alone, and must resign when they lose the support of the majority in the Chamber of Deputies.

The Senate immediately repudiated the idea that the control of the administration was exclusively in the Chamber of Deputies and asserted equal powers in this respect with the Chamber of Deputies. An excited and prolonged debate upon the subject in both Chambers followed; and President MacMahon, who was at heart a monarchist, thought to take advantage of the confusion in the legislative bodies, and appointed the Duc de Broglie [dük deh brö'y], a strong legitimist, to form a new ministry. The Deputies immediately voted distrust of the new ministry. President MacMahon adjourned the Chambers for a month. Upon their reassembly, he, with the consent of the Senate, dissolved the Chamber of Deputies. Despite the interference of the administration, the republicans won the majority of

the seats in the new elections. These elections were held on the 14th of October (1877). President MacMahon did not, however, dismiss the De Broglie ministry, but sought to govern by the aid of the Senate. The Orleanist party in the Senate, however, refused to sustain this view of the relation of the Cabinet to the Chambers, and De Broglie resigned.

President MacMahon then called General Rochebonès [rôsh-bon-â] to form a ministry. Rochebonès was not a member of either Chamber. He, by the direction of the president of course, selected colleagues who were not members of either Chamber. The Deputies resolved at once not to recognize the acts or the existence of such a ministry and delayed the passage of the budget. The president saw that he must yield or try a *coup d' état*.² On the thirteenth of December he gave way, called Dufaure to form a new ministry, and empowered him to rule in agreement with the majority of the Chamber of Deputies. From that day to this it has never been questioned that the ministers must be members of one of the Chambers, and must rule in harmony with the majority in the Chamber of Deputies.

The question of to-day is whether the ministry must also possess the confidence of the majority of the Senate. According to the letter of the constitution it must; and at least one ministry, that of M. Tirard in 1890, resigned upon an adverse vote in the Senate. In this case, however, the ministerial policy was laid before the Senate without having been previously presented to the Chamber of Deputies, and the ministry resigned without consulting this Chamber at all.

No ministry which has formally received the support of the Chamber of Deputies

upon any project has resigned because of the opposition of the Senate. If the practice can be said to have settled this point as yet, it must be said that the ministry need not resign on account of not having the confidence of the Senate. The Senate disputes the principle naturally, but yields to the practice. The practice must ultimately prevail without dispute, if parliamentary government is to be the settled form of administration in the French system, for the control of the administration by *two* legislative bodies will so lame the administration as to produce anarchy and chaos. Double deliberation in legislation is a sound principle, but double control of the administration is an impossibility in good political science, and fatal confusion and weakness in political practice.

But if such be the relation of the ministry and the ministers to the Legislature in the French system, then the ministry becomes simply a committee of the leaders of the party in majority in the Chamber of Deputies, and the Chamber of Deputies acquires through it all the powers of the president of the republic in legislation. The result of this will of course be the ultimate overthrow of the parity of powers between the two Chambers, and the reduction of the Senate to a more or less subordinate position as a legislative body, as the majority in the Chamber of Deputies sees fit to make a more or less radical use of its powers and opportunities. I am afraid this is the line along which the relations between the Chambers, and between the Chambers and the ministry, will develop in the future. If it is, both the Senate and the presidency of the republic will soon begin to appear to the radical logic of the French in the light of superfluities.

THE QUESTION OF MADAGASCAR.

BY MAURICE ORDINAIRE.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DE PARIS."

A COLONIAL contest lasting for nearly three centuries and still awaiting decision: Such is the question of Madagascar. The relations of ancient France with the Island of Dauphiny, as it was called, are now only a matter of curious interest. The interior relations of the great island, the conditions under which France now regulates the action of its colonies, are no longer the same. We ought to draw a useful lesson from the history of the privileged companies and the bold adventurers who in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries attempted, generally with more courage than method, to colonize Madagascar.

The check to these attempts at colonization on the part of the French at the end of the eighteenth century was complete. There remained to us not more than two or three posts upon the eastern shore,—the most modest of establishments,—and these were destroyed during the wars of the empire. After 1815, when Sir R. Farquhar, the first English governor of Mauritius, had the audacity to claim Madagascar as a dependency of his government, we had only some historic rights to defend. The cabinet of London recognized them with good enough grace. But France ceased from that time to be without a rival in the Indian Ocean. She was, besides, to find competitors upon the very soil of the island.

In spite of the proximity of Africa the population of Madagascar came in great part originally from distant India. In spite of frequent marriages with the negroes and the Arabians of the African coast, many of these half breed tribes preserved the traits of the Malay race. It is especially among the Hovas that the Malay characteristics are apparent. This race was crowded back toward the central plateau, a region relatively cold and slightly fertile, where it occupied itself in war and in work. Up to the end of

the eighteenth century unknown in Europe, it remained confined in its province of Imerina. At this time a chief united the different Hova tribes and shook off the yoke of the Sakalavas, of whom they were the vassals.

In 1810 this chief's son Radama I. succeeded him, and under his leadership the Hova people became the conquering race. It has many a time been related how Sir R. Farquhar, jealous of the French power in the great island which he had not been able to add to the possessions of England, favored the ambition of Radama, furnishing him with arms, with military instruction and political councilors, and officially recognizing in him the title of the king of Madagascar.

This policy has not ceased to be that of the English. The Hovas willingly accept a co-operation which helps on their designs, but they never entirely desist from the defiant distrust with which they treat all foreigners, even the English, their apparently disinterested protectors. This sentiment broke forth once against the latter into a violent reaction. At the death of Radama in 1828 all reforms of European origin were abandoned; treaties were broken, missionaries were driven out, merchants were insulted; and Madagascar was closed to the influence of English missionaries until the end of the reign of Ranavaloa I., the widow of Radama, who died in 1861. This English influence was greatly increased in 1868 by the conversion of the queen, Ranavaloa II., and of the prime minister to Protestantism, which became the religion of the state and spread rapidly among the people of Imerina, the province of the Hovas.

To this persevering policy of the English, meanwhile, France made no opposition. The government of the Restoration had allowed Radama to accomplish the ruin of the last of our establishments upon the eastern side, Tintingue, Foul Point, Fort Dauphin.

France had to content itself in 1822 with occupying the island of Sainte-Marie and with attempting in 1829 some tardy reprisals which the revolution of 1830 interrupted.

Under the July monarchy¹ the interests of France appeared to Madagascar, as well as to other lands, intimately blended with those of England, as an Anglo-French squadron bombarded Tamatava, a seaport of that island, in 1845. The second empire had other matters on hand to occupy its attention than Madagascar. A stroke of fortune, however, gave France a privileged position. Several Frenchmen, notably Messrs. Lambert and Labord, very influential in the court of Queen Ranavaloa, were on terms of intimate friendship with Prince Rakout, the heir to the throne. At the death of the queen, the prince, having become Radama II., signed a charter which accorded to a French society very important concessions. But this project, imprudently noised abroad, had awakened the national suspicion of the Hovas. Radama II. died May 11, 1862, the victim of a conspiracy, of which the English residents seem not to have been ignorant. The Lambert charter was immediately denounced and the imperial government satisfied itself with an indemnity. The affair of the Lambert charter had been only an adventure and the influence of France at Tananarivo, the capital of Ankova, the territory of the Hovas, was almost destroyed.

The acquisition of a new colonial empire after 1870 was inspired by a political rather than economic idea. At the same time that it was reconstructing its continental power, the republic sought occasion to restore its prestige abroad. Forgotten titles and rights were resought and proclaimed. In this excess of colonial fever too much was undertaken without a well defined plan, without a careful study of the consequences, without being resigned beforehand to the necessary sacrifices, which render distant conquests so easy to an old colonial power.

Our intervention in Madagascar suffered greatly from unfavorable circumstances. The ancient rights of France in the island were only a memory. It had indeed at one time seemed to have renounced them completely,

by recognizing Radama II. as king of the whole island in exchange for the Lambert charter. But our claims in 1882 rested upon more recent and quite different titles. We had against the Hovas numerous grievances. Since our misfortunes of 1870 they had ignored our rights; all treaties had been violated. Besides, Protestant teaching had been made obligatory, in spite of the clause in the treaty of 1868, proclaiming liberty to Catholic instruction. To all of these a still graver cause of disturbance was added. The French governor of Réunion had occupied, upon the western coast, the island of Nossi-Be, and had made a treaty with the Sakalava chiefs, establishing a protectorate. Repeated attempts of the Hovas to impose their authority over the chiefs thus placed under the protection of France, were the direct cause of the conflict.

Public opinion was favorable to energetic action and the Chamber of Deputies encouraged it by an almost unanimous vote. But the government, embarrassed by the unexpected prolongation of hostilities with China, could not send to Madagascar sufficient forces. For three years hostilities were feebly carried on. In 1885 the treaty of peace with China set us at liberty. Meantime, distant expeditions had lost favor with the public, and M. de Freycinet, who had just succeeded Jules Ferry, decided to settle with Madagascar. On December 17, 1885, a treaty of peace was signed.

By this treaty France recognized the queen of the Hovas as sovereign of all the islands, and renounced its protectorate over the Sakalavas of the northwest. It also yielded the right of allowing its natives to acquire property there, and contented itself with stipulating for them long leases and contracts for working people. In exchange for these concessions it was agreed that a resident, installed in Tananarivo with a military escort, should preside over the foreign relations of Madagascar, without interfering with the interior administration of the different states. France also reserved the right of occupying the bay of Diego Suarez, a magnificent military port situated on the northern part of the island, "and of creating

there the establishments that it may consider desirable."

It will be seen that the political idea which inspired this negotiation was a very tenable one. The plan of using the Hova element, superior to the other tribes in intelligence, in civilization, in cohesiveness,—being the only one which presented an embryo of organization—in order to extend our domination over the island, many persons were inclined to think the best possible. This object would be gained by granting them full interior control. At the same time, by guarding the right to preside over all the foreign relations of the island, thus being the intermediary between it and foreign powers, we should preserve the very essence of a protectorate. But we yielded upon the very points which had been the cause of the conflict, and, to increase the mortification of our position, the French plenipotentiaries had the weakness to sign an agreement which limited to fifty men the escort of the resident general and to the distance of a mile and a half at the south of the bay our territory of Diego Suarez.

Even thus restricted, our rights have been absolutely disregarded by the Hovas. The French resident general during nine years has not been able to exercise the single prerogative conferred upon him, that of presiding over the foreign relations of Madagascar. The question began to assume importance in 1887 when a new United States consul asked for an *exequatur*.² In spite of all he could do M. le Myre de Vilers, our resident general, could only obtain from the prime minister a promise that the order should be issued by the government and delivered by its agent. The French government, though taking no aggressive steps, would not accept of such an arrangement.

M. Ribot, the minister of foreign affairs thought to settle the long standing difficulty by obtaining from England and then from Germany in the convention held at Zanzibar in August, 1890, the recognition of our protectorate over Madagascar. Only on this condition would he assent to the British protectorate over Zanzibar; and thus he carried his point with its consequences. The blow

was a rough one for the disputatious English colony at Tananarivo. Certain English statesmen have scarcely yet been able to pardon Lord Salisbury for this "treason."

The Hova government thought the time for war had come. But, the first excitement past, our resident general found himself obliged to meet the same action as before on the part of the prime minister. In 1891 the German consul loyally applied to the French intermediary for his *exequatur*. But the Hova government refused to recognize our protectorate, and the consul is still waiting. England has avoided squarely meeting the measures of the convention of 1890 up to this time by sending to Madagascar only such officials as can do without an *exequatur*. In fact, all the powers, seeing that the prime minister pays no regard to the affairs which are brought to his notice through our resident, have ceased trying to hold official relations with him.

It will readily be seen that the representative of France under these conditions can have not the slightest influence over the interior administration of the island. Except the construction of a telegraph line from Tamatava to Tananarivo, at the expense of the French treasury, the organization of a postal service, the erection of residences at the principal centers of population, and the creation at Tamatava of a civil tribunal for the use of Europeans, no material ameliorations, no social or administrative reforms, have been effected in Madagascar. A glance at the interior situation of the island will show how urgent such reforms are.

When after a dreary journey of six or seven days through the wild country, broken by torrents and swamps, inhabited by miserable and degraded people, the traveler comes in sight of Tananarivo, the first view of this city of one hundred thousand souls, with its palaces and its churches, surprises him.

The same contrast is to be found in the institutions of the Hova people. Its educators, the English missionaries, who uphold the Hovas in their stand against the French, have long succeeded in masking its

rudimentary, not to say barbarous state behind the false display of a court, of numerous ministers, of bedizened uniforms, a penal code, and other puerile imitations of European civilization.

The Hova government, as it really exists, is very simple. A single man, the prime minister, unites in himself all the powers. This institution dates from Ranavaloa I. One of the favorites of the queen founded a veritable dynasty of "mayors of the palace" who for forty years directed the government. In 1862, after the death of the queen, he became the soul of a conspiracy which overthrew the new king. Then his brother, Rainilaiarivony, supplanted him, and married the queen. On the death of the queen, he, the prime minister, married her successor Ranavaloa II., and on her death in 1883, he married her successor, Ranavaloa III. The order of the succession to the throne is not defined. It is this modern Blue-Beard, a very intelligent and shrewd Asiatic, eloquent, relatively honest in the midst of corruption, who has given to the functions of the prime minister their actual character.

Of the four million inhabitants of Madagascar, about one fourth are Hovas, who live in the province of Imerina. This province possesses a special administrative organization founded upon castes. The rest of the island is divided into eleven provinces, each one having at its head a governor. But the authority of the Hovas extends in a greater or less degree over this immense territory. The simplicity of this system in a country so primitive makes it a good one, for most of the governors are neither intelligent nor educated. Unfortunately, administration is affected by the institutions which are the sources of odious abuses,—gratuity of the government offices, salary, and the *corvée*.⁴

The governors, not being paid, remunerate themselves, which is an easy thing to do provided they themselves collect the taxes. The result is that only a small part of the sums received go into the public treasury.

Slavery in very widespread. In Imerina, for instance, the greater part of the popula-

tion is under subjection. But the slaves have, in general, the liberty of coming and going and retaining the greater part of their earnings. As they are often attached to the land the sale of slaves is rare. They have, moreover, the right of redeeming themselves which they seldom use, though, fearing the freedom which would deliver them over to two obligations still more severe, military service and the *corvée*.

Slavery, although relatively mild, is not less a notable obstacle to the moral and economical development of the people. But nothing approaches the abuse engendered by the *corvée*. It is a most exacting form of taxation. It is applied to all work, that of the mind as well as that of the arm. Its chief characteristic is that it is absolutely undetermined and arbitrary. Thus all the population of a region, can, without indemnity and at the risk of perishing from hunger, be set at any public work, such as that of the mines, for example. A skilled workman may be summoned, and if his talent has the misfortune to please, may be retained indefinitely by means of the *corvée*. If it is added that the *corvée* is chiefly exacted by the officials for their own personal use it will be understood to what degree it can stop all progress.

There is actually no remedy for these evils. Madagascar is helpless because its government is compelled to submit to the wishes of the Hovas, and they have no other ideal or care than to prevent the birth, upon their soil, of European interests which might serve to bring about any foreign intervention whatever. The other tribes do not share in this distrust of foreigners. Not only the Malagasians, who hate the oppressive Hovas, but even the masses of Imerina, whose lot is a very hard one, would accept with gladness any reform.

The policy of isolation has produced the natural effect. Commerce is languishing. Not less opposed to all progress are the obstacles placed against the agricultural and industrial enterprises of the Europeans. The Hova government is, it is true, relatively prodigal of concessions from which it can draw an immediate benefice under the form

of securities and gifts; but only a very few of the Europeans who have obtained them have been able to derive any advantage from them on account of the rigor of the conditions imposed or some other circumstances which render so difficult the colonization of Madagascar.

Thus these useful privileges conceded to the English or Americans only become one shackle more upon commerce.

The situation in which France is placed cannot be prolonged without grave inconvenience. Mortifying on account of the diplomatic embarrassment to which it subjects us, perilous because of the responsibilities which rest upon the nation which has assumed the protectorate of the island, it is also causing us the loss of much precious time. Around our useless possession, upon the borders of the Indian Ocean, a European world is rising. Australia is becoming a powerful state; the Cape^s is being settled with extreme rapidity. Such examples show us what is the fate awaiting those colonial powers who are not able to take advantage of their possessions. If we wish to keep Madagascar, which is a strategic point of the first order and which with its neighboring islands might become a little French world in language and customs, it is necessary for us to hasten to open it to colonization.

One thing which ought to assure us is that the natives, gentle and docile, are exceptionally apt in assimilation. Even among the Hovas this latter trait is noticeable. They are economic, are well fitted for commerce, are patient and laborious agriculturists, and intelligent workmen, although, like all Asiatics, imitators rather than inventors. Finally, many among them have received a certain amount of instruction and under the right control would form an exceedingly useful intermediary between our civilization and the more ignorant parts of the population.

It remains to be decided when and how there can be established a reforming guardianship, humane and beneficent, and which

will also be profitable to the interests of France. It cannot be reasonably hoped that the present prime minister will change his views; but he is old. What will happen on his death? Already the succession is the object of numerous competitions. But these questions can have little profit for us as long as the best disposed ministry would be unable to change the policy without the support of a French garrison.

While waiting, the interior condition of Madagascar grows worse from day to day. The prime minister, in order to meet his financial difficulties, had, in 1892, to order a new direct tax. This arbitrary and vexatious levy has caused numerous insurrections and increased the number of brigands (recruited among fugitive slaves, deserted soldiers, and countrymen flying from the *corvée*), who unite in bands to attack villages and rob travelers. Europeans are not spared; last year two Frenchmen were assassinated, one of whom was the explorer Muller. Almost every mail brings news of some conflict. At the end of the year 1893, M. Develle took the precaution of interdicting the importation of arms to Madagascar. Last March M. Casimer-Perier, then president of the council, demanded and obtained a grant which has served to reinforce our garrisons at Diego Suarez and at Réunion.

It is doubtless unnecessary to see in this increase of the military force anything more than a matter of precaution. The Hovas greatly fear war, but they are convinced that they are out of our reach and that our patience has no limits. France certainly does not desire new colonial expeditions. That to Madagascar is not seductive. But public opinion resigns itself with good grace to the vigorous measures which necessity lays upon it. It is to the government at Imerina that belongs the settlement of the question whether this demonstration is necessary or useless. M. le Myre de Vilers but recently set out for this province in order to obtain its answer. Let us hope that it will be favorable.

A CHRISTMAS MEDITATION.

BY BISHOP JOHN H. VINCENT.

"And they came with haste and found both Mary and Joseph and the babe lying in the manger, and when they saw it they made known concerning the saying which was spoken to them about this child."

—*Luke ii., 16, 17.*

THERE was nothing so very remarkable in what these shepherds saw. It was not an unusual thing to turn a stable into an inn for the temporary accommodation to travelers during a crowded season, but it was what the shepherds saw and what they heard before that gave significance to this vision of the mother and her babe in the city of Bethlehem. It was the angel of the Lord who stood by them and the glory of the Lord that shone round about them, and the words which the angels spoke about good tidings of great joy and the birth in the city of David of a Savior which is Christ the Lord, and the multitude of the heavenly host that appeared with the angel praising God—these are the things that gave significance to the scene in that lowly stable of that lowly town.

Having heard the speech of the angel and the song of the heavenly host they made sure that this vision of the night was not merely a vision. What if after all this exaltation there should be no babe in the manger at Bethlehem? There was in what the angels said to them an implied command that they should corroborate by personal observation the testimony given. The angel said, "Ye shall find a babe wrapped in swaddling clothes and lying in a manger." That was equivalent to a command, and so the shepherds said when the angels went away from them into heaven, "Let us now go even unto Bethlehem and see this thing that is come to pass which the Lord hath made known unto us." To the words of the angel and the song of the multitude they added personal investigation; and it was after they were fully convinced concerning the saying which was spoken to them about this child that they made known the wonderful story to others.

Christianity came to the world to bless

the world; to provide a Savior—an anointed Savior, a divine Savior—Christ the Lord. Good tidings of great joy indeed to all people was the announcement that for humanity there was a divine deliverer; that God was to be glorified by man's appropriation of his gift; that on earth there was to be peace because of the manifestation of God's glory; that there was to be a union between heaven and earth; that God's good will to man was to be unequivocally expressed; that man's good will was to be promoted. Verily this song is a prophecy of the coming kingdom. In the New Revision there is a slight change in the rendering of the angel's song, "Glory to God in the highest and on earth peace among men in whom He is well pleased." They only can be at peace who are as to character, spirit, and conduct "well pleasing" to God. Only the peace which comes from the divine approval is true peace. Here we have the divine ideal of character and the divine ideal of a perfect humanity.

Christianity works for the race through the individual. Its ministry is to the world at large, to society as a whole, but to reach the multitude as a unity Christianity must address itself to the individual and gain full possession of him that he may be well pleasing to God. Individual regeneration and growth is the law of Christian life. No wonder then that the shepherds told to their fellow-men this wonderful story. It was good enough to tell. It was too good a story to keep. They had ample demonstration of the truth of it, and they already anticipated the mission of a church to be fulfilled in obeying the Savior's last command, "Preach this gospel to every creature."

The angels sang this song of good cheer to humanity in the ears of representative men—simple, sincere, hard-working men,

shepherds of Judea—and why not? A man with horny hands may have the voice of God within his heart and as he may love his prattling babe and his faithful wife he may love God and his neighbor in sincerity and in truth. Men of common sort are quite able to understand the simple things of the gospel. It was therefore not waste of truth for angels in the heavenly places to sing within the hearing of shepherds watching their flocks by night the glories of the new kingdom and the end it was destined to achieve.

Human learning and wealth and dignity may undervalue the capacity and ability of what are known as the lower classes of society. A man in financial poverty, a plebeian, the lowest plowman, does have all the elements necessary to the recognition of truth, the sense of sin, the unrest of guilt, and the peace and triumph of grace. Therefore the gospel goes to all men and it really comes not as an after fruit of human culture but as a very first step of preparation for all true development and enrichment. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom. We should not wait until men can read and write and appreciate art before giving to them the treasures of the gospel of Christ, for that gospel should come at the very beginning. Tell the story of the gospel to the illiterate, to the degraded, to the outcast, to the discouraged, to the impotent.

After the shepherds came to Bethlehem—we do not know how long after—the wise men from the East came. They were unlike the shepherds. They lived in a larger world. They represented the scholarship and aspiration of their age. They too had a vision in the heavens, and like the shepherds they followed it. What was to the shepherds an angel was to the wise men a star. Culture and ignorance go to the same shrine. The want of the human soul is a common want. The king, the peasant, the wise man, the shepherd, all have need of the same thing. Jesus came to meet this universal need of humanity. Shepherds with their feet and garments damp with the dew of the early morning, the breath of peace and wonder on their lips, offered what they had at the same shrine where later on the great

men of the East brought gold, and frankincense, and myrrh. The educated man must find pardon and help precisely where and as the ignorant man receives it. The more a man knows—if he be a truly wise as well as a knowing man—the further he is willing to go for truth's sake.

This song of the ideal kingdom, when peace and good will should dwell in the earth and God be glorified in the thought, purposes, and affections of men, awakened the shepherds to personal desire which took form in a resolve. "Let us now go even unto Bethlehem," they said, "and see this thing that is come to pass which the Lord hath made known to us." It is one thing to see visions, it is another thing to see reality. It is one thing to feel the supernatural and spiritual impulses which come to us from the invisible world, it is another thing to recognize in material form the historic reality of which the spiritual impulse is a foregleam and foretaste. These men came to Bethlehem. They entered the stable and found the babe and His mother. Whatever they may have detected in the serenity of her face and the divine light that shone in the eyes and about the brow of the wonderful babe, certainly their faith was established in the fuller revelation of the angels concerning the character and the mission of this the babe of Bethlehem.

What the shepherds of Bethlehem did we should do. It is the privilege of every man to taste for himself the promises of God as made known through Jesus Christ. Personal experience of the gospel is the demand of our times. External Christianity fulfills its mission, but without subjective experience it is as useless as a physical body in which the light of the soul has been extinguished. The real life is the life within—the life of truth, of conviction, of fear, of hope, of passion, of longing, of love. Externalities of faith and worship must reproduce themselves in internalities of experience. The soul thirsts for rest from the guilt of sin, from the morbid excitements of passion, from the false ambitions of carnal life. Christianity is an interior illumination and dominion. It gives rest of spirit, pardon of

sin, peace with God, victory over evil desire, and begets within the soul that submits itself to the divine control abiding love, all dominating love, radiant, joyful, triumphant love, by which man on earth dwells in the very atmosphere of the heavens. The arguments in favor of Christianity are not to be found in the processes of logic, in the demonstration of mathematics, in the well established facts of external history, but in the personal experience of pardon and peace and purity.

How much more we have who live on the verge of the twentieth century than did the simple shepherds of Bethlehem at the beginning of the first century of our era! We have Bethlehem still standing on the crown of the old hill in southern Judea, the plain of the shepherds stretching out from its base, the blue sky of Syria bending like a dome over the land of promise. We have the story of the babe—His sweetness, His purity, His growth in stature and wisdom and grace, but we have the history of the **MAN**—the peerless man whose name is the most illustrious—a name above every name that is named. In all these twenty centuries of human history we have the story of His life, His works, the signs He wrought, the gracious words that fell from His lips, the story of His precious death and burial, His glorious resurrection, and the coming of the Holy Ghost whose ministries He promised. We have the history of His church, the heroes who have lived and died in the defense of the faith, the victories accomplished by the Cross and the Word and the

Spirit, victories over races and kingdoms. We have the civilization which is the ripe product of His life; the institutions of philanthropy and education erected as products of His own power and righteousness, and even now in the heart of every man who will accept it there is the witness full of life and power to the fact that there has come to the world a Savior who is Christ the Lord.

The outer world is real; the inner world is real. Blessed is the life that finds harmony without and harmony within, the light filling the earth from the sun in the physical heaven, and the light filling the soul from the Sun of righteousness which is the center of the spiritual heaven. There is a summer fragrance filling the atmosphere of this material world; there is a sweeter fragrance which the soul inhales when it receives the delicious breath from the Spirit of the living and gracious God.

On this Christmas day do we go to our spiritual Bethlehem? Do we see the reality of Christ as our Savior, and do we go forth as did the shepherds full of new light to make known concerning the saying which has been spoken to us in the inmost life concerning this child, this man, this Savior, this present deliverer from the guilt and power of sin, this anointed one through whom on Christmas days and on all days of all the years we may receive the anointing from above? A blessed Christmas to every reader whose eyes shall be opened to see the mysteries of this present kingdom of our Lord and Savior Jesus Christ.

THE WORLD'S DEBT TO ASTRONOMY.*

BY PROFESSOR SIMON NEWCOMB, LL. D.

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ASTRONOMY is more intimately connected than any other science with the history of mankind. While chemistry, physics, and we might say all sciences which pertain to things on the earth, are comparatively modern, we find that contem-

plative men engaged in the study of the celestial motions even before the commencement of authentic history. The earliest navigators of whom we know must have been aware that the earth was round. This fact was certainly understood by the ancient Greeks and Egyptians, as well as it is at the

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

present day. True, they did not know that the earth revolved on its axis, but thought that the heavens and all that in them is performed a daily revolution around our globe, which was, therefore, the center of the universe. It was the cynosure,¹ or constellation of the Little Bear, by which the sailors used to guide their ships before the discovery of the mariner's compass. Thus we see both a practical and contemplative side to astronomy through all history. The world owes two debts to that science; one for its practical uses, and the other for the ideas it has afforded us of the immensity of creation.

The practical uses of astronomy are of two kinds: One relates to geography; the other to times, seasons, and chronology. Every navigator who sails long out of sight of land must be something of an astronomer. His compass tells him where are east, west, north, and south, but it gives him no information as to where on the wide ocean he may be, or whither the currents may be carrying him. Even with the swiftest modern steamers it is not safe to trust to the compass in crossing the Atlantic. A number of years ago the steamer *City of Washington* set out on her usual voyage from Liverpool to New York. By rare bad luck the weather was stormy or cloudy during her whole passage, so that the captain could not get a sight on the sun, and therefore had to trust to his compass and his log line, the former telling him in what direction he had steamed, and the latter how fast he was going each hour. The result was that the ship ran ashore on the coast of Nova Scotia, when the captain thought he was approaching New York.

Not only the navigator but the surveyor in the western wilds must depend on astronomical observations to learn his exact position on the earth's surface, or the latitude and longitude of the camp which he occupies. He is able to do this because the earth is round, and the direction of the plumb line not exactly the same at any two places. Let us suppose that the earth stood still, so as not to revolve on its axis at all. Then we should always see the stars at rest

and the star which was in the zenith of any place, say a farmhouse in New York, at any time, would be there every night and every hour of the year. Now the zenith is simply the point from which the plumb line seems to drop. Lie on the ground; hang a plummet above your head, sight on the line with one eye, and the direction of the sight will be the zenith of your place. Suppose the earth was still, and a certain star was at your zenith. Then if you went to another place a mile away, the direction of the plumb line would be slightly different. The change would, indeed, be very small, so small that you could not detect it by sighting with the plumb line. But astronomers and surveyors have vastly more accurate instruments than the plumb line and the eye, instruments by which a deviation that the unaided eye could not detect can be seen and measured. Instead of the plumb line they use a spirit level, or a basin of quicksilver. The surface of quicksilver is exactly level and so at right angles to the true direction of the plumb line or the force of gravity. Its direction is therefore a little different at two different places on the surface, and the change can be seen by its effect on the apparent direction of a star seen by reflection from the surface.

It is true that a considerable distance on the earth's surface will seem very small in its effect on the position of a star. Suppose there were two stars in the heavens, the one in the zenith of the place where you now stand, and the other in the zenith of a place a mile away. To the best eye unaided by a telescope those two stars would look like a single one. But let the two places be five miles apart, and the eye could see that there were two of them. A good telescope could distinguish between two stars corresponding to places not more than a hundred feet apart. The most exact measurements can determine distances ranging from thirty to sixty feet. If a skillful astronomical observer should mount a telescope on your premises, and determine his latitude by observations on two or three evenings, and then you should try to trick him by taking up the instrument and putting it at another

point one hundred feet north or south, he would find out that something was wrong by a single night's work.

Within the past three years a wobbling of the earth's axis has been discovered, which takes place within a circle 30 feet in radius and 60 feet in diameter. Its effect was noticed in astronomical observations many years ago, but the change it produced was so small that men could not find out what the matter was. The exact nature and amount of the wobbling is a work of the exact astronomy of the present time.

We cannot measure across oceans from island to island. Up to the present time we have not even measured across the continent, from New York to San Francisco, in the most precise way. Without astronomy we should know nothing of the distance between New York and Liverpool, except by the time which it took steamers to run it, a measure which would be very uncertain indeed. But by the aid of astronomical observations and the Atlantic cables the distance is found within a few hundred yards. Without astronomy we could scarcely make an accurate map of the United States, except at enormous labor and expense, and even then we could not be sure of its correctness. But the practical astronomer being able to determine his latitude and longitude within fifty yards, the positions of the principal points in all great cities of the country are known, and can be laid down on maps.

The world has always had to depend on astronomy for all its knowledge concerning times and seasons. The changes of the moon gave us the first month, and the year completes its round as the earth travels in its orbit. The results of astronomical observation are for us condensed into almanacs, which are now in such universal use that we never think of their astronomical origin. But in ancient times people had no almanacs, and they learned the time of year, or the number of days in the year, by observing the time when Sirius² or some other bright star rose or set with the sun, or disappeared from view in the sun's rays. At Alexandria in Egypt the length of the

year was determined yet more exactly by observing when the sun rose exactly in the east, and set exactly in the west, a date which fixed the equinox for them as for us. More than seventeen hundred years ago, Ptolemy, the great author of the *Almagest*,³ had fixed the length of the year to within a very few minutes. He knew it was a little less than 365½ days. The dates of events in ancient history depend very largely on the chronological cycles of astronomy. Eclipses of the sun and moon sometimes fixed the date of great events, and we learn the relation of ancient calendars⁴ to our own through the motions of the earth and moon, and can thus measure out the years for the events in ancient history on the same scale that we measure out our own.

At the present day, the work of the practical astronomer is made use of in our daily life throughout the whole country in yet another way. Our forefathers had to regulate their clocks by a sun dial, or perhaps by a mark at the corner of the house, which showed where the shadow of the house fell at noon. Very rude indeed was this method; and it was uncertain for another reason. It is not always exactly twenty-four hours between two noons by the sun. Sometimes for two or three months the sun will make it noon earlier and earlier every day; and during several other months later and later every day. The result is that, if a clock is perfectly regulated, the sun will be sometimes a quarter of an hour behind it, and sometimes nearly the same amount before it. Any effort to keep the clock in accord with this changing sun was in vain, and so the time of day was always uncertain.

Now, however, at some of the principal observatories⁵ of the country astronomical observations are made on every clear night for the express purpose of regulating an astronomical clock with the greatest exactness. Every day at noon a signal is sent to various parts of the country by telegraph, so that all operators and railway men who hear that signal can set their clock at noon within two or three seconds. People who live near railway stations can thus get their time from it, and so exact time is diffused

into every household of the land which is at all near a railway station, without the trouble of watching the sun. Thus increased exactness is given to the time on all our railroads, increased safety is obtained, and great loss of time saved to every one. If we estimated the money value of this saving alone we should no doubt find it to be greater than all that our study of astronomy costs.

It must therefore be conceded that, on the whole, astronomy is a science of more practical use than one would at first suppose. To the thoughtless man, the stars seem to have very little relation to his daily life; they might be forever hid from view without his being the worse for it. He wonders what object men can have in devoting themselves to the study of the motions or phenomena of the heavens. But the more he looks into the subject, and the wider the range which his studies include, the more he will be impressed with the great practical usefulness of the science of the heavens. And yet I think it would be a serious error to say that the world's greatest debt to astronomy was owing to its usefulness in surveying, navigation, and chronology. A celebrated philosopher said,

"In nature there is nothing great but man;
In man there is nothing great but mind."

The more enlightened a man is, the more he will be impressed with the justice of this view, and the more he will feel that what makes his mind what it is, and gives him the ideas of himself and creation which he possesses, is more important than that which gains him wealth. I therefore hold that the world's greatest debt to astronomy is that it has taught us what a great thing creation is, and what an insignificant part of the Creator's work is this earth on which we dwell, and everything that is upon it. That space is infinite, that wherever we go there is a farther still beyond it, must have been accepted as a fact by all men who have thought of the subject since men began to think at all. But it is very curious how hard even the astronomers found it to believe that creation is as large as we now know it to be. The Greeks had their gods on or

not very far above Olympus, which was a sort of footstool to the heavens. Sometimes they tried to guess how far it probably was from the vault of heaven to the earth, and they had a myth as to the time it took Vulcan to fall.⁶ Ptolemy knew that the moon was about thirty diameters of the earth distant from us, and he knew that the sun was many times farther than the moon; he thought it about twenty times as far, but could not be sure. We know that it is nearly four hundred times as far.

When Copernicus⁷ propounded the theory that the earth moved around the sun, and not the sun around the earth, he was able to fix the relative distances of the several planets, and thus make a map of the solar system. But he knew nothing about the scale of this map. He knew, for example, that Venus was a little more than two thirds the distance of the earth from the sun, and that Mars was about half as far again as the earth, Jupiter about five times, and Saturn about ten times; but he knew nothing about the distance of any one of them from the sun. He had his map all right, but he could not give any scale of miles or any other measurements upon it. The astronomers who first succeeded him found that the distance was very much greater than had formerly been supposed; that it was, in fact, for them immeasurably great, and that was all they could say about it.

The proofs which Copernicus gave that the earth revolved around the sun were so strong that none could well doubt them. And yet there was a difficulty in accepting the theory which seemed insuperable. If the earth really moved in so immense an orbit as it must, then the stars would seem to move in the opposite direction, just as, if you were in a train that is shunting off cars one after another, as the train moves back and forth you see its motion in the opposite motion of every object around you. If then the earth at one side of its orbit was exactly between two stars, when it moved to the other side of its orbit it would not be in a line between them, but each star would have seemed to move in the opposite direction.

For centuries astronomers made the most exact observations that they were able without having succeeded in detecting any such apparent motion among the stars. Here was a mystery which they could not solve. Either the Copernican system was not true, after all, and the earth did not move in an orbit, or the stars were at such immense distances that the whole immeasurable orbit of the earth is a mere point in comparison. Philosophers could not believe that the Creator would waste room by allowing the inconceivable spaces which appeared to lie between our system and the fixed stars to remain unused; and so thought there must be something wrong in the theory of the earth's motion.

Two hundred years ago, an eminent Danish astronomer, Horrebow by name, thought he had solved the problem. With the aid of a transit instrument and a clock, a combination which was then brought into use for the first time, he found that the interval between the passage of Sirius and Vega^a over the meridian was about six seconds greater at one season than it was at the opposite season. Here was a determination which the adherents of Copernicus had awaited for more than a hundred years. So elated was he that he published his discovery under the title, "Copernicus Triumphant." But more exact investigation by other astronomers showed that the triumph was imaginary, and that the result which he got was only owing to the fact that his clock was not compensated for temperature, and so went faster during the cool hours of the night than during the warm hours of day.

Not until the nineteenth century was well in progress did the most skillful observers of their time, Bessel and Struve, having at command the most refined instruments which science was then able to devise, discover the reality of the parallax^a of the stars, and show that the nearest of these bodies which they could find was more than four hundred thousand times as far as the ninety-three millions of miles which separate the earth from the sun.

During the half century and more which has elapsed since this discovery, astrono-

mers have been busily engaged in fathoming the heavenly depths. The nearest star they have been able to find is about two hundred and eighty thousand times the sun's distance. A dozen or a score more are within a million times that distance. Beyond this all is unfathomable by any sounding line yet known to man.

The results of these astronomical measures are stupendous beyond conception. No mere statement in numbers conveys any idea of it. Nearly all the brighter stars are known to be flying through space at speeds which generally range between ten and forty or fifty miles per second, some slower and some swifter, even up to one or two hundred miles a second. Such a speed would carry us across the Atlantic while we were reading two or three of these sentences. These motions take place some in one direction and some in another. Some of the stars are coming almost straight toward us. Should they reach us, and pass through our solar system, the result would be destructive to our earth, and perhaps to our sun.

Are we in any danger? No, because, however madly they may come, whether ten, twenty, or one hundred miles per second, so many millions of years must elapse before they reach us that we need give ourselves no concern in the matter. Probably none of them are coming straight to us; their course deviates just a hair's breadth from our system, but that hair's breadth is so large a quantity that when the millions of years elapse their course will lie on one side or the other of our system and they will do no harm to our planet; just as a bullet fired at an insect a mile away would be nearly sure to miss it in one direction or the other. Notwithstanding these rapid motions the constellations appear to us now just as they did to old Job. During the thousands of years which have elapsed since he wrote, the rapid motions which I have described have not sufficed to make any change in the configuration of the constellations which any one but an astronomer would notice.

Our instrument makers have constructed telescopes more and more powerful, and

with these the whole number of stars visible is carried up into the millions, say perhaps to fifty or one hundred millions. For aught we know every one of those stars may have planets like our own circling round it, and these planets may be inhabited by beings equal to ourselves. To suppose that our globe is the only one thus inhabited is something so unlikely that no one could expect it. It would be very nice to know

something about the people who may inhabit these bodies, and to see how they enjoy the warmth of their firesides. But we must wait our translation to another sphere before we can know anything on the subject. Meanwhile, we have gained what is of more value than gold or silver; we have learned that creation transcends all our conceptions, and our ideas of its Author are enlarged accordingly.

SOME CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH NOVELISTS.

BY JEANNETTE L. GILDER.

WHILE there are no Thackerays, Dickenss, Scotts, or George Eliots among contemporary English novelists, there are a number of writers of fiction now living whose names will possibly be found on fame's eternal bead-roll. Many critics would place George Meredith at the head of this list,—for what reason I do not know. The Meredith cult is a mysterious thing to me, but I have to acknowledge that it exists.

Meredith's recognition has come late in life, but it has come with a vengeance. I am inclined to think that Mr. Meredith's personality is a large part of the secret of his enthusiastic following. He is a sweet-natured, large-hearted man, of simple, gentle, kindly life, and he makes friends who stay by him. Mr. Meredith's most popular novels are "Diana of the Crossways," "The Ordeal of Richard Feverel," and "The Tragic Comedians." There is a long list besides this, to which "Lord Ormont and His Aminta" is the latest addition. I may be wrong, but I cannot help feeling that the taste for Meredith is an acquired taste. His style is so utterly bad, his sentences so tortured, his meanings so obscure, that I find life too short to grapple with them. When I have finished a page of one of his stories, I know no better what he means than before reading it. I have an old-fashioned love of simplicity in writing, particularly in prose, and I find it in those masters of fiction to whom posterity has given the name of great.

I not only find Mr. Meredith's style bad, but I do not find his characters real people; and yet I have heard his admirers set up the reality of his creations as his strongest quality.

George Meredith was born on the 12th of February, 1828, and began his literary career by writing poetry. His poetry, I am bound to say, is not more lucid than his prose, but one, fortunately for one's peace of mind, does not expect lucidity from poets. It was in 1851 that Mr. Meredith first published a volume of poems. They did not meet with much success, neither did his novels when they were first issued. It was all of forty years from the time he began writing until his books received any but a very limited amount of attention. Naturally his profession did not pay him very well and he was obliged to piece out his income by becoming a publisher's reader. For a number of years he read manuscripts for Messrs. Chapman & Hall, the publishers of Thackeray and Dickens. It was in the capacity of reader that he discovered Miss Olive Schreiner and her "Story of an African Farm." Mr. Meredith has always been ready with a word of encouragement to literary beginners, and this of itself is enough to have made him hosts of friends. Mr. Meredith has been married twice, but neither of his wives is living. His only child, a daughter, was married recently to an American by the name of Sturgis, who is connected with the English banking house of Baring Brothers.

Mr. Meredith's home is on the Surrey Hills, not far from London, but he is seldom in the great busy city. He prefers the retirement of his country home. After the manner of Dickens, Mr. Meredith does his writing in a little *chalet* on his own grounds. Soon after breakfast the novelist retires to this place and spends the greater part of the day in reading and study. Like most Englishmen, he is a great walker, and he may be seen almost any day walking briskly through the lovely country around Dorking.

Mrs. Humphry Ward's great success was made in 1888 when "Robert Elsmere" was published. Before that time she had written other books, notably one called "Miss Bretherton," of which Mary Anderson, the American actress, was supposed to be the heroine. Though Mrs. Ward's fame came to her suddenly, she did not crawl in through the cabin window; she had had years of preparation and she came of a writing family. She is the grand-daughter of Dr. Arnold of Rugby, the daughter of Thomas Arnold, a man of letters, though not particularly distinguished as an author, and a niece of Matthew Arnold. In 1872 she married Mr. Thomas Humphry Ward, an Oxford man, and at that time a tutor of Brasenose College, which position he gave up later to become art critic of the London *Times*. Mr. Ward is also known as the editor of a most admirable anthology of English poets, known as "Ward's English Poets."

Mrs. Ward is not a genius, unless genius be what it has sometimes been described, "the capacity for taking infinite pains." She takes life seriously, and her books show it; she works slowly and with extreme care. I have in my possession the fourth set of page-proofs of "Marcella," which are revised from end to end in Mrs. Ward's own hand, showing that she never loses an opportunity to better what she has written. Several years are allowed to pass between her books, and she never writes without having something to say. Her novels come under the head of what are now-a-days called "purpose novels." Of all that she has written, "Robert Elsmere" still stands at the head for popularity, though "David Grieve" and

"Marcella" have been as successful commercially as the first one.

There are those who claim that Mrs. Ward has succeeded to the mantle of George Eliot, but this I do not think is true. George Eliot's mantle was made to fit her shoulders, and I do not think that anyone else will ever wear it. She had a quality that Mrs. Ward has not—that is, humor. George Eliot has both wit and humor; Mrs. Ward has neither. She has, however, a quality which a great many people appreciate, as the popularity of her novels shows, and that is earnestness. She never trifles; she takes herself seriously, and she takes her work seriously. She has always a story to tell as well as an idea to exploit. In "Marcella," her latest novel, she takes up the subject of socialism and the university settlement idea. Her own experience is said to be the foundation of the story, and I have no reason for doubting this statement. She is intensely interested in all philanthropical movements, and if there were a dash of autobiography in "Marcella," I should not be surprised.

Mrs. Ward is probably the best-paid novelist now living. Out of the three books that she has published within the past six years, she cannot have made less than two hundred thousand dollars, which only proves that the public is quick to appreciate good literature, and that sensational stories are not the only ones that achieve popularity. Mrs. Ward's home is in London, but, like most Londoners, she has her country house, which is quite as much of a home as her town house. England is a country of homes, and the person who has not one or more is singularly unfortunate.

Rudyard Kipling has succeeded by methods entirely different from those of Mrs. Ward, though, too, like hers, his fame came suddenly. He had been writing stories for a long time, in obscure quarters it must be admitted however, before fame overtook him. When it came, it came with a rush and a roar, so great a rush and so loud a roar that it was heard across the Indian Ocean, and the Atlantic Ocean too. Mr. Kipling's best work is in his short stories. I don't believe he could write a novel of the length of

"Marcella," and I don't believe that he would try. Not only does he write short stories, but even these are condensed. Any one else would make them twice as long. His specialty is condensation. He seems to wield a pruning-knife rather than a pen, and he prunes out all superfluous words and trims down what are left into the smallest space. If he should write a book as long as "Marcella," he would cut and hew it into an eighth of the space before sending it out to the public. He knows how to get infinite riches into a little room, if ever a man did.

Mr. Kipling's life has been short and uneventful, if a man's life can be said to be uneventful when he has achieved fame at five and twenty. He was born in Bombay in 1863, and is of mixed descent. His father comes of Dutch stock; from his mother he inherits English, Irish, and Scotch blood. As a small boy he went to school in England, and at sixteen he had returned to India and taken up a journalist's career. When he arrived at the distinction of a sub-editorial position on the *Indian Civil and Military Gazette*, he began to write poems and tales which were published in that paper. While he was still a young man Kipling visited the United States and wrote home for publication letters which, while they may have had the ear-marks of truth upon them, were not calculated to make friends for him in America. It was not so much what he said as the nasty way he said it, that offended good Americans; and yet Mr. Kipling really likes this country, and has made it his home. His wife is an American woman, and his baby is an American baby, having been born among the Green Mountains of Vermont. If he would only say in print the amiable things that he says in private about America, he would be much more popular here. Fortunately we are large-minded enough to forgive Mr. Kipling's gibes at our country for the sake of his genius. And we don't believe that he thinks us as black as he paints us.

Mr. Kipling's style is a model for any young writer to adopt. He is said to have modeled it upon that of Defoe, of whom he is an ardent admirer. "Plain Tales from the Hills" is the title of the book of stories

that made Kipling famous. Besides his prose, he has written ballads that put him easily first among living balladists.

Thomas Hardy's greatest successes were made by his first and last book. "Far from the Madding Crowd" brought him at once into notice; after that he published a number of other novels, but none superseded the first in popularity until two years ago, when "Tess of the D'Urbervilles" was published. Perhaps it was the fact that Mr. Hardy called this "A Pure Woman Faithfully Presented" that at once piqued criticism and discussion. The story was interesting and would no doubt have attracted attention in any event, but this red flag that Mr. Hardy waved had its effect, and the papers were filled with arguments pro and con. Personally, I do not agree with Mr. Hardy's description of "Tess," but this is neither the time nor the place to reopen the discussion. To my mind "Far from the Madding Crowd" is a better story, more interesting and healthier in tone.

Mr. Hardy, who was born in 1840, makes his home in Dorchester, in one of those unpretentious, big, comfortable English houses that are homes indeed. Of course he comes to London during the season, as does every Englishman and woman who can, and he is one of the lions of all literary gatherings. He works, however, in the country. According to a recent biographer he begins writing immediately after breakfast, and does not go out until he has finished his day's work. If, for any reason, this routine is disturbed, he is all at sea, and cannot go back again to his desk until the evening. From his study window he looks out over the "Wessex" that he has made so well known in his stories.

Mr. Hardy did not expect to be a writer after finishing his education, but had designs upon the church. Questions of dogma induced him to depart from his original intention, and then he studied architecture for a while. In the meantime a manuscript of his fell into the hands of two able critics—Mr. John Morley and Mr. Meredith—each of whom advised him to decide upon a literary career; and he followed their advice.

James Matthew Barrie, or J. M. Barrie, as

the name appears on the title-page of his books, is one of the most delightful writers of these days. His readers, and they are counted by thousands, *love* his books. They do not simply like them, they love them. There is a quality about Mr. Barrie's stories that goes straight to the heart. Over the best known, "A Window in Thrums," you laugh and cry by turns as you read its pages. You know that it is a true story, and that is why you feel it so deeply. It is the same with "Auld Licht Idylls." Both books are made from life studies, but they are not mere note-book reproductions. They are the product of a literary observation.

Mr. Barrie is clean cut in his style and almost as great a master of condensation as Mr. Kipling. One of the most amusing of this writer's books, though not one of the most popular, is "My Lady Nicotine," in which he relates the delights of pipe smoking, a habit which he is said to have indulged in to excess. "The Little Minister," Mr. Barrie's most recent novel, is almost as popular as "A Window in Thrums." It is a little too theatrical for my taste, but not for that of the general public, which has received it with loud acclaim.

Mr. Barrie was born in Kirriemuir, Scotland (since immortalized as Thrums), in 1860. He was educated first at the Dumfries Academy, and when eighteen years of age entered the Edinburgh University; and it was there that his taste for literature began to develop. Professor Masson is said to have had a strong influence over the young man, and to have done much to incline his literary bent. One result of his Edinburgh University life is a little book called "An Edinburgh Eleven," in which he gives sketches of his professors and tutors. It is not as well known as his novels, but in its way it is as unique.

Dr. Robertson Nichol, the very able editor of *The British Weekly*, a religious non-conformist paper of wide circulation, is said to have discovered Barrie. At any rate, the "Auld Licht Idylls" first appeared in that journal, and when collected were published in book form by Messrs. Hodder & Stoughton, the publishers of *The British Weekly*,

who have, I believe, published all of Mr. Barrie's novels with one exception, "The Little Minister," of which Cassell and Company were the fortunate publishers. Mr. Barrie is also the author of two successful comedies, "Walker, London," and "The Professor's Love Story." The latter is not only a capital acting play, but it is a literary play, which is a *rara avis* in these days of "farce comedies."

The name of Robert Louis Stevenson should have headed this list, if there were any method in its laying out, but there is not. I have simply written of this handful of writers as I have thought of them. In a confession as to the writing of his first book, Mr. Stevenson says that he did not make his salt in literature until he was thirty years of age, though he had worked hard at his profession up to that time. "Treasure Island," which made him famous, was written to amuse a boy, Lloyd Osbourne, I fancy, his wife's son, then a mere lad, now his literary collaborator.

Mr. Stevenson had a very hard time in the early days of his career. He was poor and in bad health. His lungs are so very weak that there are few climates that he can live in, hence his retirement to Samoa. When he first came to America he came in the steerage and he crossed the United States in an emigrant car. Uncomfortable as this must have been, particularly for an invalid, it gave him abundant material for his notes, and it gained him the object he had in undertaking it—his wife.

As essayist and story writer, Mr. Stevenson is equally successful. There is the same charm in whatever he writes—the charm of an almost perfect style. While "The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde" is probably the best known of Mr. Stevenson's stories, it is not the most characteristic. "The New Arabian Nights" and "An Inland Voyage" are much more to my liking.

Since those works were written Mr. Stevenson has done more ambitious work, but to my mind he has written nothing comparable to his early books. I wouldn't give "An Inland Voyage" for all the "David

Balfours" and "The Wreckers" ever written. But that is a question of taste as, I find, are most opinions.

Mr. Stevenson is a Scotchman and was born about forty-three years ago. To be born a Scotchman, he says, is "the happiest lot on earth." "Our youth is a time of tears and turmoil—but, somehow, life is warmer and closer, the hearth burns more redly, the lights of home shine softer on the rainy streets, the very names endeared in verse and music cling closer round our hearts." Mr. Stevenson was educated at Cambridge, and later studied law, but never practiced it, though somewhere there is, for I have seen it, a portrait of him in a barrister's wig. For

several years past Mr. Stevenson with his wife, his wife's son, and his own mother, has made his home in Samoa, where the climate is mild and he is only on rare occasions disturbed by the lion-hunter.

I have not attempted in this paper to give an account of all the contemporary English novelists, but merely to mention a few. All would include more than an article of this size could do justice to, and there are necessarily some conspicuous omissions, notably George Du Maurier, whom two novels have made famous in two continents, Hall Caine, S. R. Crockett, I. Zangwill, and Anthony Hope; not to mention a bevy of women who are having their little day.

GREAT CANALS.

BY A. G. MENOCAL.

THE first canals were intended for irrigation, transportation being incidental or of secondary consideration. The Great Canal of China was built more than nine hundred years ago, and is yet the main artery of communication in that country, both for freight and passengers. In Spain the Moors constructed canals for the purpose of connecting inland places with rivers, and Cadiz with Granada; but it was not until some time after the decline of the Roman Empire that canals of navigation commenced to attract attention. Previous to the introduction of locks and sluices they were limited to territories comparatively level. As far back as the twelfth century large canals had been cut in Flanders, and in 1560 the great canal connecting Brussels with the Scheldt was finished.

Locks and sluices came into practical application for the purpose of overcoming elevations, and the Briare first, and later on the Languedoc, or Midi Canals were commenced in France, the latter rising to an elevation of more than six hundred feet, by means of one hundred sluices and many important aqueducts and bridges. Other countries followed the lead, and the period of canal construction and development con-

tinued until the beginning of the nineteenth century. England was one of the last nations to go into the race. The canal of Exeter was completed in 1572, and considerable progress had been made in the meantime in improving the navigation of rivers and streams, but the time of activity in canal construction extended between 1720 and 1830, at which latter date more than four thousand miles of waterways were in successful operation.

The increased facilities of transport gave a remarkable stimulus to commercial and industrial progress. Raw materials were transported at about one tenth of what it had previously cost, thus facilitating the interchange of commodities between different parts of the country to an extent unknown before. It may be safely stated that the great industrial development and prosperity of England dates from this period of the construction of waterways.

In the United States the question of building canals that would connect the chain of Great Lakes with the ocean and with magnificent navigable rivers, penetrating thousands of miles into the interior of its vast territory, commenced to be agitated by the press, in public meetings, and in the

Legislatures of the different states early in the history of the new nation. Washington himself was one of the first to seek the improvement of transportation facilities by the construction of canals, especially one connecting Chesapeake Bay and the Ohio River, and with that object in view as early as 1754 made extensive surveys and explorations in the valleys of the Monongahela and of the Potomac. Soon after the War of Independence he obtained a charter for the construction of a waterway between the Hudson River and the Great Lakes, and was elected president of the company organized for its construction.

Other companies were subsequently formed, and several small canals were constructed, and freight intended for Lake Erie and the West was carried by way of Lake Ontario to the Niagara River, and from that point to the head of the Falls, some twenty-eight miles down the river. This route was tedious and expensive. The question of a more direct route from the Hudson to Lake Erie continued to be agitated as the only effectual solution of the problem, and in 1817 the act for the construction of the Erie Canal was passed and in 1825 the canal was completed, to the great rejoicing of the people, not only of the state but of the whole country. The canal was a great achievement of hydraulic engineering¹ at the time. It is 365 miles long, rises to an elevation of 656 feet, and has 72 locks. Its cost was \$51,600,000, raised on the credit of the state.

The opening of the Erie Canal was quickly followed by similar undertakings in the other states, especially in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. At one time there were over 5,000 miles of canal in operation in the United States, built at a cost of \$170,000,000. The growth of traffic in these waterways was steadily on the increase for a number of years until 1857. From this date the railroads have been constantly in the ascendance at the expense of canals, of which not less than 2,000 miles have been abandoned, while the railroad mileage has in the meantime increased to enormous proportions.

The history of the struggle between canals of small dimensions and of railroads has been the same in all countries. The fight raged bitterly for a number of years; the canals acting in the defensive, although they had as allies the states under whose patronage they were built and operated. The result has been the same in all cases, the unconditional surrender of the canals to the railroads. This, however, is not so much the fault of the system as of their management. The railroads have great advantages over canals. They are better able to abridge distances both by reason of superior speed, and of facilities for overcoming elevations, spanning streams, free from danger of destructive floods, and piercing through the highest mountains; but their great success is mainly due to the fact that they have kept up pace with the progress of the world.

Waterways built from the beginning of the eighteenth century to the first quarter of the nineteenth century were regarded ample to meet the requirements of trade at the time they were constructed, and there was in many instances a progressive improvement in their dimensions and appurtenances. But while the industrial, agricultural, and commercial developments of the world have advanced to proportions not dreamed of a century ago, canals have remained stationary. They are now obsolete and can no longer fulfill the requirements of cheap transportation in competition with railroads. The canals of the future must have the dimensions and the facilities for rapid transport to adapt them to the new conditions of commerce. They must not be barge or boat canals, but ample waterways for the free passage of such ships as are now engaged in carrying the world's trade. Of such canals we have now some important types in successful operation, and others in process of construction or in completion.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

SOME of the earliest canals of which there is any record were constructed in the Isthmus of Suez about fifteen centuries before Christ. Some centuries later from time to time other canals were opened, or were re-

constructed and reopened after being allowed to fill up, by the different rulers, the last attempt to cut a waterway from the Red Sea to the Nile being made in the seventh century by Amru ibn el Aas³ in order to facilitate the transport of grain from Egypt to Mecca by the quickest route, and appease thereby the famine reigning there. One century later this canal was ordered to be destroyed by the Caliph Abou Giaffar el Mansour⁴ to prevent the sending of food to the insurgents of Medina. From that time nothing more was done until the beginning of the present century, when Napoleon invaded Egypt and ordered surveys of the isthmus to be made with a view to the cutting of a maritime canal. Several schemes were proposed from time to time, until De Lesseps finally adopted the sea-level canal plan for the whole distance of 103 miles.

The Suez Canal Company was incorporated in December, 1858, with a capital of \$40,000,000 divided into 400,000 shares of \$100 each. The first sod of the canal was cut in April, 1859, but two years were taken up by the necessary work of preparation, no actual progress being made in the work of excavation until the latter part of 1861. During this year the work done was chiefly confined to digging wells along the line of the canal, to erecting sheds for the workmen and providing dock basins, shops, and opening a fresh water supply by a canal joining the Nile to Lake Timsah.

The canal was commenced by forced labor, provided under the terms of the concession by the Egyptian government. In 1864, after the work had been in progress for about four years, the Egyptian government, finding the supply of from 15,000 to 20,000 of the best men in the country a serious tax on their resources, withdrew from that obligation. This step was the cause of considerable trouble between the company and the government, but the differences being submitted to the arbitrament of Emperor Napoleon, he awarded the company an indemnity of \$7,600,000.

In 1862 work was commenced on the piers at Port Said, together with landing stages; and in 1869 the canal was opened. Its

total length from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea is 103 miles. The bottom width as originally designed was 72 feet, and the depth 26 feet. The total cost of the canal including financiering at the end of 1870 was about \$83,000,000. Of this amount only about \$58,000,000 was spent in actual work of construction. The net tonnage that passed through the canal in 1870 was 436,609 tons. In 1880 it was 3,057,421 and in 1885 it had further increased to 6,335,752 tons and in 1891 it reached the grand total of 9,200,000 tons. This extraordinarily rapid increase of tonnage and the great increase which had simultaneously taken place in the sizes of the ships passing through the canal caused a congestion of the traffic, and in 1884 a joint commission of English ship-owners and of the company was appointed to investigate the whole subject and determine what measures should be undertaken with a view to enable the waterways to meet all the requirements of a traffic exceeding 10,000,000 tons per annum. The commission reported in 1885 recommending an enlargement of the original dimensions by an increase of the bottom width to 230 feet and the depth to 29½ feet, at an estimated cost of about \$40,000,000. The works of improvement are now in progress.

By the opening of the Suez Canal, the distance between England and her Australian and Indian possessions has been lessened by distances ranging from 545 to 4,395 nautical miles, and the voyages to India, China, and Australia are now made in but little more than one half the time formerly consumed in the voyage round the Cape.

The financial success of the enterprise has exceeded the most sanguine expectations of its promoters, the stock being now quoted in the market at more than five times its par value.

The canal was an engineering triumph; not because there were any difficult engineering problems to solve in its construction, but on account of the impetus it gave to engineering invention, skill, and enterprise, the results of which have since been of incalculable value in carrying out many other works.

THE ISTHMUS OF CORINTH CANAL.

THE Isthmus of Corinth separates the Adriatic and the Archipelago, compelling all vessels bound from one sea to the other to round Cape Matapan, thus materially lengthening the voyage from the western parts of Europe to the Levant,⁸ Syria, Asia Minor, and Smyrna. It also increases the route from Europe to the Black Sea from which enormous quantities of wheat and other cereals are shipped to Europe. The proposition to pierce this isthmus originated several centuries before Christ, and work was actually commenced before the reign of Nero, practically upon the route occupied by the canal recently completed across that tongue of land. It is estimated that this canal will effect a saving in time of two days in the voyage from the harbors of Brinden, Ancona, and Trierba to the Levant. The probable traffic through the canal has been estimated at about 4,500,000 tons.

A concession for the construction of this canal was granted in 1870; liberal grants in the shape of lands, mineral, quarries, etc., having been made by the Hellenic government to the promoters, with the view of aiding the enterprise. The canal was not actually commenced until 1882; the first mine being fired by Queen Olga in the presence of King George, the Diplomatic Corps, and the principal government officials.

The canal was to be opened in 1888, but unforeseen delays due to financial difficulties compelled the company to obtain an extension of three years' time, and the work was not finished and opened to traffic until 1893. Whether the canal will be a financial success is doubtful, but it will be an advantage to commerce by saving 250 miles of navigation and avoiding the dangers of the coast of southern Greece.

The canal has a uniform bottom width of 72 feet and a depth of 26½ feet, which dimensions correspond to the original section of the Suez Canal. The total length is only four miles, and no passing places are regarded as necessary. There are no tide or lift locks, the waterway being at the level of the sea.

THE NORTH SEA CANAL.

THIS was built for the purpose of facilitating the navigation of the Zuyder Zee, in which vessels were frequently detained many days, or compelled to unload a part of their cargoes by reason of numerous shallows and banks. This canal, with a bottom width of 31½ feet and a depth of 18 feet, was begun in 1819 and finished in 1825. The length is about 50½ miles and the breadth, at the surface, 124 feet. At the time of its completion it was regarded as the greatest work of its kind in the world. It is now obsolete, and has been superseded by a much larger waterway.

THE AMSTERDAM SHIP CANAL.

THIS great engineering work was carried out for the purpose of improving access to the great commercial port of Amsterdam. It extends westerly, reducing the distance from that city to the North Sea to 15½ miles, instead of 50½ miles by the North Sea Canal, and giving access to vessels much larger than formerly entered that port. A new harbor has been created on the coast, comprising an area of 250 acres with a depth of 26½ feet, by the construction of two large breakwaters and by dredging.

At the entrance of the canal, from this new harbor, three locks were originally constructed and a new one much larger is now nearing completion. The canal is 197 feet wide at the water surface, 88 feet at the bottom, and has a minimum depth of 23 feet. Eastward and below the city of Amsterdam an enormous dyke shuts out the Zuyder Zee. This dyke is pierced with three locks for access to and from the canal and Zuyder Zee. The construction of these works upon a lake of mud, requiring 10,000 piles in their foundation, was a great engineering achievement. The locks at the ends of the canal are not for the purpose of locking up, but for locking down, as the surface of the canal has to be kept twenty inches below low water. In order to maintain this uniform level, pumping had to be resorted to in addition to the locks and sluices that can avail only at low tide, and the centrifugal pumps put up for that pur-

pose have an aggregate capacity of 440,000 gallons per minute. The canal and the adjacent country being below the level of the sea, its inundation can be prevented only by constant pumping of the surplus water into the Zuyder Zee. It took ten years to finish the canal.

THE BALTIC AND NORTH SEA SHIP CANAL.

THIS canal has attracted little attention thus far for the simple reason that, being a government work, it has been free from financial complications and stock manipulations. But if less important as a commercial enterprise than the Suez Canal, it is of utmost interest as an engineering undertaking and for its strategic possibilities, as well as for the great benefit it will confer upon the shipping trade of the world.

The foundation stone of this great work was laid by Kaiser William I. in October, 1888, and since then the work of construction has been pushed forward without interruption, the canal now nearing its completion, within the original estimated cost of \$49,000,000. This waterway connecting the Baltic and the North Sea will strengthen the offensive and defensive power of Germany, and at the same time enable the merchantmen of the world to avoid the long and dangerous passage by the Cattegat and round the north of Denmark.

Not less than 35,000 vessels pass through the sound annually. The loss due to storms and ice-floes reported between 1858 and 1885 is not less than 2,800 vessels, while the loss of life between 1877 and 1881 has been reported at 708. When the canal is finished, only coasting vessels will have to navigate through the dangerous channel of the sound and round the innumerable islands off the Danish and Swedish coasts. The canal begins at the dockyard of Kiel in the Baltic, and enters the Elbe near Brunsbüttel, 15 miles above the North Sea. It will have a total length of 61 miles. Its width at the water surface will be 196 feet and at the bottom 85 feet; the uniform depth being 29½ feet. The canal will be a continuous cutting at the level of the Baltic; flood-gates being provided where it enters the Eider, at Kiel and at the outlet in the

Elbe. The largest ships in the German navy will be able to pass through the canal and it is estimated that, of the 35,000 ships that annually pass through the sound, not less than 18,000 will use the waterway.

THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL.

THIS canal is one of the most important undertakings of the present time, not only on account of the engineering difficulties that have been dealt with or of the expenditure involved in construction, but because unlike all other ship canals already built, or in process of construction, it is designed to change a large center of population and industry from an inland city to a seaport. Whether the canal will be a financial success to shareholders is doubtful, but it will most certainly confer a great benefit to Manchester and other towns in the vicinity. This great center of industrial operation and activity, free from the onerous port dues paid at Liverpool and excessive railway rates, will soon commence to feel the great benefits conferred upon the community by the waterway; the expansion of business and consequent enhancement of values, due to economy and facility of transportation, being ample compensation for the outlay.

The canal is one continuous cutting about 35½ miles long. It begins at Eastham on the south bank of the estuary of the Mersey, and follows this bank for a distance of 13½ miles, confined by embankments and retaining walls until it reaches Runcorn, where it leaves the waters of the Mersey and by an almost direct and independent course reaches its terminus in the large docks built at Salford and Manchester. The docks at Manchester are about 65 feet above sea level. This elevation is overcome by five locks with an average lift of 13 feet each. The canal has a bottom width of 120 feet and a depth of 26 feet; the width of the water surface varying with the nature of the ground. The locks are worked by hydraulic power and are of sufficient size to admit the largest merchant steamers afloat.

The works were commenced in 1886 and the canal was officially opened amid the greatest enthusiasm by Queen Victoria and

the Prince of Wales in the presence of two million people, on May 21, 1894. The total cost of the canal, including the docks at Manchester, has been about \$75,000,000.

THE SAULT SAINT MARIE CANAL.

THIS canal, connecting the waters of Lake Superior and Lake Huron, is the most remarkable lock canal in the world. The fall of the Saint Mary's River at the Sault¹ is about 18 feet. In 1855 a canal with two locks, each 350 feet long, 70 feet wide, and about 9 feet lift, was built to overcome that difference of level. These locks could not accommodate vessels drawing more than 11 feet of water, and their maximum capacity was soon reached by the enormously increasing traffic seeking the canal. The question of enlarging the canal and locks to admit the passage of larger vessels became a practical problem which demanded speedy solution, and resulted in the canal's being transferred by the state of Michigan to the government of the United States as a work of national importance.

The government engineers undertook the improvement of the waterway by increasing its depth to 18 feet and by the construction of a new lock 515 feet long and 80 feet wide in the chamber, and a lift of 18 feet

at mean level of water in Lake Superior. This lock, which is the remarkable feature of the canal, is regarded by competent engineers as the finest piece of hydraulic engineering in any country. Steamers of over 3,000 tons' capacity can pass through the lock inside of 20 minutes. In 1891 the traffic passing through the canal and single lock, during seven months, exceeded 10,000,000 tons of freight, or at the rate of about 20,000,000 tons a year, which is more than double the traffic passing through the Suez Canal in the same year; and yet the maximum capacity of the lock had not been reached.

The rapidly increasing traffic now threatens soon to exceed its capacity, and the government has already commenced the construction of a new lock, which is to occupy the site of the old locks. It will be 800 feet long and 100 feet wide in the chamber, with 21 feet depth of water on the sills, thus greatly exceeding the other lock in the magnitude of its dimensions. The present lock has been in practical, successful operation for more than twelve years, and its efficiency shows the marked care and skill with which all the details have been worked out.

A VISIT TO PRINCE BISMARCK.

BY SIDNEY WHITMAN.

IT has been my privilege to see a good deal of Prince Bismarck and his family during the last few years. And the way it came about may, I venture to think, be of some interest to the reader.

Partly educated in Germany, I have since, from time to time, spent many happy hours there. Thus I gradually imbibed a strong liking for that beautiful and romantic country, and was prone—perhaps at times too much so—to enlarge in conversation on the infinite variety of its characteristic attractions. The latter were doubly attractive to me from the contrast they afforded to many developments in my native land, for a proper patriotic appreciation of which my

foreign education had probably rendered me incapable. But however this may be, the fact remains that I was frequently urged to put my impressions on the subject of Germany to paper. About six years ago, I availed myself of the leisure of a prolonged holiday to write a book, which has since gained a certain publicity in several countries and various dresses, under the title of "Imperial Germany."

Through mutual friends it came to my knowledge that the book in question had been fortunate enough to attract the attention of Prince Bismarck, and in due course this led to an invitation, which I naturally hastened to avail myself of.

For many years I had made a special study of the career and personality of Germany's great chancellor. Consequently, it was with no ordinary feelings of expectation that I found myself one morning in the express train which starts from Berlin for Hamburg, and stops at Friedrichsruh only in case it carries a visitor to Prince Bismarck's household and this fact has been duly certified to the Berlin station-master before starting.

One of the prince's carriages was drawn up at the station ready to receive visitors, although the house is only a couple of hundred yards away. But just as I was on the point of stepping into it, I caught sight of Bismarck and his son Count Herbert coming toward the station. It was a warm spring day and the prince was attired in the black frock coat he always wears when not in uniform, a broad white cravat, usually known as a "choker," such as we are accustomed to see worn by clergymen or gentlemen of the old school, and a broad-brimmed black felt hat. He stood as erect as any military man in the prime of life. The kindly smile of those

wondrous eyes is a sunny ray of greeting to the visitor, who is charmingly impressed by a manner as gracious as it is simple.

After the first few words of welcome, the prince led the way back to the *château* and into the surrounding grounds, which are thickly wooded. The birds were chirping merrily; and I was since told that this music of nature is one of Bismarck's special delights.

Bismarck visibly brightened up among his trees. "Tell me," he asked, "how did you manage to gain such an insight into the character of the Germans, particularly with regard to their weaknesses?"

"I can only venture to explain it," I an-

swered, "by recalling some London club acquaintances. On most matters they are as dull as ditch-water; but they happen to have concentrated their whole understanding on the subject of horses, and consequently they are as clever in judging a horse as any horsedealer."

"Then all I can say is," replied the prince, smiling archly, "you are a good *dealer* in men."

The subtle flattery of a Bismarck might well gratify the vanity of an exceptionally robust nature, let alone that of a susceptible writer.

We returned to the house, where Princess Bismarck was waiting in the drawing room for her husband to come in to lunch.

Princess Bismarck has been a martyr to asthma for many years, and it is often with a visible effort that she rouses herself to receive visitors at Friedrichsruh. But if there is one thing that can nerve her to overcome pain and fatigue, it is to bid welcome to those whom she believes to be fervent partisans or admirers of her great husband. No easy matter is it either to gain her faith, for she has

seen too much behind the scenes of the great world to trust readily in the untried sincerity of anybody. On the other hand, once she takes a liking to you, she is, like her son Herbert, a staunch friend.

At meal-times, Count Herbert Bismarck assists his mother in her duties of ever attentive hostess. His is the domain of the cellar—the choice of the wines—and his good humor, merry sallies and laughter, go a long way toward making a lunch or dinner at Friedrichsruh a function to be remembered with gladness.

Count Herbert Bismarck is little understood in the country of his birth except by those who enjoy the privilege of his friend-



PRINCE BISMARCK.

ship. There where political passion is apt to invade private life, and color personal likes and dislikes so much more than in England, it was perhaps only natural that the son of a Bismarck, placed early in life in high position, should have afforded a welcome target for the shafts of rancorous enmity. And more readily so, as he has undoubtedly inherited the quick, spontaneous, receptive nature of his mother for sympathy or antipathy. One who knows him well once told me: "Herbert Bismarck may occasionally be curt to an acquaintance, but he is a true friend."

Count Herbert is said to have been a hard taskmaster at the Foreign Office. Of this I am, of course, unable to judge—nor could I readily believe it of one whom I know to be a devoted son and husband, and of whose popularity with the humblest of his dependents in his ancestral home I have often been witness. Perhaps the highest testimony to Herbert Bismarck's character is furnished by those who had ample opportunities of watching him closely in private life—during the years of official place and position in Berlin, when all the world of both sexes was ever sunny to the high-placed son of the all-powerful chancellor. I have found that these witnesses uniformly testify to his unaffected, genuine simplicity of heart, allied to a healthy contempt for adulation, the source of which he was always clear-sighted enough to discern.

On one occasion, happening to be alone with Prince Bismarck, the conversation turned on the charges of favoritism brought against the chancellor. I was agreeably surprised at the philosophical good humor with which the prince willingly entered upon a subject in private, which he has always held beneath his dignity to notice publicly. "Was it not natural," he said, "that I should turn to the one nearest to me, in whom I could trust implicitly, as a repository for and help in many important responsibilities and work I was burdened with during so many years?"

The fact is that a deal of the personal enmity Herbert Bismarck has been the object of is intimately connected with a lurid

feature of public life in our time. Where the arts of so-called popularity are usually manipulated with a cunning worthy the production of a successful advertisement for soap, a Herbert Bismarck is entirely out of place—truly a square peg in a round hole. No honied words to an eager interviewer from him, not even if the refusal—as has been often the case—should entail a subsequent cataract of malicious abuse. No after-dinner unctuous platitudes from one who, whatever his failings, has instinctively learnt by heart the advice of Polonius:¹

"This above all,—to thine own self be true;
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man."

In a roundabout way—as is often the case in this tortuous world of ours—that which is "true" has already exacted recognition. It is significant that of late a number of men of many parties have come to look upon Herbert Bismarck, not only with sympathy but with confidence as well. Among these men are many who by no means share his political views. But there is something deeper than the mere faith in certain political measures, which, amid a world of self-advertising trickery, instinctively attracts us toward that which can claim the possession of the one rare attribute,—character. Also there are many practical men in the Fatherland to-day who are of opinion that Herbert Bismarck might yet—if he likes—have a prominent political future before him. But those who know him best aver, that ambition—particularly that kind which partakes of a largely personal character, is about the last thing Herbert Bismarck is likely to be troubled with. At present he lives at Schönhofen with his young wife and family, whence he rarely strays, except to visit his parents or to go to Berlin when the Reichstag is sitting.

But while I have been musing, lunch is over and everybody retires to his room previous to gathering again for an afternoon stroll, ride, or drive in the neighborhood.

The whole first floor of Friedrichsruh Schloss² consists of a number of visitors' rooms, the only small one of which is usually occupied by Count Herbert. Otherwise

they are all large lofty rooms, plainly but cosily furnished. Interesting engravings and photographs of eminent persons adorn the walls. One of the best rooms is that which was usually occupied for months at a time by the late privy councilor Lothar Bucher, Bismarck's house-friend and right-hand man for many years at the Foreign Office. It contains a good number of books, many of them full of marginal notes in Bismarck's handwriting. Everything has a comfortable homely stamp in these rooms; even down to the old French moderator lamps, which are lit every evening and cast their soft light on the writing-table, where pens and paper are regularly placed for the convenience of the guests.

As is well known, Prince Bismarck leads the life of a country gentleman in his retirement, besides keeping a watchful eye on the political goings-on in the world. Not from choice perhaps, this latter, but because, from long force of habit, he cannot refrain from following with absorbing interest what has been the loadstar of his life. As I once heard him say: "Formerly I had a lot of hobbies, foremost among which was shooting. But in course of time politics swallowed them all up, as a big trout swallows up the little trout." Also, persons—outside his own family—whoever they be, seem to inspire but a transitory if not superficial interest in one who, all his life long, has held persons—however exalted or distinguished—as subordinate to "things,"—"things" with him meaning the affairs of the state, the steering apparatus of the ship, the eternal uncertainties and dangers of wind and weather: to him, the weather-beaten Pilot of Teuton Nationality!

"Will you take a drive with me?"

"With all my heart, Your Highness."

We are soon in the woods. The coachman knows his master's partialities and unbidden quickly leaves the high road to drive on to the soft forest turf among the lofty trees. The deer and wild-boar scamper off as we invade their domain and find our way as best we can up and down hill on the pathless virgin forest floor. It even happens that we lose our way and are suddenly face

to face with a running stream, the opposite bank of which affords no room for horses or carriage. We have to alight, to enable the horses to drag the carriage more easily back to the paths of civilization. Prince Bismarck loves to discuss all phases of country life during his drives; and now and then, if free from his persecuting enemy neuralgia, will occasionally draw from his endless store of interesting personal reminiscences. All this tends to make a drive in his company an experience to be treasured.

We pass a man on the road who seems ailing.

"Did you notice how ill that man looks?" he queries. "I wonder where he lives?" And the coachman is bidden to stop at several peasant houses to inquire; but none can tell us whence the pallid stranger hails. Bismarck has a kindly heart in private life, when not engaged in annihilating a political antagonist. Such are the psychological mysteries in the composition of some of the world's great men. I do not think Bismarck could say an unkind word to his son Herbert. He suddenly heard, in 1879, after the dreadful 18th of August before Metz, that both his sons had fallen in battle. The father rushed to inquire after his sons, but the statesman could not allow himself to be unnerved, even by so dire a calamity. In the words of the German ballad:

*Mein Sohn ist wie ein anderer Mann—
Frisch vorwärts in den Feind.*

(My son is like another man. Up, onward toward the foe.) Princess Bismarck has never, up to the present day, been able to forget those dreadful hours of suspense.

Prince Bismarck, if not less sensitive, is more philosophical. In his presence, you feel that a great statesman cannot afford himself the luxuries of sentiment legitimately cultivated by humbler mortals. He need not necessarily be less human than they, but his work calls for a certain something beyond that possessed by average humanity.

It is generally reported that Prince Bismarck is a rich man and this surmise has afforded some of his less amiable compatriots food for one of their sturdiest grievances against the great statesman. "He has made

his patriotism pay him well," they chuckle.

"There is nothing some of my enemies find so difficult to forgive as my crime of having become a wealthy man. Well, I suppose I must admit that I have been fairly successful in a material worldly sense; I even wonder at it myself at times. For if I look back I feel my wants were not extravagant. As long as I have a chair and a table and something overhead to keep the rain off, I feel I could be happy."

It would be almost an impertinence to affirm that which is, of course, self-understood,—that Prince Bismarck never benefited personally by what many men in his exalted position would have considered legitimate opportunities for investment. And nobody was so fully cognizant of the fact as his *homme d'affaires*,⁴ the late Baron Bleichröder, the Berlin banker. It is even said that the unbounded personal admiration Bleichröder ever felt for the prince was largely due to his accurate knowledge of Bismarck's lofty impersonal character in money matters.

On one occasion, Bismarck's oversensitive feeling of punctilio even led to his losing a very large sum of money, as I learned years ago from an unimpeachable source. The prince had invested his ready money in the funds of a certain country, in the prospects and good faith of which he always had unshaken belief. Diplomatic circumstances, however, arose, which in no way affected the credit of this said country, but which caused the prince to feel that it was not consistent with his position to hold these securities any longer. So he disposed of them, against the urgent advice of Baron Bleichröder, at a great loss, which he never recovered. But even more than this. Far from being the shrewd administrator of his large estates he is reputed to be, Bismarck has often gratified his hobbies as a country gentleman at the expense of his pecuniary interests as a landowner, and has spent large sums of money unproductively. In fact, although the nominal value of the Bismarck estates may be roughly put down at

between eight and ten million marks,⁵ the income derived therefrom just enables him to live in the well-to-do, but by no means lavish manner he has been accustomed to for so many years. This is, however, after all, anything but according to the standard of a rich man in his position. In truth, I should not be surprised to learn that among the intimates of his household several—for instance, his famous physician and a certain great painter—can show a larger income than the far-famed architect of German Unity with all his broad acres, his royal and national endowments.

The daily life of the Bismarck family has been so often and adequately described in detail, that I cannot bring myself to enlarge further on the subject on this occasion. One little trait must close my story!

It is evening at Friedrichsruh, and the family is gathered together in the drawing-room. The prince is usually reclining on the sofa and scanning the newspapers, a huge pencil in hand, with which he marks the passages that interest him. These pencils are quite a feature of the establishment, for as sure as a number of visitors have been to Friedrichsruh during the day, a scarcity of pencils sets in toward night. "Where are the pencils?" is the cry, when Princess Bismarck, ever intent on the slightest move of her husband, notices him silently looking round, his large eyes peering weirdly into space—evidently looking for his indispensable pencil. Ah, those hero-worshippers have again cleared the board of the famous Bismarck pencils! Such is one of the minor penalties of greatness, that you are not safe in your own house from the relic hunter.

But I have known a famous musician far more fortunate than the pencil pilferers! He had made himself particularly agreeable to the ladies by his music, and when he left he carried away in triumph and glee an old felt hat of Bismarck's. There are many men left in Germany to-day who would gladly have come from afar in order to take back that old hat with them!

EVELYN MOORE'S POET.*

BY GRANT ALLEN.

CHAPTER I.

SHE met him at Venice—in the gallery of the Campanile in the Piazza of St. Mark's.

Her mother had refused to go up to the summit with her. "My dear Evelyn," Mrs. Moore said testily, with the querulousness of old age, "how can you ever expect me, at my time of life, to get to the top of that dreadful tower?"

"I *don't* expect you, mother dear," Evelyn answered with a sigh: she was twenty-seven and romantic; "but how can you expect me to go away from Venice without having seen the view from the Campanile? You can sit on one of those nice chairs by the café over yonder, and watch the crowd. I won't be gone long; just look about and wait for me."

It was Evelyn's first visit to Venice, and she was charmed with everything—the gondolas, the pigeons, St. Mark's, the Doge's Palace, the dark women in the street, the red sails, the green water. So she mounted the Campanile with eager feet; such an easy ascent, too; no horrid stone steps, but a continuous inclined plane of smooth worn bricks, gently winding round and round, and so very well lighted! At the top, she emerged on the square gallery of the platform. All Venice glowed at her feet in refulgent sunshine. The five cupolas of St. Mark's, the red tower of San Giorgio, the myriad spires of the town, the vast dome of the Salute! For a moment, Evelyn held her breath, dazed with excess of pleasure. It was all so lovely! The oriental magnificence of the golden mosaics, the fantastic effect of the gilt-winged angels on the Gothic pinnacles, the Byzantine glories of the vast façade, the arcades of the Loggia, the twin pillars of the Piazzetta—bursting upon her all at once, they fairly made her heart stop! And then, the serpentine curve of the Grand Canal, For-

tuna's gilded ball on the Dogana di Mare, Nero's gilt horses above the portal of the great church, the Gindecca stretching map-like over the lagoon to the south, the snowy dells and penciled lines of the Tyrolese Alps sun-smitten to northward! It was too much for one first view. She drew back, half paralyzed by it.

"How lovely!" she murmured, half aloud, gazing down from the parapet at the roofs and domes of the magic city, threaded by silver lanes of gleaming water. "How perfect! How exquisite!"

"Yes, it *is* exquisite!" a clear and cultivated English voice broke in beside her. "Especially this afternoon! A divine October day! Such glorious sunshine! Such unusual clearness! I come up here twice a week; but never before in three years of Venice have I seen the Istrian Mountains, beyond the Adriatic, with their furrowed snows, so magnificently lighted up by the pale rose of sunset."

"It's my first visit," Evelyn answered, leaning for support on the parapet, and just glancing at the stranger. He was a comely young man, say thirty or thereabouts, with light straw-colored beard cut daintily to a point, and a supple thin figure, very tall and athletic looking.

"Oh, indeed," the stranger answered, drawing his beard through his hand and caressing it gently, "then you're fortunate in your first glimpse of this glorious view. Such pink light is rare, even here in Titian's Venice."

"How lucky!" Evelyn replied, turning away toward the other side, partly because she wanted to take in the whole bird's-eye picture undisturbed; but partly, too, from a vivid sense of British respectability. The perfect lady mustn't yield to conversation with a casual stranger in a brown tweed suit, no matter how handsome, well-bred, and gentlemanly, whom she meets by pure chance

on the top of a Campanile! She was a pretty woman; and she knew how to take care of herself.

But the young man with the pointed beard was not thus to be balked of his new acquaintance.

"You have no glasses," he said, following her, and offering her his own, which were of bright aluminium. "These are very powerful. If you've never been up here before, you won't know the different buildings, or the lagoons and islands. So many of the churches seem quite different from above. From the canals and *campi*, you see only the doorways and the marble façades; from this height on the other hand you look down upon nothing but brick walls and tiled cupolas."

Evelyn accepted the proffered glasses with somewhat doubtful grace. She wasn't quite certain whether 'twas quite proper to take them. She had been brought up at Clapham, in the strictest sect of their religion, a Grundyite. But the young man was so attentive and had such a sweet suave voice that she hardly thought it could be so wrong after all to talk to him. As she gazed through the glasses from point to point, he kept following the direction of her glance with his eyes, and describing to her one by one the different islets and channels.

"That's San Lazzaro over yonder," he said, "with the Armenian monastery; such an interesting place: has an oriental library. The smaller islands in the foreground are Saint 'Elena and San Servolo; and beyond them you can just see the high bank of the Lido. The church on the nearest island, with the basin in front, is San Giorgio Maggiore; I always admire its red brick campanile—so honest and workmanlike—with the bells showing through, and the marble top stuck just where it's wanted for constructive effect to complete the picture. They call it Maggiore, you see, to distinguish it from the other one, San Giorgio degli Schiavoni—Saint George of the Slavonians, over yonder to eastward. He was always a great saint here in Venice, was St. George; oriental, you know, very; that's St. George of the Greeks with the slender campanile jutting

out just in front of it. Plenty of Georges, big, little, or middle-sized, everywhere that the Byzantine influence penetrates; and Venice, of course, is essentially a bit of the Byzantine Empire isolated by pure chance on this side of the Adriatic. There's the Saint himself (you can make him out, I dare say) in gilded armor flamboyant in the sun on top of the dome of San Giorgio Maggiore; he's always in armor,—a most warlike man of God, representing the church militant—exactly as you know him on our own half-crowns, engaged with his short sword in demolishing the dragon. You've read about him in Gibbon, no doubt, I suppose. What, no? Well, you ought to then. It's all most interesting."

This was just the sort of conversation Evelyn loved to hear. It flattered her vanity. Without being quite above her range of comprehension, it gave her a vague sense of moving for the moment in literary society. She felt she was really learning something. The stranger was well-informed, and obviously eager to impart his information to a ready listener. He teemed with facts about Sansovino and Bellini. Before he had finished he had told his pretty friend at full length what Gibbon had to say about the knightly saint, and what the orthodox critics had to say about Gibbon's theory. He had explained to her Clermont-Ganhean's abstruse affiliation of the Cappadocian George on the Egyptian Horns. He had discoursed most pleasantly of the Slavonian merchants, who gave their name in old time to one of the many St. Georges, and to the Riva degli Schiavoni. He had waxed eloquent on the medieval Venetian trade with the ports of the Black Sea and the Esterlings of the Baltic. He had taught her so much, in fact, that Evelyn's poor head was in a perfect whirl, with it. She carried away from all he said some vague flitting phantasmagoria of Doge Dandolo's cap and Queen Catherine of Cyprus, of Romanesque arches and Venetian Gothic, of the porphyry knights at the corner of the Piazzetta, and the Runic inscriptions on the lions of the Arsenal. Yet the stranger was so pleasant and so soft-toned withal that as she listened she thought she

must remember every word of it. He had put everything so gracefully and in such simple words that even the unlearned and untraveled like herself could easily understand him.

Just at the last—when Evelyn was beginning to feel she really *must* go now, or mother would be so angry—the stranger, looking down upon the carved capitals of the columns in the piazza below, quoted half to himself some melodious lines of English poetry. They were beautiful, Evelyn thought; and indeed she was right; many critics of fine taste, both before and since, have stamped them with their approval.

"How lovely," she said timidly, glancing back at his frank face as he passed the pale straw-colored beard through his hand once more, and looked curiously hard at her. "Whose are they, I wonder?"

The handsome young man gave a faint little start of surprise and pleasure. "My own," he said simply. "I'm so glad you like them."

Evelyn drew back, and cast down her hazel eyes, half alarmed. She was unaccustomed as yet to the society of authors. "Your own!" she repeated taken by surprise. "Oh, how awfully nice! Then I suppose you're a poet."

"I write verses," the young man answered with modest reserve. "Verses—and plays. They've been favorably received in London and elsewhere. Very favorably indeed. Well, yes, I suppose, I may even go so far as to call myself a poet."

He said it with such evident native bashfulness, yet with an undercurrent of manly and not unbecoming pride, that Evelyn for her part was simply charmed with him. Little as she was accustomed to trust her own judgment in matters of art, she felt sure in her own mind that the verses the young man had just recited to her were genuine poetry. And, emboldened by his modesty, she said so, frankly.

The young man's eyes flashed unspoken gratitude. "Oh, I'm so glad you think them good," he answered, leaning across toward her and beaming. "It's encouraging to be praised. Praise is the best spur. It leads

one on to do more. We none of us get too much of it."

"But you said your poems and plays had been so well received," Evelyn interposed, half doubtful.

The young man drew himself up very proud and erect, and a shade passed momentarily over his handsome features. "Oh, yes, *well received*," he said, with a curious emphasis. "Very well received, indeed. Most cordially applauded. But that, after all—well, you know, that's not everything."

He let his soft voice drop, with a studied air of mystery. Every syllable sounded as distinct as a bell. Evelyn was longing to know what his words could mean—especially as he looked at her with a pathetic glance that invited inquiry and the chance of explanation. But just at that moment, her eye fell by accident on her mother below, gazing about among the dense crowd with fidgety apprehension. The daughter's conscience pricked her. "I must go," she said hurriedly, handing the young man back his luxurious opera-glasses. "My mother's waiting for me below. I've left her too long. I'm so much obliged to you for the use of these—and for the very kind way you've pointed everything out to me."

The stranger looked disappointed. His face fell suddenly. He had missed one chance. But he raised his hat none the less with a born courtier's grace. "Good afternoon," he said, bowing low; and his bow was instinct with old-fashioned courtesy. "I'm glad to have been of service to a lady in any way." He paused for a second; then he added, with grave dignity, "Perhaps I may be fortunate enough to meet so appreciative a critic again to-morrow."

"Perhaps," Evelyn answered with an inclination of the head, hardly knowing if she did right to encourage him so far. Though she feared it wasn't likely. And indeed she descended the inclined plane with a passing pang of distinct regret at the thought that she would probably never again meet him.

CHAPTER II.

EVELYN's mind was full of the young man with the pointed beard for the whole of the

evening, and all night long. To say the truth, her path had not hitherto been strewn with poets; and now she had found one, she was inclined to make the most of him. She regretted so much she hadn't asked him his name. She might have ordered his poems and plays from London. Or perhaps they were in the *Tanchints*; and if so, of course, she could even have got them without delay in Venice. But now the chance was gone; the critical moment was lost; and the uncertainty as to who the unknown singer might be would pursue her for a lifetime.

He was Somebody,—of that at least she was perfectly sure. Quite undoubtedly Somebody. There was an impressiveness in his grave smile, a solemn dignity in his pointed beard, a modesty in his clear and well-modulated voice, that at once acclaimed him something above the mere common poetaster. Only a man of mark could have admitted with such frank grace, with such conscious worth, yet with such retiring simplicity, the gentle impeachment of being a real live poet. And a real live poet he was, so Evelyn said to herself a hundred times over between one and three in the morning. His figure had by that time assumed heroic proportions. Quite unconsciously to herself indeed, Evelyn was falling in love with him.

Next day, after her early coffee, she strolled out by herself (as her Baedeker bid) into the Square of St. Mark's. Her mother was tired, and didn't want to walk till after luncheon. So, red guidebook in hand, Evelyn made her way dutifully by devious paths into the marvelous atrium of that queen of churches, and began spelling out with nicest care, as best she might, the meaning of the mosaics in the outer vestibule. For in her own blind way, like most others of her kind, she was eager after culture, and wished to learn all she could from this one Italian tour, the first and last, in all likelihood, that would ever be vouchsafed to her. But, Oh, how curt and lifeless good Herr Baedeker seemed with his cut-and-dried facts, after the rich living voice of yesterday evening on the Campanile! In vain she tried to solve those quaint riddles in gilt glass. They evaded

her elusively. She longed for the handsome stranger with the straw-colored beard to read for her the enigma of those world-old cupolas!

As she stood there, puzzling hard over Noah and his vine, her eyes rooted on the ceiling, a delicate voice at her side made her start with astonishment. "You should begin at the far right," it said in bell-like tones, "*not* to the left, as usual. The history's told the opposite way from the way you read: it begins at the end there. The Creation's in the first dome; the Deluge in the second; Father Abraham in the third; and so on through the rest of the Old Testament legend."

Evelyn's face shone with unaffected delight. This was really providential. She greeted the stranger like an old friend recovered, as he paused and raised his hat, half surprised himself at his own temerity in so boldly accosting her. "Oh, how nice," she said, frankly holding out one gloved hand. "Now you'll be able to tell me what it's all of it driving at. That's the making of Adam, I can see, overhead; but she doesn't look like Eve, the winged figure beside him."

"Oh, no," the young man answered, gazing above with eager eyes at the stiff and beautiful old Byzantine figures. "Why should Eve have wings? She was a woman, just like you, only—not half so interesting. Besides, if you'll look close, you'll see Eve's being taken a little farther on, out of Adam's right side, in a separate compartment. This is earlier in the scenes. That's the Lord, you notice, who had made Adam with His hands out of plastic clay, exactly like a sculptor; and the little winged figure He holds to Adam's mouth is the soul of man, as yet untaverned. The Lord is just going to breathe into Adam's nostrils the breath of life, and man will then become a living soul, as you read in the Scriptures. See how frankly and naïvely the old artificers conceived the gist of the passage! The Lord stuffs the soul down Adam's throat in as literal a sense as one might stuff down a bolus."

Evelyn saw he was right at once—though

she herself would never have guessed it. But the knowledge delighted her. Quite willingly she committed herself into the stranger's hands to be led about the building. He had nothing to do, he said, and would be charmed to show her round, and explain what he could to her. "I can verge," he said, laughing, "I know almost every stone in St. Mark's by heart, and if you care to hear, I shall be proud of such a listener."

Evelyn felt raised in her own esteem by the handsome stranger's apparent partiality. Young men at home, at Clapham, with less than half his brains (not to speak of the pointed beard), affected to think lightly of her feminine intellect. This clever young poet, the ablest and nicest man she had ever yet met, was all courtly deference and polite appreciation. Nothing pleases a woman so much as to find she can talk her best to the cleverest man. His quickness to seize and to put into words what she leaves half unexpressed makes her seem abler than she is, and so flatters her soul with the subtlest flattery.

She followed him round the portico, drinking in at every pore the knowledge he flashed in upon her. He made her see everything. The strange old figures in Byzantine attitudes seemed to live at his word upon their golden backgrounds. The stories in dumb show on the pictured arches seemed to enact themselves afresh at his explanations. The animals that waddled, two and two, into the ark; the dove that flew, wooden, across the solid waters; the builders who fell out over the tower of Babel—she read them all now with the true eye of faith in their twelfth-century simplicity. Then her poet, nothing loth, led her passive round the church, inside and out, chapels, sacristy, and gallery. He paused by the spiral alabaster column that came from Solomon's Temple at Jerusalem, he showed her the golden pall that covers the very bones of the second Evangelist, he pointed out the short square pillars, deeply scored with inscriptions in mystic Greek characters, "conveyed, the wise call it," he said with a queer smile, "from the demolished church of St. Saba at Ptolemus."

Evelyn drank it, all in with wondering delight; 'twas so charming to be treated on terms of such perfect intellectual equality by so learned a personage.

"How well you know Venice!" she exclaimed at last, as she stood with her back to the Doge's Palace gazing up at the ornate south front of St. Mark's with its encrusted portico. "You seem to me to have learned every stone of it."

"Why, of course," the young man answered looking half surprised at so simple a remark; "I almost consider the Rialto my own, the scene of one of my very best-known plays is laid in the city."

"Not 'The Gondoliers'?" Evelyn put in somewhat hastily, glancing with vague alarm at so distinguished a playwright. Mr. Gilbert must surely be much more than thirty.

"No, not 'The Gondoliers'!" the young man replied with a half contemptuous smile. "Though it's had a longer run," he added after a pause, "on the London boards than any of those slight things of Gilbert's and Sullivan's."

He spoke with such confidence and such a studied air of high intellectual disdain that Evelyn was half afraid her suggestion had offended him. Clearly, she thought to herself, he must be somebody *very* distinguished. And, indeed, in the course of the morning, the young man quoted more than once a few verses of his own, from one of his Italian dramas, which she recognized as possessing the truest and highest ring of dramatic poetry. So eager was she to discover his identity, indeed, that she was quite relieved when at parting he asked her politely if he might learn her name. Evelyn gave it him, all trembling, with a droop of the long dark lashes. The young man in return pulled out a Russia leather card-case, and presented her with a card. She gazed at it, hardly knowing what distinguished poet she ought most to expect. 'Twas with a faint little start of surprise and disappointment that she read the simple words, "Mr. William Sperling."

She had never heard of him!

For a moment, she regretted it was no better known man. Next instant, her heart,

loyal to him already, had made answer to her doubts, "What matters his name? What matters his fame? Those are both extraneous. He is what he is. If not famous as yet, he must be one day. Or if never at all, still none the less great because not famous."

Swiftly as all this passed through her mind, however, her poet yet noted it with the instinctive quickness of the poetic temperament. "You never heard my name before," he said, looking down at her hurriedly with a strange air of anxiety.

Evelyn rose to the occasion. "No, I never heard it before," she answered with a frank smile; "and I was so perfectly sure you were some one very great, both from your verses and your talk, that I fully expected to recognize it at once as very familiar. All the more so as I'm sure I've heard or read somewhere some of the lovely verses you repeated to me this morning."

The young man was standing, hat in hand, in the Piazzetta to bid her adieu. He ran his fingers for a moment through his hair, and flung it picturesquely off his high white forehead. "I expected as much," he said, with an abstracted air, fixing his clear blue eyes on her. "I'm seldom recognized, indeed I may almost with truth say never." Then he added after a short pause, "But that's not the name under which I publish my poems and plays. I adopt a pseudonym."

"What is it?" Evelyn cried, now burning with curiosity. She could remember no playwright of the present day—especially one so young—who seemed to her mind to fulfill for a moment all the requirements of the situation. But then, she knew so little of the world of literature.

The young man, however, only smiled once more that enigmatic smile of his, and handed her with grave and deferential care into the gondola he had called for her. "Ah, no," he said smiling, and shaking his head with grave solemnity. "That would be to tell you too much,—and too soon, I think. Some other day, perhaps—" he waved his hand gracefully.

"Whither, Signor?" the gondolier asked, looking up at him and bowing.

"Whither, Signora?" the poet echoed, with a laugh.

"To the Hotel Britannia," Evelyn answered, with half a blush, feeling vaguely ashamed of so prosaic an address in that romantic Venice.

"And I," the young man answered, as if to complete the introduction, "have apartments of my own—very nice little rooms—on the Fondamenta delle Zattera."

He raised his hat once more with a regretful air. He *was* so handsome! As the gondola glided away by the Royal Gardens, Evelyn saw him still standing there, bareheaded and abstracted. She was really in love with him now; no use in denying the fact; and it occurred to her in a flash that he too—well, perhaps, he too was in love with her. She was pretty and intelligent; and then, of course, a poet's fancy!

CHAPTER III.

AT the Britannia that evening, Evelyn was sitting at *table d'hôte* a little disconsolate at the thought that she might never again, perhaps, behold her unknown singer. Her mother sat next her, with a little black shawl round her ample shoulders, and Evelyn had turned toward her, to combat for the twentieth time since she crossed the Channel the maternal suspicions against the soup of the Continent. While she was engaged in that hopeless task, somebody glided in, unperceived, along the parquetry floor, and took the vacant seat next her. When she turned to her place again, she gave a start of surprise, while a conscious flush rose hot to her very forehead. "What, you, Mr. Sperling!" she cried, scarcely able to contain herself. "I thought you said you had permanent rooms of your own on the Fondamenta delle Zattera!"

"So I have," the poet answered, with apologetic shyness, fixing his eyes on his napkin. "Very nice little rooms, which I've furnished and decorated. But I fancied—well, you see, Miss Moore, it's lonely to be always by myself in lodgings; so I decided just for once to come to the hotel and seek a little society."

"Then you're dining here to-night?" Evelyn asked, secretly flattered. asked, at a pause in the conversation. She trembled for the answer.

The poet looked embarrassed. "I've taken rooms here for the present," he answered, playing idly with his bread. "I—eh—I mean to keep them as long—as long as I find it comfortable." "How long will *you*?" the poet answered, growing bold, and gazing across at her inquiringly.

He glanced meaningly at Evelyn as he spoke. She understood him perfectly—her heart gave one wild bound. This was too good to be true. Her poet meant to stop there as long as she did. Evelyn's heart beat high. Her full bosom heaved and fell.

All through dinner that night, Evelyn lived and moved in the seventh heaven. How cold and formal it seemed, that conventional introduction—"Mother dear, this is Mr. Sperling, who, I told you, was so kind to me at St. Mark's this morning." "I don't quite know," she answered, dropping her voice. "We *intended* a week. But perhaps—if we like the place, I might persuade my mother to stop a little longer."

Her mother turning round, took him in from head to foot with a stony matronly British stare. But what was that to Evelyn? Her singer had come there on purpose that he might sit by her side: and he talked to her all through dinner—ah, heaven, how he talked! she knew now what it meant, that biblical phrase about speaking with the tongues of men and angels; for his voice was low and sweet, and his words were exquisite. "Then *I* stop as long as *you* stop," the poet said boldly. "Do please be persuasive." He was feeling his wings now. This one woman understood him.

After dinner, they went into the *salon*. Mrs. Moore took up Galignani, and ensconced herself comfortably in an easy chair. Galignani indeed, in place of the poet's bright talk! Yet Evelyn was glad of it. She wanted him all to herself, in the corner by the garden, that opens out upon the Grand Canal and the beautiful moonlit water. The *barca* drew nearer, with Chinese lanterns all aglow; it paused pensive just in front; women's voices floated soft across the waters of the canal, singing gay Venetian serenades with just an occasional undertone of Italian melancholy. Evelyn and the poet broke off their talk and listened. What more seductive than music, heard at night, by two together? At last, as the voices finished, the poet burst in once more.

"You sing yourself," he said quietly and confidently, "I'm sure of it. I can see it untold. There's a noticeable fullness in your throat that always betrays the born songstress."

"Yes, I sing,—a little," Evelyn answered, well pleased that he should have noticed her peculiarities so closely, and without further demand, not waiting for the airs and graces of Clapham society, she rose from her chair at once and sat herself down at the hotel piano.

She wanted him, and she got him. He sat and talked to her in his melodious voice. Through the trellised window, they could just catch glimpses now and again of wandering gondolas upon the silvery channel, gondolas that glided by with colored lanterns at their prows, and women in light wraps stretched at full length beneath the awnings. Santa Maria loomed large against the twilight sky; vague sounds of singing voices floated in upon them, as they sat, from a *barca* just opposite. Oh, how glad she was then that she had spent so many weary years in cultivating what voice kind Nature had bestowed upon her! For she sang really well, and to-night, under pressure of so unwonted a stimulus, her throat seemed to flow and trill as she herself had never before known it. Love is a mighty master of music to mortals.

As for the poet, he leaned over her, drinking it in delighted. When she finished, his eyes met hers and murmured a mute, "Thank you."

"How long will you stop here?" Evelyn For a moment, he said nothing; then

he bent down and uttered in a very low voice three lines of poetry: my best plays," he said. "You've never seen it?"

"If music be the food of love, play on;
Give me excess of it; that, surfeiting,
The appetite may sicken and so die."

"I don't think so," Evelyn answered, arching her eyebrows in doubt. "But tell me the name of it."

Evelyn glanced up at him with one hand just quivering over the notes on the key-board. "Your own?" she asked in a tremulous voice. The poet shook his head. "No, not yet," he said slowly, with a very resigned air. "It wouldn't do just now. You might be just like the others." And he relapsed for a moment into meditative silence.

The poet nodded assent. "From one of a moment into meditative silence.

(*To be concluded.*)

A CONCLUSION.

BY W. P. STODDARD, M. A.

FROM stormy Alpine height and frosty peak,
Where wildest winds their weirdest language speak,
From yawning chasm, dark in deep abyss,
Where plunging torrents rush and roar and hiss,
From frozen earth and bleakest wintry height,
Where glacier, scarred and wrenched, in lazy might
As, urged by snows beyond, asunder tears
The mighty rock and on its bosom bears
It to the stream,—we haste away, o'er gorge
Sublime and sunny mead, to Vulcan's forge,
Where 'mid the mighty fires and belching haze
Vesuvian, we halt awhile to gaze
In rapt delight and dread.

'Tis ever so.

This changeful life—in playful jest and mood,
Or savage, stolid visage fierce and rude—
To-day gives joy and cheer, serene and bright.
To-morrow clouds and storms are on. The light
That glows and beams effulgent on the way
In radiant shafts of love and hope to-day,
Is soon dispelled, while fiery trials burn
And scorch the flowers of peace. 'Tis then we yearn
For pastures green and limpid streams of rest
Beyond the ken of pain, in regions blest
Of God.

Ah me, if ever faith should fail,
And life at best prove only one sad wail
Of woe!

It is not so. The path of earth
Is strewn with flowers sweet and rare. No dearth
Of joy e'er mars the life of him who wears
His joy *within*, where reigns the love that bears
A Christ enthroned. To him, nor cloud nor storm
Of circumstance controls. He holds his form
Serene, as beacon light in raging gale—
Fed by a power unseen—shines on and on.

JOURNALISM IN THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

BY THEODORE L. FLOOD.

WHEN Beverley Waugh was a bishop in the Methodist Episcopal church the religious tract was the printed medium for conveying religious instruction to Methodist homes and to people whom church members desired to bring into the fold. The Tract Society gave direction to the printing and distributing of these religious documents. To-day the religious paper has supplanted the tract and in every way fills a much larger place.

The weekly paper of this church is a unique institution. The intelligent Methodist subscribes for it from a sense of duty or because it is a religious privilege. It is regarded as an essential by the local leader in his church. Twenty-five years ago the preacher was the agent. He advertised the periodical in his pulpit, on the circuit, and in the station; he received money for it and did all the business of a news agent for his congregation and the publisher. It was one of his official duties, and by magnifying the office of news agent the clergy helped to establish Methodist periodical literature. Hence it is that every Methodist preacher and layman is a partner in the company which owns the Methodist press in the United States.

This fact weighed heavily when the final ownership of these religious papers was determined. For instance, Thomas A. Morris, as a member of the Ohio Conference, assisted by some of his brethren began the publication of the *Western Christian Advocate* in Cincinnati about 1831, and in less

than four years he had secured 5,500 subscribers. It was offered to the General Conference and was accepted by that body as the property of the church. Dr. Morris was elected editor and afterwards he was made a bishop. It is the old story that one victory leads to another,— he made the paper and the church made him bishop.

The church has owned that periodical ever since and it is worth to-day about \$200,000. The *Northwestern Christian Advocate* at Chicago and the *Central Christian Advocate* at St. Louis are each worth about as much more; the *Pittsburg Christian Advocate* and the *Northern Christian Advocate* at Syracuse, N. Y., are worth about \$100,000 each; *The Christian Advocate* (New York) may be rated at about \$400,000, and the *Epworth Herald* at Chicago, \$100,000. If appraisers were



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(New York.)

appointed by the courts to estimate the value of these periodicals we think these figures would be counted very nearly correct. Reference is made here simply to their subscription list and good will, apart from the buildings, presses, and other equipments used for producing the papers. This estimate shows that the Methodist people have well nigh a million and a half dollars in these periodicals. Add to them the *Quarterly Review*, the *San Francisco Advocate*, *Zion's Herald*, and the *Sunday School Teachers' Journal*, together with all the other Sunday school publications, which may be estimated at a million dollars, and the total will be about two and one half million dollars invested in current literature.



CHARLES PARKHURST, D.D.
Editor "Zion's Herald" (Boston.) (Unofficial.)

This is a potential educational force in constant operation fifty-two weeks in every year. The combined circulation of the weeklies must reach over 250,000. This is a powerful force for the spread of spiritual Christianity and this was the original purpose of these papers. How near they come to this standard now it is not our purpose to discuss. It was a prime object to furnish at a low price spiritual reading and a variety of information concerning the churches, but it was not the design to make them sources of revenue. It has come to pass, however, through the numerical growth of the church and general prosperity of the country, in which all newspapers share, especially if they carry advertisements, that these periodicals yield a rich annual profit to the church. This is the business side of the Methodist press.

Our readers will find the portraits of the editors connected with this article. These are the men who edit the Methodist papers, and who voice the sentiments of the church and ministry on all questions that concern Methodist people. The General Conference, a body which meets once in four years, elects the editors to the *papers al-*

ready named with one exception,—the editor of *Zion's Herald* is elected by the Wesleyan Association, which is made up of representatives from the different Annual Conferences located in New England. It is not expedient that we write up each editor, since we prefer to characterize the Methodist press as a whole.

Is the circulation of these periodicals in proportion to the membership of the denomination? There are now nearly two million Methodists in this country. Therefore the legitimate inquiry is, Do these papers go to enough Methodist people? Is their influence as far reaching as it ought to be, and is the church as aggressive through its press in educating as it might be? These questions are suggestive when we consider that there are about three adherents to each congregation for every member and this makes a vast multitude whose existing relations to Methodism excite the ambition of the zealous for the more extensive circulation of the weekly paper.

Is not a new style of religious paper needed in these days of new inventions and progressive thought? We have made such



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Editor "Northwestern Christian Advocate." (Chicago.)



JESSE BOWMAN YOUNG, D. D.
Editor "Central Christian Advocate." (St. Louis.)

progress in the art of printing that ample illustration could be furnished without increase of price. Have not the daily and weekly secular papers pulled past the church paper by ingenuity and enterprise? Reproduction by line drawing and the photo-engraving process is now within easy reach, and if used by a religious periodical might aid it in gaining power and influence over both young and old by appealing to the esthetic taste. Again, Has not the church paper lost much of its spiritual tone, being smothered by the general current of worldly news, which gives a character for dealing extensively with secular human affairs, treating of literature and man's organizations, aiming to fill the position of a teacher of all knowledge rather than being confined to the task of a teacher of personal salvation?

The masses crave rich spiritual pabulum such as might appear in the weekly church paper. Talented and highly educated men and women there are in large numbers who need only the word to start their pens to writing articles that would breathe a new impulse every week into thousands of human souls. Their talent is now wrapped in a napkin. It

needs only the unfolding of the napkin and the work set before their gifts that it may be done. A holy fire may burn as appropriately on the altar of a printed page every week as in the heart of a preacher's sermon. The one is printed, the other spoken, and often both are written. What a sowing of the seed! it would be in many churches where the preaching is without intellectual discrimination or profound amplification. We are persuaded that the rank and file of the ministry is influenced in the character of its piety and the nature of its sermons by the weekly visits of the church paper more powerfully than by the instruction of all the other officers of the church combined. The press of the country has been developed during and since the Civil War to a degree never before witnessed among any people and the chief, continuous, powerful preachers of the Gospel to-day may be the editors of our religious weeklies.

There is an element in the church that has advocated a weekly paper at a dollar a year. This would be a popular price and would bring it within the reach of the masses. The increased circulation it would



DAVID H. MOORE, D. D.
Editor "Western Christian Advocate." (Cincinnati.)

be sure to win would make it a safe financial venture. New York would be a good center from which to issue one, with Dr. Buckley as editor. With an enterprising business management it ought to reach in a little while a circulation of one hundred fifty to two hundred thousand copies per week. The same ought to be true of such a paper published in Chicago with Dr. Arthur Edwards as editor. By keeping these two men in editorial positions for well nigh twenty years the Methodist church has shown a high order of wisdom. Get a good editor and then keep him. Two such papers as experiments would soon test the question, though it could hardly be called an experiment with the present constituency already assured.



CHARLES W. SMITH, D. D.
Editor "Pittsburg Christian Advocate."

We suggested the one dollar paper to Dr. Buckley more than seven years ago, but he was handicapped for an advocate of the movement; a member of the General Conference could not lay aside all modesty to insist on a radical change in both the form and price of the paper and then stand for an election as editor. It would be asking too much, and since no man championed the plan openly it was dropped. This is one of the complications which becomes an obstacle to progress in the growth of the Methodist press. The General Conference is too unwieldy a machine for the supervision of business enterprises such as newspapers. The editors and business managers might



BENJAMIN F. CRAVY, D. D.
Editor "California Christian Advocate." (San Francisco.)

with great propriety be elected by a corporate body of a dozen men on some such plan as operates *Zion's Herald*. A paper like *The Christian Advocate* at New York ought to have its own business manager who would have nothing else to do but attend to the business interests of that great periodical, just as A. S. Weed gives himself wholly to the business affairs of *Zion's Herald* at Boston. The truth is, the Methodist book agents, east and west, four in number, have enough work piled upon them for at least ten men, every one of whom ought to receive as large a salary as an agent does, and have his own special work in the business management of a great periodical. Any other business house would conduct such important business enterprises after



J. E. C. SAWYER, D. D.
Editor "Northern Christian Advocate." (Syracuse, N. Y.)

this fashion, and the result would be a very much larger business to conduct.

reached in a voluminous variety. The reaction is sure to come when we shall have less matter and just as much information.

The attitude of these papers to the institutions of Methodism is peculiar, if not anomalous. Every editor elected by the General Conference

proceeds with his work on the principle that he must first make his paper the evangel of everything

that bears the name of his church. There seems to be little, if any, toleration in editorial or contributed article of any pointed criticism on the established order of things in the church. This is peculiarly noticeable in the administration of the bishops. There are sixteen bishops who make the appointments of several thousand ministers as pastors to several thousand churches every year. Now, a bishop is human. He fills a high

office, but it is only an office. He may make a mistake. Such a thing has been done by appointing the wrong man to a given pulpit. It has been done in an arbitrary way over the heads of the official men representing the church. As a result the church is rent, damaged for a decade. A bishop has been known to overstep his authority in an Annual Conference. We have seen a bishop assume a rôle in a General Conference that was subversive of all parliamentary law and regular order in the body, but he was not criticised except *sotto voce* and in small coteries. One bishop does a thing one way, another bishop at a later date does the same thing in the same place another way, giving to ministers and the church a variety of episcopal administration. The press has no word of criticism. If a bishop veers from the Methodist standards of doctrine in his public



JESSE L. HURLBUT, D.D.
Editor Sunday School Periodicals. (New York.)

The official papers are being published on the same plan as to price that characterized them thirty years ago. No radical change has been attempted except to invest more money in articles and to increase their proportions. The enlargement is open to the comment that for the practical purposes of religious literature a high order of efficiency is sacrificed. The extreme in all periodical literature is now being



E. W. S. HAMMOND, D.D.
Editor "Southwestern Christian Advocate."
(New Orleans.)



WILLIAM V. KELLEY, D.D.
Editor "Methodist Review." (New York.)



JOSEPH F. BERRY, D.D.
Editor "Epworth Herald." (Chicago.)



HENRY LIEBHART, D.D.
Editor "House and Hearth." (Cincinnati.)
the Methodist people.

The above and other points unmentioned show how the press owned by the church becomes blind to all defects in the episcopacy. A bishop is always kept at the focus of fame. It is enough to spoil an archangel, to say nothing of men who are made a little lower than the angels. It

teaching his Methodism. It makes the church weak in the recognition it receives in these worldly periodicals just where the church should be constantly represented, if even at times it thrusts the episcopacy into a storm of discussion. Bishop Simpson was widely known outside of his communion because he stood for the cause of the Union in the midst of a fierce conflict and was discussed in the daily press. It may be said that it would be unwise to discuss such matters in the public prints. But if so, why is it so? We cannot appreciate any argument that would justify such a course. Fair criticism would certainly produce caution in a bishop and prove a safety valve for the expression of wholesome sentiment on



ALBERT J. NAST, D.D.
Editor "Christian Apologist."
(Cincinnati.)

should be remembered that this excess of courtesy, this dead calm in the church press, minifies the bishops outside of their own denomination. The secular part of laymen bearing financial and other burdens who feel that their church has been injured by an arbitrary appointment of pastors. It would



A. WALLACE, D.D.
Editor "Ocean Grove Record."
(Asbury Park, N. J.) (Unofficial.)

lar press in gathering news gets its cue from the church press. So it has come to pass that the Methodist branch of the episcopacy is treated as if it were composed of so many retired ministers. Very little but compliment concerning them appearing in the church press, there is nothing



J. H. POTTS, D.D.
Editor "Michigan Christian Advocate."
(Detroit.) (Unofficial.)

save such churches from being dwarfed by sacrificing intelligent and useful laymen who do not believe in the infallibility of the episcopacy. Any bishop who has been properly trained in patience, until he is religiously malleable, would welcome wholesome discussion of his administration rather



T. SNOWDEN THOMAS.
Editor "Peninsula Methodist."
(Wilmington, Del.) (Unofficial.)

in the shape of than the doubtful attitude of Bohemian editor can lay his hands on that paralysis, which is the will interest the outside positive tendency of the world not attached to the present régime. Discussion al-



REV. GEORGE HUGHES.
Editor "The Christian Standard."
(Philadelphia.) (Unofficial.)



A. N. FISHER, D.D.
Editor "Pacific Christian Advocate."
(Portland, Ore.)



A. HAAGENSEN.
Editor "Den Christelige Talsmand."
(Chicago.) (Unofficial.)

sume that I should be the same kind that now appears,—do the same things because it is the fashion in this school of editors. Gilbert Haven broke the spell both as an editor and a bishop for he hit hard as a writer and was himself often hit. A Methodist editor works under traditions which have come



REV. S. MCGERALD.
Editor "Buffalo Christian Advocate."
(N. Y.) (Unofficial.)

to arguments, pro and con, in the open, will help the bishop to see his own course more clearly because he will elicit the ripest views of the ablest men for and against his cause. It would tend to broaden the office and create a demand for the greatest men in the church to fill it.

If in this ambling treatment of the episcopacy the office is contracted, first to the diocesan plan, second to a limited tenure of office, the main reasons for it may be traced to the fact that the bishops were placed on pedestals above the questionings of their peers in a powerful church press. Therefore we incline to the opinion that the spell should be broken in Methodist journalism by subjecting bishops to the same rules that are applied to other ministers, and that

ways leads to new methods or it evolves new ideas which are likely to result in improvement. If I were editor of a Methodist paper I pre-



J. W. SHANK, D. D.
Editor "Omaha Christian Advocate."
(Neb.) (Unofficial.)

down from the an Annual time his paper Conference in was estab- regular stand- ing and must does not ven- answer for er- ture to break rors in his therule. Kind- teaching of lybut firmly to doctrine or for subject a inveighing in strong bishop any degree



J. FRED HEISSE, D. D.
Editor "Baltimore Methodist."
(Unofficial.)

Seney, Oliver Hoyt and Dr. D. H. Wheeler. They were all giants, some with the pen, others with their generous use of money.

That paper made lay delegation in the General Conference a fact. When this goal was reached, it quit the field.



T. R. STEPHENS.
Editor "Kansas Christian Advocate."
(Topeka.) (Unofficial.)

built on the same kind of a foundation and presents a similar superstructure. It is more independent in its business management because each unofficial paper has its own business manager. But the paper is amenable to church law in the person of its editor, who is a member of



REV. B. D. ALDEN.
Editor "Inland Christian Advocate."
(Des Moines.) (Unofficial.)

against the established organization.

The Methodist, which was published in New York, is now deceased. It was nursed into life by Doctors John McClintock, George R. Crooks and Abel Stevens, fostered by Daniel Drew and George I.



R. H. YOUNG.
Editor "The Methodist Herald."
(Minneapolis.) Unofficial.

"THE HORIZON LINE."



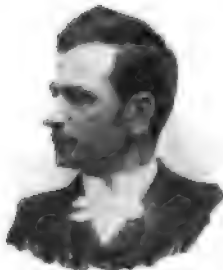
W. SWINDELLS, D. D.
Editor "Philadelphia Methodist."
(Unofficial.)

The Methodist press has power to broaden Methodism at the top, after the fashion of Gilbert Haven's idea as seen in his treatment of his brother in



S. C. SWALLOW.
Editor "Pennsylvania Methodist."
(Harrisburg.) (Unofficial.)

black, and Matthew Simpson's views of woman's suffrage and woman's rightful place as a delegate in the General Conference. If Bishop Simpson



R. J. COOKE, D. D.
Editor "Methodist Advocate-Journal."
(Chattanooga, Tenn.) (Unofficial.)



C. E. REEVES.
Editor "Columbia Christian Advocate."
(Spokane.) (Unofficial.)

had not died, women would have been admitted as delegates into the General Confer-

ing popular and liberal education into the homes of the masses, and bringing in a new era by establishing closer fraternal relations with

every name at Chautauqua, an institution which exists to-day in all lands.

"THE HORIZON LINE."

BY RANDALL NEEFUS SAUNDERS.

(SUGGESTED BY A SONNET BY THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON.)

THE far horizon we may never reach,
 How e'er we press toward the sunset sky:
 Athirst, we long to pass the golden breach,
 Where amber stars, like drops of nectar, lie.
 Yet, some one stands on that far glowing line
 (As we are standing where some soul aspired,
 And called our height *his distant horizon*)
 To find those drops of Tantalos as fine,—
 To find himself with grander purpose fired
 For those he knows are surely coming on.
 The new attains the things for which we yearn
 To yearn for things beyond our present goal,
 And unborn ages yet will quaff and learn
 The full expansion of th' immortal soul.

DR. OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES' HEALTH CODE.

BY FELIX L. OSWALD, M. D.

A BIOGRAPHER of the Empress Katharine relates that her eccentric husband once invited the Academy of St. Petersburg to explain how the utility of modern science could be reconciled with the fact that so many enormous rascals were found in the ranks of the legal profession, and that physicians, with all their pills and panaceas, were generally shortlived.

In reply, the facetious committee of investigation suggested that "the zeal for the service of His Czarish Majesty's subjects had left many lawyers no leisure to secure the salvation of their own souls, while, for similar reasons, doctors had not always time to attend to the welfare of their bodies," but ventured to mention one notable exception in the case of an eminent physician, a member of their own faculty, who had attained an age of three score and ten, his sanitary omniscience having saved his own person from the contagion of the countless diseases which he had succeeded in curing.

According to that test of medical infallibility, Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes' competence as an oracle of hygiene should rival that of Hippocrates himself. The venerable father of the healing art is said to have reached the age of one hundred and four, but enjoyed the advantage of a birthland blest with a climate of perpetual spring, where stifling lecture halls and stove-heated sickrooms were as unknown as cigarette-shops and distilleries. The physical superiority of his race was partly perhaps also due to the facilities of travel that enabled the semi-oriental islanders of Asiatic Greece to intermarry with the fair-haired natives of the Macedonian coastlands, and only in that latter respect the son of the New England clergyman could boast an objective basis of favorable sanitary auspices.

His maternal ancestors had been dwellers at the shore of the Zuyder Zee, and one of his favorite biological tenets was the theory that the intermixture of vigorous, but

variously endowed nations is a chief factor in the progress of the human race. He admits that now and then an offspring of such marriages may inherit the less desirable qualities of his ancestors, but contends that there is more than an even chance of a less unfortunate combination and that as a consequence the inhabitants of international frontiers are generally both mentally and physically superior to the homogenous population of inland provinces.

He also collected data of numerous instances illustrating the evil effects of consanguineous marriages and probably lived to see a striking confirmation of his theory in the case of the Rothschilds, who, according to the recent statement of an intelligent observer, "have not a single youngster who, with the possible exception of young Lionel Walter of the English branch, is able to take the place of his father in the firm. Most of their children are stunted, in more than one sense of the word, as a result of too close intermarriage,—a practice the object of which has been to keep the money in the family and prevent the business secrets of the five-headed bank from leaking out."

Holmes often laments the wretched climate of his native land, but inclines to the opinion that its sins in spoiling the opportunities for outdoor recreation are redeemed by its tendency to counteract the evils of indoor life. "In southern Europe," he says, "I have seen more than one bathroom that limits its patrons to water only a few degrees below the seething point,—an arrangement that reminds me of the climatic afflictions of countries where an open window admits nothing but superheated air. In bleak New England you can mix your domestic atmosphere according to your own notions of health and comfort. Coal is cheap, and marrow freezing drafts, to temper an excess of artificial caloric, can be enjoyed at almost any time of the year."

Many of his favorite hygienic prescriptions were, indeed, intended to remedy the evils of overheating, both by fuel and caloric food, and he mentions a simple measure of ventilation, proposed by Dr. John Clark, that saved the lives of thousands of children confined in sweltering hospitals. "How long," he adds, "would it have taken calomel and rhubarb to save so many lives? These may be useful in prudent hands, but how insignificant compared to the plan of removing the causes of disease by timely attention to hygienic conditions!"

His faith in the remedial virtues of refrigeration stopped short of a partiality for shower-baths of ice-water, but he had an abiding confidence in the bracing effect of winter sports, or outdoor exercise in the cool of the morning, "with or without the prescription of a barefoot race in a dew-drenched meadow," to which the patients of Pastor Kneipp attribute their miraculous recoveries. That practical refutation of the popular catarrh-superstition he considers merely a modified form of the "antiphlogistic treatment, practiced thousands of years ago by the sagacious Erasistratus," and suggests that half an hour's work with a snow shovel would answer much the same purpose.

He did not, however, deny the occasional value of heat as a remedial agency, and recommends the sunbaths of the ancient Romans, as well as the expedient of the Baltic shore dwellers, who carry sickly children to the beach and bury them up to the neck in sun-warmed sand. "The cure of diseases by changes of temperature," he proposes as the title of a much-needed treatise, and considers the germ theory of contagious disorders one of the most important revelations of the present age, "especially," he remarks, "in connection with the fact that microbes can be killed by degrees of heat and cold, which man, their living boarding-house, can easily weather."

Half-developed disease-germs, he holds, our system will contrive to expel with a little assistance in the form of a more fluid diet, "whence the efficiency of grape cures, whey cures, and mineral waters"—implying a conjecture that a dollar's worth of home-

made lemonade would obviate the necessity of many an expensive trip to a fashionable health resort.

Among the illustrations of the fact that the composition of the blood-purifying fluid (if drunk in sufficient quantities and free from noxious admixtures) is a matter of secondary importance, he quoted the crotchet of Bishop Berkeley, "that great and good man, whose mind had, however, got saddled with two very odd opinions: viz., that the whole material universe was nothing and that *tar-water* was everything." A long series of experiments, conducted under his personal supervision, had convinced the illustrious prelate that "a liquid prepared by stirring a gallon of water with a quart of tar and pouring off the clear water at the end of the second day," would almost infallibly cure smallpox, scurvy, pleurisy, erysipelas, cæcexia, catarrh, asthma, indigestion, hysterics, dropsy, and hypochondria.

The rapid spread of that delusion Holmes ascribes to the vulgar notion that sick people must be made to swallow nauseous specifics, and that Berkeley's nostrum is just unpalatable enough to humor the current prejudice without doing serious mischief,—even without considering the beneficial effects of its large percentage of simple water.

Dr. Zimmermann's Memoirs attribute the long life of Frederick the Great to his timely renunciation of the error which for years had made him stint himself in sleep to lengthen his working hours. Holmes abjured that suicidal practice before the end of his college years, and held that a liberal allowance of rest adds to the enjoyment of life as well as to its duration, but he attached no importance to the observance of fixed bedroom hours. When the fatigues of the preceding day demanded a few hours of extra sleep, the administrators of the breakfast table were instructed not to wait for the appearance of the autocrat, or if, on the other hand, the haunting sense of an unfinished task had driven him out of bed before sunrise, he had no hesitation about making up the deficiency by a siesta. The American Horace, as one of his admirers calls him, had a talent for self-banter, and mentions as

a "humiliating comment on the state of our pathological knowledge the curious fact that Nature can do her remedial work most effectively when the recipe-fraught mind is undergoing the eclipse of deepest slumber."

"Of two such lessons, why forget
The better and the cheaper one,"

he parodies Byron in lamenting the fact that monkish processions are still in vogue, while monastic fasts have gone out of fashion, at least in the St. Jerome and Tanner form of total abstinence from food during a sanitary quarantine of forty hours, if not days. "Next to the delusion that sick people must swallow poisons," he says, "the silliest notion of our hospital nurses is the idea that they must swallow something or other, whether their appetite demands it or not. The suspension of the desire for food is a plain hint that the digestive organs are closed for repairs and cannot just now attend to their routine work without serious risk of overtaxing the vital resources of the organism. But while additional *ingesta* of solid food may do much mischief, pure cold water is generally welcome, or even urgently desired, as indicated by the burning thirst attending the crisis of many febrile disorders."

With that panoply of home-remedies, Dr. Holmes felt almost prepared to renounce the specifics of the drug market. For a regular member of the Massachusetts Medical Society, and Farman professor of anatomy and physiology, his remarks on that point are surprisingly outspoken. "After all the reforms of the last fifty years," he says, "the community is still sadly overdosed. . . . The best proof of it is, that no families take so little medicine as those of doctors, *except those of apothecaries*, and that old practitioners are more sparing of active medicines than younger ones. . . . Nay, I will venture to say this, that if every specific were to fail utterly, if the cinchona trees all died out, and the arsenic mines were exhausted, and the sulphur mines burned up, if every drug from the mineral, vegetable, and animal kingdom were to disappear from the market, a body of enlightened men, organized as a distinct profession, would be respected just as much as now, though their function should

be limited to the prevention of disease by the removal of its causes, and its cure by so ordering the conditions of the patient as to favor the efforts of the system to right itself." ("Currents and Counter Currents," pp. 16 and 17.)

"A portion of the blame rests with the public itself, which insists on being poisoned. Somebody buys all the quack medicines that build palaces for the mushroom—or say, rather, the toadstool, millionaires. Who is it? These people have a constituency of millions. The popular belief is all but universal that sick persons should be fed on noxious substances. One of our members was called not long since to a man with a terribly sore mouth. On inquiry, he found that the man had picked up a box of unknown pills, on Howard Street, and had proceeded to take them, on general principles, pills being good for people. They happened to contain mercury, and thus explained the trouble for which he consulted our colleague." (*Ibid*, p. 19.)

Dr. Holmes' essay on "Homeopathy and Kindred Delusions" provoked a storm of controversy and was supplemented by a diatribe which for wit and humor, but also for occasional outbursts of reckless bitterness, has hardly a parallel in the catalogue of medical literature, and contrasts strangely with the genial table-talk of the Beacon Street philosopher. He compares the disciples of Hahnemann to skeptics who have left the fold of the church only to stray into the trap of a spook-factory: "Some who have lost their hereditary belief find a resource in the revelations of mysticism. By a parallel movement, some of those who have become medical infidels pass over to the mystic band of believers in the fancied miracles of homeopathy. . . . When the originator of this singular doctrine," he says, "ascribes the chronic malady of a bereaved mother, and even the melancholy of a lovesick maiden to nothing more than a modified form of the unseemly and almost unmentionable *itch*, does it not seem as if the very soil upon which we stand were dissolving into chaos over the earthquake heavings of discovery?"

But he also accuses Hahnemann of will-

fully misquoting his alleged precursors, of suppressing notorious facts and misinterpreting others, and winds up the impeachment of his followers with the prediction that "Not many years can pass away before the same curiosity now excited by Perkins' 'Tractors,' will be awakened at the sight of the Infinitesimal Globules. If the pretended science of homeopathy should claim a longer existence, it can only be by falling into the hands of sordid wretches who wring their bread from the cold grasp of disease and death in the hovels of ignorant poverty." ("Addresses and Essays," p. 176.)

Even Holmes' own disbelief in the virtues of those "infinitesimal globules" could hardly justify such language, if considered in connection with his avowed opposition to the homicidal doses of the old-school practitioners, and the only charitable explanation of his wrath can be found in the misgiving that the doctrine of Hahnemann would tend to keep alive the popular belief in the necessity of medication and thus prove a formidable barrier to the progress of radical hygienic reform. His aversion to heroic remedies gradually took the form of a doubt in the remedial efficacy, or at least necessity, of any drugs, "opium and the vapors which produce the miracle of anæsthesia, perhaps excepted. . . . With these exceptions," he continues, "I believe that if the whole *materia medica*, as now used, could be sunk to the bottom of the sea, it would be all the better for mankind,—and all the worse for the fishes." ("Currents and Counter Currents," p. 39.)

His views on the temperance problem underwent a similar change. In the very chapter of the treatise just quoted, he calls wine "a food," and during the ten years following his return from Europe often quizzed his New England friends on the radicalism of their abstinence principles, but further reflections on the curse of the drink evil made him thoughtful, and he began to doubt the possibility of effecting a permanent cure of a well developed case of dipsomania. In his popular science chat with the readers of the New England monthlies he repeatedly quotes a passage from the Medi-

cal Reform manual of Dr. Isaac Jennings, who compares the predicament of a toper to that of a boatman, struggling with the current of the rapids above Niagara Falls. For a while, a resolute oarsman can hold his own against the stream, but he may forget his danger or yield to the desire for repose, while the current keeps steadily at work, and, as sure as he lives, will eventually carry him over the brink of the abyss.

From the recognition of that fact it was only a step to the *principiis obsta* maxim of teetotalism, and those who knew the keensighted old littérateur best, admit that only his doubts in the utility of coercive legislation prevented him from becoming an open champion of the Prohibition party.

Gluttony he considers less incurable, and advises gormands to try the effect of exciting work or sport as a trick for deafening the ear to the sound of the dinner horn and cheating the esurient stomach out of the coveted surfeit. "Have you ever noticed," he says, "how frequent the habit of overeating is found among idlers and how rarely among hard-working or very busy people? With wrong-eating it is often the reverse, and workmen frequently suffer less from insufficient than from ill-selected food. Often enough, however, 'their poverty and not their will consents,' and for well-to-do sinners there is no such excuse. The moral cowardice that makes us swallow vicious liquors and ruinous made-dishes to avoid a breach of etiquette is really more unpardonable than the folly that tempts a silly girl to sacrifice her health on the altar of fashion."

His sensitive mind shrunk from the noises of city-life:

"The very air vibrating like a sea
Over a pent volcano. Woe is me!
All the day long!"

But the bugbear of his moral nature was pessimism, and he considered cheerfulness a duty which the human soul owes to its physical yokefellow. "You may despise the body," he says, "as a slave of the metaphysical mind, but remember that the humblest servant may get weary of working for a moping master. . . . Bad luck, of

course, cannot always be parried, but it can be ignored. Refuse to be discouraged. Accept disappointments as mere postponements of your plans. Say, 'Too soon.' Never say, 'Too late.' In the interest of health and your hope of success, take a bright view of things, like an obstructed plant that turns toward a faint sunbeam till it at last emerges into the prosperity of free daylight."

Holmes held that, under normal condi-

tions, the extinction of consciousness ought to be as painless as its eclipse in welcome slumber.

The last moments of the genial octogenarian almost justified that belief, and since the death of the poet-philosopher Goethe, no man of modern times has longer or more completely realized the supreme ideal of sanitary science: The preservation of a healthy mind in the fit tabernacle of a healthy body.

HOW TO TELL COLORS.

BY MARCUS BENJAMIN, PH.D.

IN recent years the development of science has tended largely to the improvement of methods of measurement. To-day we know the mean distance between the earth and the sun to be 92,797,000 miles with a probable error of only 59,700 miles. Instruments of precision have been greatly improved. Balances that show one one-hundredth of a milligram are no longer rarities. Better telescopes, that is those that make the distance appear shorter, and better microscopes, that is those that make the object appear greater, are now in common use as compared with similar instruments made only a few years ago. Methods of chemical analysis have been so improved that quantitative determinations that formerly required a day to make can now be performed in fifteen minutes. Especially have more exact determinations and more rapid methods followed the establishment of physical laboratories in the universities of this country. Among the more recent advances in this direction is what perhaps may be called the quantitative estimation of color. That is the decomposition or analysis of a shade or hue into its component ingredients as derived from the spectrum.

This is not exactly a new thing for it has been known in physical laboratories for many years. Indeed most of the greater physicists of the world have contributed something toward the advancement of our knowledge of color. Newton, Chevreul, Clerk Maxwell, Helmholtz, and Rood are

names frequently found in a study of the literature of the subject.

Inasmuch as the present writer has been instrumental in bringing about the ways and means for the development of what seems to be a scientific working scheme for determining the ingredients of a color compound, he may be permitted to describe what has been accomplished within the past two years. The matter originally presented itself in the form of a question as to whether a table of colors could be compiled that would give the exact composition of the many varieties of shades and hues, known by numerous names, in terms of the five or six colors of the spectrum. The value of such a table is almost obvious. The nomenclature of colors has long been very confusing. It is easy to form something of an idea of a color when its name is descriptive; thus amber, Havana brown, Mazarine blue, and sea green are readily comprehended, but admiral, Charles X., luciole, Pullman car, and similar arbitrary names are utterly without significance except to the initiated.

Many years ago Chevreul, when chemist to the Gobelin factory near Paris, devised a chromatic circle which he made by dividing a disc into seventy-two equal sectors. Three equidistant sectors were colored red, yellow, and blue, and at equal distances from each of these three colors he placed those which resulted from the mixing of two of them; thus he placed orange between red and yellow, green between yellow and blue, and violet

between blue and red. This process he continued until he obtained seventy-two tints within his circle. More recently educators have attempted arbitrary schemes of nomenclature of a somewhat similar nature. Thus in one before me the author begins at the red end of the spectrum and designates that color by R., then follows with V. R. for violet red; R. V. for red violet; V. for violet; B. V. for blue violet; V. B. for violet blue; B. for blue, and so on. By mixing these colors with white a tint is formed and by mixing them with black a shade is formed so that this nomenclature is further burdened with the letters T. and S., standing for tint and shade respectively. Hence R. V. S. 1 signifies a shade of red violet and R. V. S. 2 a darker shade of red violet, while R. V. T. 1 indicates a tint of red violet and R. V. T. 2 a darker tint of red violet. It is true that this sort of nomenclature is scientific, easily taught and easily understood, but it is hardly a practical one for the reason that manufacturers persist in selecting arbitrary names for the new colors that they place on the market.

It was therefore promptly decided that no such nomenclature as the foregoing could be adopted and hence the direct comparison of colors with standards taken direct from the spectrum itself was agreed upon as the best means of settling that part of the subject. Such values had already been determined by several physicists, notably in recent years by Professor Ogden N. Rood of Columbia College, whose work bearing the title of "Modern Chromatics" has led to his being regarded as one of the first authorities in the world on this subject. He had not only determined with great exactness the wave lengths of the spectrum colors but he had also found corresponding pigments easily purchasable in the open market that might be used for comparison. In other words, if we wanted to prove that the color cinnabar, derived from the mineral of that name, consisted of exactly 78 parts of red and 22 parts of orange, we must have some convenient colors to compare it with for the reason that a spectroscope is not always accessible and moreover it is an instrument

that requires a certain amount of skill for manipulation.

In order to make this still clearer it will be necessary to return to certain investigations made in this direction by J. Clerk Maxwell. This eminent scientist used for his analyses of color a series of color discs which he rotated on a wheel. These color discs consisted of circular pieces of pasteboard coated with colored paper or painted with colored pastes. By overlapping these discs within a graduated circle and rapidly rotating them on a wheel so as to produce an impression of a single mass of color, they could be made to correspond to any desired color, and especially so when a small piece of material of the color to be matched was placed in front of the discs, that is near the center of the rotating instrument, which though usually a wheel, was sometimes a top.

In the preparation of the table previously referred to, it was decided to determine the various colors in terms of five standard colors obtained from the spectrum, together with black and white. The five color discs selected were prepared by mixing the best (1) English vermilion; (2) mineral orange; (3) light chrome yellow; (4) emerald green; and (5) artificial ultramarine blue—all pigments readily purchasable in any paint store—with a thick solution of gum arabic in water until it had a consistency equal to that of oil paint and applying it to the cardboard. Light cardboard or heavy drawing paper can be used. The white was cut from the purest white cardboard obtainable and the black one was made by painting a white disc with a mixture of the best lampblack in an alcoholic solution of shellac. The discs when finished should have an even, firm, and dull surface. The best size of which to make the discs is from three to five inches in diameter.

According to determinations made in the physical laboratory of Columbia College, the wave lengths of the five standard colors chosen expressed in microns were as follows: red, 0.644; orange, 0.614; yellow, 0.585; green, 0.521; and blue, 0.425. To some it may seem strange to note that violet was omitted but as this color can readily be pro-

duced by combining blue and red, it was found that matters were simplified by its omission; also it is not an easy color to procure in pigment form.

Our study of this subject had passed the experimental stage at this time for we had obtained certain definite standards with which it was possible to work. The scientist with his spectroscope can locate the chosen color standards in the spectrum by means of the measurements given, while the teacher or student can by the purchase of the pigments previously mentioned make discs, that, remember, correspond exactly to the lines in the spectrum. The particular merit of this scheme is the exact correspondence between the scientific and practical standards, which makes it an easy matter at any time to verify the practical standards should they fade or become otherwise unfit for use. The lines from the sun are eternal and therefore permanent. A rotating apparatus, such as that devised by Maxwell, completes the requisites and with these simple appliances the analysis of color becomes a simple matter.

Passing now to the practical application of our result. Let us assume that we desire to order in London a piece of cloth for a book cover to match a sample on hand, called French blue, which is of a light greenish-blue shade. In order to ascertain its exact composition we first cut a sample of the cloth. Then taking the green and blue discs, together with the white one, for the shade is a light one, we arrange them so that when rotated they will present the appearance of the French blue. The discs are next placed on the rotating wheel in front of the graduated circle, which is divided into exactly one hundred parts, and the sample of the color to be matched, that is the French blue in the present instance, is placed in front of the discs. The wheel is then rotated, and if the match is not exact we move the discs until when they are in rapid motion, it is impossible to distinguish them from the sample.

In the case of French blue this condition was reached when the proportions on the graduated scale showed the composition to be exactly 40 parts of white, 19 of green, and 41 of blue. Accordingly our order to the

factory abroad would read, Send us a cloth which in color shall correspond exactly to 40 parts of white, 19 of green, and 41 of blue.

During the last year more than five hundred colors with as many different names were analyzed in the Physical Laboratory of Columbia College under the direction of Dr. William Hallock and their exact composition set down. For this purpose samples of colored fabrics, specimens of silks, sample books of printer's ink, colored paper, in fact specimens of all kinds, aggregating thousands in number, were collected and the analysis of each made. In the case of several specimens of the same name but varying slightly in color careful judgment was used in making up the result.

Let us now turn to the practical utility of this scheme. Reference has already been made to the matching of samples of cloth for book binding. How many of us have been chagrined on taking a sample volume of a favorite set of periodicals to a binder to learn that an exact match of the leather was not to be had. If leathers were dyed according to colors of known values in terms of standard colors in lieu of by arbitrary mixture, then it would be possible to obtain colors in leathers that would be identical with previously obtained samples and one of the most irritating eyesores in libraries would be in a fair way to disappear.

Shades of wall papers could be easily duplicated. Tints of outdoor or indoor decoration could be made to conform with desired requirements. If you ask a decorator to paint your walls terra cotta that color should correspond to 27 parts orange, 69 parts black, and 4 parts white, and not to 45 parts black, 45 parts orange, and 10 parts white, although the colors are similar. A greater discrepancy still is to be found if one orders a cottage or country house painted drab, Naples yellow, or any similar color, for the reason that no two dealers make a pigment exactly the same but if one orders a building painted of a Naples yellow that shall consist of 45 parts white, 18 of orange, and 37 of yellow, then the color is specific and exact.

For science the application of this scheme

promises great results, especially in natural history. How can a botanist in a description of a plant distinguish between the different varieties of green for instance? The expression ivy-green is not uncommon, but what is it? Ivy occurs in all shades from a dark bluish green to a light grass-green. Grass-green and pea-green are well known shades. The former consists of 16 parts standard yellow and 84 parts standard green, while pea-green consists of 60 parts white, 8 parts standard yellow, and 32 parts standard green. If a color be not referable to any one of the definitely known and analyzed varieties of green then the botanist should describe the shade as a green consisting of such and such proportions of standard colors.

The application of names of colors to animals is equally confusing. What does seal-brown mean? Is it the color of natural skin or is it the color of the dyed skin? Who can distinguish between peacock-blue and peacock-green? If we say that the plumage of the peacock shows a blue corresponding to 49 parts standard blue, 46 parts standard green, and 5 parts white and that it also shows a green that corresponds to 38 parts blue, 55 parts green, and 7 parts white, the information is exact and precise, and therefore scientific.

The nomenclature of the colors of minerals is vague. When we say that a thing is of a garnet color we mean that it is of a dark purplish red color corresponding to 13 parts of orange, 4 parts of red, 8 parts of blue, and 75 parts of black. But the garnet itself may be found to exist in varying shades of green, red, light yellow, and even black or white. How can one describe the many shades of color produced by mixing copper and other elements with gold? It is almost amusing to read the varying descriptions of the color of pure chemical elements. Four different authorities selected at random describe pure metallic iron as "resembling silver in whiteness," as "slightly gray," as "bright white," and as "white." Lead is described as "bluish gray," as "bluish white," as "soft bluish," and as "dull white." And these are common elements. In the case of

barium or other difficultly isolated elements the descriptions vary still more until it is impossible to more than guess what the color is. Such a condition of affairs shows how crude our knowledge of color is. In so exact a science as chemistry it is strange to find such ignorance concerning important qualities of different forms of matter.

A list of wines giving the important characteristics of each was recently examined. One of the headings was color and the so-called white wines were found to be "light brown," "amber," "golden," "white," and "colorless," yet as a matter of fact, they were all identical. This is another of the many instances showing the desirability of having a series of color standards.

By means of these standards it will be possible for an artist to duplicate with exactness many of the colors he finds in nature. Tones of old buildings as well as the color of materials can be reproduced with absolute exactness. The color processes now used for making chromos and other colored prints can be made to represent the original with a fidelity hitherto unattainable. Other applications will suggest themselves to the reader and we pass for a brief consideration of its value in education.

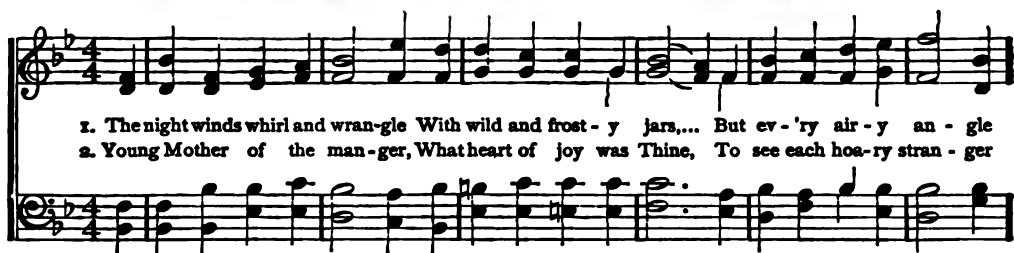
Children will be taught in the kindergarten and primary schools to recognize these standards and with them they will be set to compose various shades and tints. Shades and tints will be given them to analyze and decompose. As a result a more exact and fundamental knowledge of color will ensue. Is it too much to expect that in consequence a greater familiarity with the harmony of colors will prevail?

In the present article we have tried to show the vagueness of the nomenclature of colors or the inexactness of the names of the many shades and tints in common use. I have indicated the standards that have been recently determined and have pointed out some of the applications that will follow the use of these standards. Their universal acceptance will come in time and the furtherance of this action has been the chief object of calling attention to so interesting and important a subject.

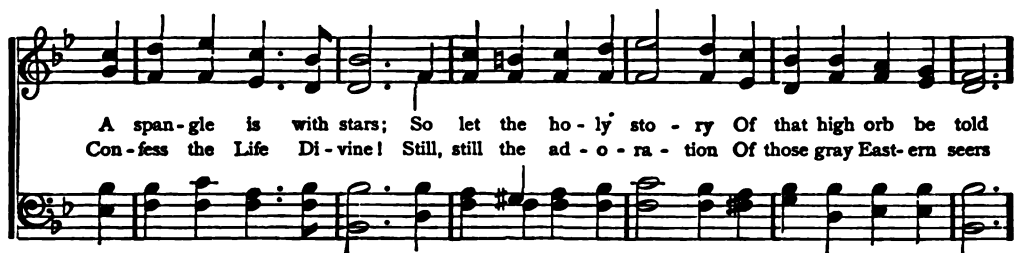
On That First Christmas Night. A Carol.

Words by Clinton Scollard.

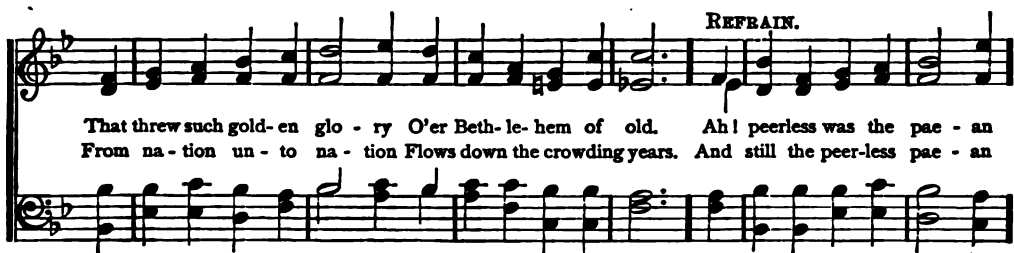
Music by H. P. Danks.



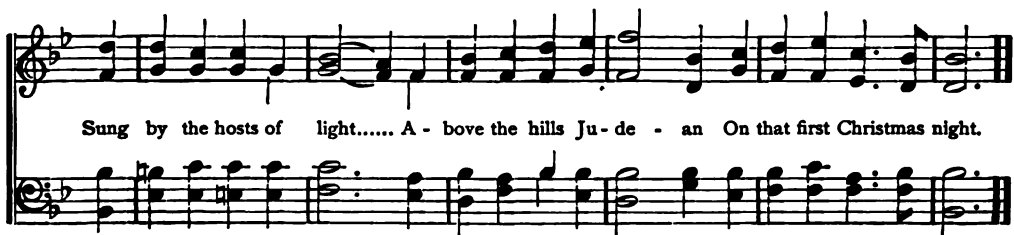
1. The night winds whirl and wran-gle With wild and frost - y jars,... But ev - 'ry air - y an - gle
2. Young Mother of the man-ger, What heart of joy was Thine, To see each hoar-y stran - ger



A span-gle is with stars; So let the ho - ly sto - ry Of that high orb be told
Con-fess the Life Di-vine! Still, still the ad - o - ra - tion Of those gray East-ern seers



REFRAIN.
That threw such gold-en glo - ry O'er Beth-le-hem of old. Ah! peerless was the pae - an
From na - tion un - to na - tion Flows down the crowding years. And still the peer-less pae - an



Sung by the hosts of light..... A - bove the hills Ju - de - an On that first Christmas night.

TWENTY YEARS OF MODERN MONARCHY IN SPAIN.

BY M. CHARLES BENOIST.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

POLITICS is like natural history; it has its transformation of species, and its varieties which disappear. There have been two types of monarchy: the ancient type and the modern type, the latter bearing the same relation to the former that the man of to-day bears to the man of the first ages.

In the ancient type of monarchy all powers were commingled. The right to rule was God-given and resided in the king. There was no liberty save such as he granted or was not able to control. In the modern type liberties are fixed, defined, guaranteed by law; powers are distinct and tend to equalize themselves. Whatever may be the source of the right it is no longer a personal one inherent in the ruler. Royalty is a public office or a public duty.

The ancient type has almost disappeared from the earth. It can only be found, if at all, at the extreme frontier of the western world, in Turkey, in Russia; and even there it is greatly attenuated. For a hundred years the modern type has taken its place. Like everything else that survives and wishes to live on, monarchy has been obliged to adapt itself to the changing epoch; and the more the means of bringing about this change have been agitated in these last years, the faster has it been necessary to depart from the old type.

No country in the course of this century has undergone so many changes of government as Spain. It is now proven to be without the least question a modern monarchy which the revolution of 1875 established. The country was not able to accept it at first because it was a monarchy; since then it has learned how both to accept and to maintain it because it was modern.

At the end of 1874 Spain was greatly unsettled, after its six years of insurrections

and uninterrupted struggles. Over the grievous route which nations are sometimes called to travel, it had gone, led by a dictator, demanding a king, and receiving a republic. Isabella II., the queen, had fled, being driven out by Serrano and Topete; a prince of the house of Hohenzollern had failed in his attempt to inherit the throne of the Bourbons; then Don Juan Prim, the commander-in-chief of the army, intrigued with the house of Savoy and Victor Emmanuel sent as king his son Amadeus, duke of Aosta. This step was reversing history, as not long before, Spain, far from drawing her sovereigns from Italy, supplied with her princes the Italian states. But as a tempest brought this duke of Aosta, a hurricane bore him away. Miserable Spain had had full experience in both tempests and hurricanes, and still new ones were awaiting her.

Every time that, halting a moment and thinking to regain her breath, Spain was beginning to hope that she might settle down in peace within her own borders, some general passed with his battalion who roughly jostled her out of the precarious shelter in which she was resting. At the North there was the Carlist war; at the South, federalism. Between these two opposing parties were the faithful friends of the deposed queen or of her son, Don Alfonso XII., in appearance neutral and resigned, in secret active and alert.

As a republic, which form it next assumed, Spain seemed too powerless to make any impression. The president, Marshal Serrano, without fear in combat and superb under fire, was in government weak and undecided. From one end of the country to the other anarchy existed. To civil anarchy there responded military anarchy. Not a regiment was sure of its colonel; not a colonel sure of his regiment.

The republic fell. Public order being

wanting, all that which is born of order and finds in order its nourishment, was exiled or ruined. There were no finances; there was no commerce; there were no interior or foreign communications. Spain was cut up into twenty pieces and kept separated from Europe. The Pyrenees were made insuperable save for contrabands of war. Roads were sown with caltrops over which diligences stumbled; foot paths were barred by rocks. Don Carlos [the pretender who then sought to make himself king, the third in descent, from the pretender who tried to reestablish the Salic law and thus exclude Isabella II. and secure the throne to himself as a representative of the younger branch] had his custom house officers, as the most authenticated king and his mountain runners, as had Hernani. That which they especially arrested and destroyed and murdered was Spain.

So when on December 29, 1874, General Campos, with his army, faced the Carlists at Saguntum and uttered the cry, "Long live King Alfonso XII.," and when their generals repeated the cry; when the captain-general of Madrid, notwithstanding all his promises gave back the city to those whom it was his duty to conduct to prison, as guilty of revolting against the Carlists then in power, Spain had only gratitude and love for the rebels; she welcomed them as liberators, recompensed them as victors, and peace was never so blessed as this insurrection which in the thought of the whole people closed so happily the long era of insurrections, and restored to power Alfonso XII., the son of the dethroned Isabella II.

In a few months the monarchy of the restored Bourbons will pass the twentieth year of its existence, and for it as for Spain these twenty years have been a restoration to youth, a renaissance, something like a "*vita nuova*." Behind the throne of Don Alfonso XIII., the throne of a child over whom a woman is bending, Spain has arisen, peaceful and free. Carlism has not, perhaps, given up its desire for revenge, but at least it is no longer in arms; the pope, in prescribing the respect due to the established

powers, deposed and discrowned it. Spain is united throughout its fifty provinces; cantonalism, the system of division in government, is effaced. Federalism is reduced to the state of pure theory.

The Spanish army is morally and materially reorganized. It has learned that which it did not know or relearned that which it had forgotten, the great precept taught by the French Revolution that an armed force must be essentially obedient; that it is not to deliberate in any case; that it is to make neither laws nor kings; that its honor lies in silence and its virtue in abnegation.

The financial situation does not excite admiration or envy; the budget is not liquidated; the past weighs heavily upon the present, which inconsiderately leans forward upon the future.

If the economic question is nearly the same in Spain as it is elsewhere, the labor question assumes there no longer any acrimony or especial acuteness. The countryman who in the morning before dawn goes to his work several leagues from his rude hamlet, mounted upon a donkey which closely resembles that of Sancho Panza, counts himself happy as he returns after nightfall in that he has earned fifteen sous (nearly fifteen cents) in fifteen hours, and that the farm of M. le duc, for whom he works, is very large and fine. He is contented with little, eats a crust of bread and drinks a cup of water. This is why Spain has no reason to fear a Jacquerie, or rising of the peasants, why agrarian socialism, the natural result of the tendency to concentrate the land in the hands of a few—does not reach maturity there.

Other socialism, the socialism of cities, exercises no longer there such ravages as among other races, the Latin or the Germanic. Even anarchy, although it seemed to have chosen Barcelona for its place of refuge, dares no longer to assault that citadel of Monjuich which does not restore its prisoners. In short, property and labor are guarded. Trains are no longer stopped upon the less frequented lines. One can travel from Madrid to Seville, from Burgos

to Cadiz, in short all over Spain without paying more than the legal charges. There is virtually no more robbery near the bridge of Toledo, and no one any longer makes war at home against the king of Spain.

There have been twenty years of perfect peace, such peace as the country has rarely known, peace interior and exterior, peace civil and religious, peace of soul and of conscience. And during this time Spain has not only become quiet and unified, it has also become modernized; not only has it been resuscitated, it has been rejuvenated. Charles IV., Ferdinand VII., Maria Christina, even Isabella II. would no longer find their Spain. They would find now within it full liberty—liberty of the press, liberty of assemblage, of association, of public trial, popular jury, civil marriage, and finally universal suffrage. Even in manners this transformation is visible; tolerance is acclimated in this classic land of intolerance.

During the first years of the constitutional monarchy republican opposition was very strong, but stronger and more dangerous still, even when Don Carlos the pretender to the throne had been banished, was the monarchical opposition, the opposition of one branch of the royal house to the other branch. It was a duel to the knife between them. Between these two cross fires, Carlism on the one side and republicanism on the other, the position was most embarrassing.

At its beginning the restored monarchy was only a compromise. The question whether it should adopt the old system of government or one more democratic remained to be settled. The manifesto which the prince, Alfonso XII., from Sandhurst, England, where he was living in exile with his mother when he was recalled to become king, had addressed to Spain, affirmed that the remedy lay in the reestablishment of monarchy on a "hereditary and representative" basis, and from the beginning to the end of this document these two words were closely joined, and this conjunction was a happy one for the government. "Hereditary" caught the attention of the

royalists, and "representative," that of the republicans, and won many from both parties to the side of the Restoration.

For twenty years the history of the Restoration and that of Don Emilio Castelar have mingled. No one more energetically than he combatted it at the beginning denouncing it as an unjustifiable dictatorship. No one more nobly than he spoke for the republic, killed through the faults of republicans. No one more severely than he attacked the sacrilegious mania for pronunciamientos, and that kind of chronic exhaustion which delivered Spain to the caprice of the first daring general.

The restored monarchy once established, all that M. Castelar and his friends could promise it was their good will, but a good will which is simply passive, and in a political sense, is the opposite of violence. But as the years succeeded one another and liberties succeeded one another, their attitude kept changing. M. Castelar and the monarchy kept approaching one another; both were being transformed. In a speech delivered before Congress in 1888 he said, "I wish to say, in clear tones and in plain words, that I support this government, because it has given religious liberty, scientific liberty, liberty of the press, liberty of assembling, liberty of association, the jury, universal suffrage. And I have no personal interest in saying this. I can seek nothing in a monarchy; I do not wish to gain anything in a monarchy; I ought not to gain anything in a monarchy. I am a historic republican, an intransigent republican, a lifelong republican, a republican by conviction and from conscience. Who doubts my republicanism offends and calumniates me, so I am seeking nothing in a monarchy. But as I said to my own party on a certain memorable night, 'Our republic will be the formula for this generation if you succeed in making it conservative,' so I say now to your party, 'Your monarchy will be the formula of this generation if you succeed in making it democratic.'"

It is, perhaps, M. Castelar, who next after M. Canovas del Castillo, has done most for the restored monarchy, not in

adjudging it at last a certificate of liberalism and democracy, but in forcing it to earn this certificate, in holding constantly before its eyes the picture of democracy and of the modern world. For having served monarchy thus well, the republicans cannot pardon him.

The monarchy possessed over the republic one great superiority: it knew how to make itself an opportunist in the best sense of the word, that which the republic did not know. Opportunism, for the restored monarchy, consisted in making itself liberal and even quite democratic. It was as if an interior voice sounding up from the depths of history said to the people, "There is only one power in the world which can save the nation and it is the one which out of ten Mussulman kingdoms and five or six Christian kingdoms can make a united Spain. That power is monarchy."

The monarchy has succeeded because it is national. It counts for nothing that the Republicans recall that it was not the Bourbons who gained the victory over the Moslem dynasty of the Almohades in the thirteenth century at the battle of Navas de Tolosa, or retook Granada from the Moorish kings, or united Aragon to Castile in the fifteenth century, or created and sustained the immense Spanish empire in both hemispheres, in all continents and all oceans, in the sixteenth century; it is in vain that they claim that with the advent of the Bourbons was accentuated and precipitated the decadence of Spain. On the other hand it also counts for nothing that the Carlists say that this Bourbon king is not the legitimate Bourbon, not the true king of Spain.

It would have been too soon, at its beginning in 1874, to speak of new liberties for the monarchy, for just preceding its establishment the whole country and every part of the country had been conducted entirely without regard to legal order. The republic had so disgusted Spain by its utter lack of government that the best method of succeeding in this new attempt was thought to be that of making all feel that there was now a government. Then it was that the wisdom of M. Canovas del Castillo led suc-

cessfully up to the needed change. After the monarchy was once established in an orderly and legal manner, he began gradually to teach that it ought also to become liberal; that it ought to be liberal in its constitution and in its institutions.

The most indispensable of the conditions of this new *régime* was that there should exist parties which should really be parties, not sects or factions. The ideal would be, two great parties, organized, disciplined, and maneuvered by their chiefs, like the Whigs and the Tories of the English Parliament. Moderation should be their cardinal virtue, not only in language, but in conduct. The existence of these two parties equally constitutional, with their differing programs, implied that they would alternate with each other in holding power. Their regular succession would demand that each party allow the opposite one to introduce into the government during its reign different dispositions from those which the first party in its turn had instituted. Thus there would be practically taught and enforced the principles of liberality. This was the secret of the policy of M. Canovas, and the secret of the success of the Restoration.

In this regard, the event of most importance, perhaps, in the twenty years since the overthrow of the republic was the formation of the party of the Left, a liberal party which formed the needed counterpoise to the conservative Right, acting upon the latter sometimes as a stimulant, sometimes as a bridle. By this means the monarchy gained its medium of progress after its medium of conservatism, its medium of liberty after its medium of order.

The master workman of the Restoration was M. Canovas del Castillo. More than any other he prepared it, led it on, established it. He, in some sort, thought it out, only to realize it afterwards. He is a statesman of the high order of Guizot and Thiers. It was he who designed the whole, and it is he who is the true king of Spain; the monarchy sprang full armed from his brain.

The liberal party, coming thus in its turn, fulfilled a large rôle, which was the modern-

izing and the democratizing of the monarchy. The leader of the party was M. Sagasta, formerly called a conspirator against the throne of Isabella II. and not now allowed to forget the taunt. It is he who caused new sap to flow through the old roots of the monarchy which M. Canovas restored.

It is an interesting spectacle to see these two men, M. Sagasta, the chief of the liberals, and M. Canovas, the chief of the conservatives, pitted against each other in argument. For amateurs such an event forms a regal ending to a parliamentary scrimmage. M. Sagasta, sitting in his place on the bench of blue velvet reserved for the ministers, is called out by some one on the right,—M. Silvela or M. Robledo,—who stings him with epigrams, prods him with a multitude of thrusts. Don Praxedes, the moderator, shakes his head, raps upon his desk, calls for order. The majority in the rear try to excite M. Sagasta by their clamors. Finally he feels himself moved, sustained, pushed forward, and he charges. . . . The Chamber and the galleries vibrate with applause when he has done.

Then deliberately M. Canovas del Castillo rises and addresses the president. Up to the end he had the patience to be silent, allowing the passion of the parties to rise. He begins in a low tone, without figures of speech, without eloquence, a familiar and quiet discourse which seems improvised and entirely wanting in any art or artifices, but which will bear the closest re-reading. It is in a style the most chaste, of a composition the most learned, perfectly joined in its several parts, nervous, rapid, and of all the speeches which could be made upon the same subject, the most demonstrative and the most lively, the most philosophical and the most politic.

M. Sagasta, if he replies, proceeds by exclamations, by cutting phrases. From time to time there is a fine movement, a fine anger, a fine eloquence,—an eloquence of the tribune, almost of the demagogue,—an

energy which expends itself in cries and dissipates itself in gestures.

Just because M. Sagasta is the absolute opposite, the living antithesis of M. Canovas, the success of the Restoration is largely due to them both, the one having established the traditional monarchy, the other having modernized it, and neither undoing what his rival has done.

Some other secondary causes of the success of the monarchy might be indicated. One is that Spain has kept largely aloof from European politics. Another cause, more delicate to indicate, but not less efficacious perhaps, was the death of King Alfonso XII. Premature and sad, it threw Spain again face to face with an enigma, the result of which was the carrying of the liberals into power and the substituting for a king well-intentioned, without doubt, but who could not hold himself from all the seductions of military glory or of monarchical power, the necessarily pacific and temperate regency of a child under the protection of a woman.

A third cause is that this woman is a princess of superior tact, of a nobleness of soul, of a purity of life, which commands veneration. She is devoted, even to self-sacrifice, to the greatest and the smallest duties; is as diligent as an old statesman, and desirous of learning; is open to all council, sweet under every misfortune, and filled with pride and love for Spain. She is an admirable queen in her office as queen, and an admirable mother in her duties as mother; so maternally queen and so royally mother, that the homage of all parties falls respectfully at her feet. The fortunes of dynasties depends not less upon queens than upon kings, especially when the regency makes them at once queens and kings.

The Restoration has placed Spain back in the position she occupied centuries ago. The whole settlement of the problem now for her depends upon her remaining modern.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

A SENSIBLE VIEW OF COURTSHIP.

BY LUCY BARNARD COPE.

YOUNG people are too apt to regard courtship as mere romantic experience leading to some flowery gate of fairy-land, beyond which hangs in a dreamy sky the perpetually waxing honeymoon of love. Notwithstanding the truth which makes an optimistic view of any prospect better than its pessimistic opposite, there is yet a very dangerous fallacy in refusing to see the practical difficulties besetting even the most wisely chosen and carefully pre-arranged plans for compassing happiness; and, stripped of all decoration, courtship is but a form of planning for future lifelong pleasure in the highest sense.

Among the middle and lower classes of our country courtship is scarcely distinguished from the haphazard social intercourse by which young people of opposite sexes enjoy one another's company without any especial regard to matrimonial probabilities. Parents themselves indulge in very loose consideration of what may prove to be the turning-point in the lives of their children.

Courtship is the preliminary survey of the matrimonial field with a view to the most solemn, sacred, and important contract that two human beings can possibly be parties to, a contract which is the true basis of highest civilization.

What does it mean when a young man and a young woman, being mutually attracted, begin to seek each other's society and separate themselves to a certain degree from the rest of their young companions? It is not, or at least it should not be, a mere frivolous, selfish desire to enjoy themselves at the expense of general society. There is potential matrimony in every turn of this sort.

The wise parent understands how Love lies in ambush for lads and lasses and good care is taken that girls be not exposed to

his assaults at too early an age. The contract of matrimony demands the consideration and criticism of maturity and must have more than mere youthful passion and romantic imagination to rest upon; for while pure and perfect love ever has been and ever will be prerequisite to perfect marriage the material practicalities of human affairs exact their added claim to attention and enforce their values in making up the account.

We have reached a point in the evolution of our civilization where we may as well cast aside delusive and childish notions on the subject of courtship and marriage. We can but see and know that courtship is not a thing to be ashamed of; it does not demand a dark corner into which lovers must skulk like culprits; nor is it a play-time with nothing in it better than senseless billing and cooing. Our sons and daughters of marriageable age surely have a broader and firmer grasp of life's realities than would be indicated by treating the preliminary steps toward matrimony with maudlin sentimentality or with childish frivolity. The sensible view is the only safe view, and it must necessarily comprehend the material, social, and moral elements of the contract under consideration.

Parents are learning, slowly enough to be sure, that in order to be of highest service to their children they must make comrades of them and so enter into their lives on a plane of confidence and open dealing. The old *régime* of arbitrary dictation has passed away; the influence of scientific investigation is taking the place of sentimental tradition in the family circle. Heredity and the dangers and inconveniences of physical immaturity and the many bars to happy marriage arising out of physiological or sociological conditions are freely discussed in the best regulated fami-

lies with a view to the enlightenment of the children in a field of interest soon to absorb their whole attention, for a time at least, and a large part of it during life.

In taking a healthy, optimistic attitude toward our children in the heyday of their blossoming lives we may at the same time easily impress them with the practical details of domestic exactions and conjugal exigencies to the extent of preparing and fortifying them against disappointment.

Courtship is not for the immature; the time is past for the encouragement of marriage between mere children, and we have to recognize the fact that it is men and women, without experience, yet men and women, that we are called upon to aid, enhearten and bid good speed down the way of love. Every word spoken to them regarding courtship and matrimony should be rich with the essence of practical common

sense. Romance and sentimentality are well enough in poetry and fiction. Practical domestic life is neither poetry nor fiction; it is reality, a composite of joy, sorrow, success, disappointment, serenity, vexation; it is the average sum of human experience.

Courtship is an effort to choose a mate for life; two home makers are considering a copartnership; the fate of unnumbered future generations is being settled. If we look straight into the countenance of Nature and at the same time keep fully aware of what civilization exacts we shall feel the immense importance of what is going on yonder where the young man and his sweetheart sit apart from the crowd. A sacred contract is being negotiated; and upon the outcome of a few million contracts like that depends the whole future of the human race.

THE REVIVAL OF AMERICANISM.

BY ELLEN HARDIN WALWORTH.

THE sentiment of patriotism is exalted and inspires noble deeds, yet we may not deny that it bears another interpretation. This adverse view of patriotism is the unpopular side of the question, and represents one of those advanced ideas that creep along the undercurrents of the world of thought for many decades before it fairly comes to the surface. The international world is not yet ready for the serious thought of an obliteration of the lines that divide the life of nations, or the prejudices of nations, if it be so considered. Next to love of self comes love of country; love of family and of home is so closely allied with love of country as to allow small differentiation in these sentiments. It is the personal quality of patriotism that supplies its force and its extended influence.

In the United States our patriotism has not failed since the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, but it has been singularly evolved through various stages of

growth and apparent rest. Politics has exercised a control over the expressions of patriotism but has not grasped the real power that lies in this sentiment, usually dormant in the human heart unless aroused by an external cause. In the history of this country, as in that of all others, the principal exercise of this sentiment has been called forth by the loud and stirring blasts of war. No single expression is more typical of this power of war than that which sprang involuntarily and heroically from the lips of Nathan Hale: "I regret that I have but one life to give for my country." This is the epitome of patriotism as inspired by war. And who shall rightfully question the sublimity of such sacrifice, or by any argument for peace in the future, lessen in one degree the heroism of the past?

The present craze for ancestors in this country, and the insistence of sons and daughters of the Revolution and of the colonial forefathers that the deeds of the past shall be rec-

ognized, is a kind of protest against the overshadowing future that threatens to condemn war. In that future there is dimly discerned a new force, the power of arbitration, the evolution of diplomacy into the international judicial court. Then diplomacy will yield the scepter of expediency to the scales of justice. In that future they also discern that other power which we so vaguely call humanitarianism. This misty theory of humanitarianism is destined to be filtered down to well-defined lines and sharp limitations before it becomes a practical power for the advancement of the human race. In its present form it covers a multitude of follies and some errors. In the meantime the old-fashioned sentiment of patriotism holds its own, and has acquired a new development in the recent revival of Americanism throughout the country.

This movement is apparent in many directions. Statistics might be collected to indicate the greater interest manifested within five years in a celebration of all national anniversaries, and the higher order of literary and historical merit to be noticed in the addresses on these occasions. The number of historical societies for the collection and preservation of American history would be found to have largely increased. Efforts have been made to teach the school children a respect for the flag, and other national symbolism is encouraged. The aspiration to create an ideal that shall exist in the popular mind as something typical of the nation is evident in these and other efforts. A review of legislation at Washington and in the state Legislatures will show numerous bills introduced that prove a newly awakened sentiment of strong national feeling.

Patriotism as distinctly American, beginning with the revolution, came near being wrecked before the constitution of the United States was adopted and suffered imminent peril in the last years of the eighteenth century. It was stimulated by the War of 1812, and was nearly smothered by the worship of "self-made men" for many years; it then awoke to a species of spread eagle bombast that was calculated to drive the genuine sentiment quite out of the hearts of the people.

H-Dec.

The war with Mexico and the pride of conquest brought an outburst of real enthusiasm but this was soon driven into sectionalism and state supremacy by the contentions over the political aspects of slavery. The supreme trial of national life in the Civil War, and the angry and pathetic aftermath of that contest left the pure fire of patriotism smothered with *débris* in some places, flaring with false lights in others, but burning with a steady and pure flame here and there all over the country. During this time the evils of excessive wealth among our own people and the evils of imported ignorance and vice from abroad have grown from the state of a fondled darling each, to a pair of monsters that the ordinary native American now contemplates with a vague dread born of the unknown. We have worshiped money, our first darling, and, behold, we have our gods! But we forbid them to rule us. We have opened our doors to the pests of the world, our second darling; they swarm about us like a pest of locusts, and, behold, they, too, would rule us! Shall we submit to the one or the other? This is the problem the American ponders, and as he broods over these things he looks now and again at the old flag as a star of hope. Sentiment, the forerunner of action, is aroused, memory revives the sense of ownership associated with the lives of his forefathers, and Americanism is revived.

The ordinary American has a respect for the rights of others and a reserve of good sense that brings him back to a sense of justice even if he is led away for a time. He does not object to the foreigner as a foreigner for he knows very well what America owes to them. It is the development of foreign principles and ideas of government against which he protests. Foreigners and their children must acquiesce in American ideas of government, both in its republicanism and in its conservatism. This is a profound conviction that underlies the new impulse of Americanism. The spirit of 1776 is again aroused to a sense of the value of liberty, and to the fact that liberty is not so secure that vigilance may be relaxed.

The indications of this feeling may easily

escape notice. To some they appear as the pastime of the idle, to others as an imitation of the follies of an aristocracy. Old homesteads, attics, and the book-shelves of libraries are being searched in the thirteen original states for the history of families who settled the country or helped the cause of Independence.

This is an important feature of the new Americanism for it is developing the history of the country in a way that is truly educational; it is not only the records of individuals and families that come to light in these researches, but the resolutions passed and meetings held in various places in the cause of liberty and the freedom of the courts, in the beginning, and of independence

when that alone would secure liberty. By these researches patriotic organizations, otherwise ephemeral, are evolved into permanent historical bodies of earnest activity and large influence; they are the outward expression of the present revival of republican Americanism. It is the old leaven rising once more to the surface, it will develop a new and strong phase of our national life. Money is being weighed in the balance and will not rule in undisputed sovereignty as it has done; we are not destined to be a plutocracy. Neither are we a mere heterogeneous crowd of ill-assorted nationalities; we have reached a stage in our national growth where we are self-conscious; we realize our responsibilities, our powers, and our limitations.

AT MICHAELMAS.

"We'll know all our fortunes."—*Shakespeare.*

BY MARTHA YOUNG.

WHEN English air was ripe with June
And English birds sang all in tune,
Mabel and Mary, Jane and Anne
Adown the bloomy hedgerow ran—
Each where the crab-tree stretched its thorns
(Round, rosy crabs each limb adorns)
Gathered of apples goodly store
Yet shook the fruity boughs for more.
These are the fortune-trees to-day,
For from these apples maidens may
Discover what their fates shall be
All in the gold futurity.

See! up the farmhouse garret stair
Trip the four maidens passing fair;
In silence all and yet with smiles
Each maid her petty fear beguiles;
Each in the dark a name doth trace,
An apple in each letter's place—
They say the charm each three times o'er.
Till Michaelmas they'll come no more
To view the fortune-apples laid—
A lassie's love to tell and aid.
On Michaelmas may each one find
The fruit deposèd to her mind!

Lo! now September's wealth has come

Old England sings her harvest-home,
 Michaelmas Day has come again
 With ganging leader's "bumping" reign.
 O'er beck, and pond, sunk-fence, through hedge,
 E'en to the precipice-steep ledge
 The "ganging leader" takes his flock
 That may not stay for brake or rock;
 Woe to the traveler they meet,
 To "bump" him is a jolly feat.
 Plum-cake and ale free at each inn
 Makes every village street a din!

Then when the roasted goose is gone
 (Good luck thereby a whole year won!)
 Mabel and Mary, Anne and Jane
 Trip up the garret stair again.
 Ah!—Mabel's apples wrinkled—see!
 A worn old man her love will be!
 Mary's are yet all plump and round:
 For her a youthful swain is found.
 Some mischief wind swept Anne's away:
 A spinster's lot,—a-lack-a-day!
 There Jane's all lie in fair array:
 Old Christmas brings her wedding day!

L'Envoi.

O gay old time! O good old time!—
 Though superstition's sway was prime—
 Thou livest now but in old rhyme,
 O quaint old-fashioned, good old time!

THE CHARM OF VARIETY IN LIFE.

BY HELEN MARSHALL NORTH.

STUDY the decorations on a collection of Japanese art treasures, vases, fans, embroideries, tea things, ivory carvings, or picture books, and your first impression will doubtless be one of surprise at the variety and fertility of design and application. There is the brave cone of Fusi-yama repeated again and again, but Fusi-yama is never twice in the same position. There are cherry blossoms and chrysanthemums, flying dragons and rising suns, fish and creeping things, diaper work and medallions, fighting horsemen and slant-eyed divinities, but when have you seen one decoration just like another? The Japanese understands the charm of variety and this is one reason why the eye loves to dwell upon Japanese workmanship. The effect of sameness and repetition is to bring heaviness and dullness of spirit. Notice the houses in which ornaments and furniture are always disposed in precisely the same relative positions,—where bric-a-brac and chairs, books, lamps, and pictures are never changed in position from year to year; and while the rule has exceptions, the occupants of that home are quite likely to think in grooves—to follow out old thought-paths, to reject with uneasiness any approach to innovation.

Youth and happiness, love and laughter, music and motion, are naturally connected with variety. The young apple blossoms blush and perfume the air in an infinite variety of shapes and colors; the beech pebble never repeats itself; the bird's plumage is not like that of his fellow-warbler; the butterfly has its individual notions of dress.

Hearts oppressed by care are lightened by variety. The physician who speaks of a change of climate generally means change of scene. The familiar objects about us produce no perceptible emotions, perhaps, when we are happy, but in seasons of care and grief, their dull, stupid placidity wears into the very soul. Change the surroundings by absence, and how good and glad looks the poor world which we have been so ready to blame. The new abiding-place may be far less elegant and costly than the old, but the air of newness partakes of the air of Paradise itself to the wearied spirit.

There are a few happy souls who are never conscious of monotony. The Philosopher of the Paris Attic never grows weary of his outlook. There is always the charm of freshness in his view because his own spirit is constantly interested in the works and ways of his fellow-men. A single trip to Sèvres, sufficiently commonplace to the ordinary traveler, fairly sparkles with agreeable variety. He meets two hard-working women who are tasting the delights of a first trip in the cars, and their emotions are to him of more interest than the decisions of the president-general. The self-denial of these poor sisters who give to the girl injured by a powder-explosion the price of their return tickets and happily walk over the dusty homeward miles, furnishes a series of delightful thoughts and reflections to our genial Philosopher.

Many a wife, mother, or sister makes the mistake of clinging to a monotonous system of dressing. It is easier, when cares crowd and duties clamor, to wear the same costume day after day. We say that other things are more necessary, that food and other home comforts are of greater importance than a variety in dress, and fail to realize, until

some leisure day we do break away into a sunny variation of pleasant dressing, how much good cheer may spring from a fresh *jabot* or a few crimps.

The average canary bird is one of the most monotonous and wearying of pets. He is not to blame for it, poor thing. Captivity has few resources which are open to the capacity of a canary. But the incessant, monotonous hopping from perch to perch, the endless picking at tiny seeds, the unvarying, three-cornered expression, are singularly lacking in charm. A sturdy parrot has interesting moods and an amusing medium of expression, when he chooses to use it; the humble cat has a dozen tricks and is always ready for a new one; the jackdaw and terrier, the crow and the squirrel, have many ways of looking at life and proclaiming their interest and delight.

Perhaps the real secret of living in the charm of variety might be extracted from a rich nugget of the Attic Philosopher again: "Things are nothing in themselves; the thoughts which we attach to them alone give them value." Looking at old landmarks from a new angle is a virtual change of sight.

Washington Irving has so poetically interpreted the charm of variety in a sea-voyage that one hesitates to reaffirm the truth of his sentiment. The sea-voyage of the physician's prescription includes not only a change of thought induced by mingling with strangers, generally care-free for the brief interval, at least, but an actual change of element. We are accustomed to the steadfast old earth; we have long trusted it, gloried in its sunrises and sunsets, its clouds and storms. On shipboard, even the foundation element is new and we make new acquaintance with the heavens above, newly-near, and the earth beneath, because at first, we must think down to where we suppose the bottom of the sea is. The variety entrances us. The old brood of cares slowly rises, takes wing and seeks a long flight. There are other worlds than ours, and we never again return to the old place, because we have suffered not only a sea-change but a soul-change.

THE LOST FRIEND.

A TURKISH STORY.

BY RUDOLF LINDAU.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "RUNDSCHAU."

SADIK BEY and Raif Bey came from Asia Minor where they were neighbor children. When yet in the harem entrusted to the care of the women, they had played together, and later, until their sixteenth year, had shared all their youthful joys and sorrows—but not equally, although the one who fared the worse never complained of his lot. Cheerful, noble Sadik loved Raif, therefore he took pleasure in yielding everything he possessed to his friend, and tyrannical, selfish Raif permitted Sadik to love him, granting in return his companionship and a passably warm friendly interest.

But while Raif early became aware of this inequality in their giving and exulted in it because he considered it an indication of his superiority, Sadik did not notice it in the least.

Sadik Bey and Raif Bey were fine, handsome lads, both descended from distinguished old families; Sadik, the son of Tschapanoglu, from the old valley princes of Derebey; Raif, son of Hussein Bey, from the once powerful and rich race of Spartaly.

Sadik Bey would, without doubt, have followed in the footsteps of his father, and ended his life on the property where he was born, had not his beloved Raif inspired him to other ambitions. When they were twelve years old, Raif had imparted to the admiring Sadik, that as soon as his education was finished under the paternal roof, he was going to Stambul for he intended to become a rich and influential man. Sadik thereupon had immediately declared that he would go to Stambul, too, and gain distinction and wealth.

Among the various tutors employed in Sadik's and Raif's education, was received into Tschapanoglu's home, at about this time, a teacher of French called Achmed Effendi—a Mussulman of course, for the descendants of the valley princes would not

have endured an unbeliever in the neighborhood—who, before he had come to Asia Minor, had given instruction in French to the son of a high Turkish civil official in Stambul. This high official was an old friend of Tschapanoglu and at his recommendation the instructor in French had come to Asia Minor to instruct Sadik Bey. Achmed Effendi was an upright, educated man. He quickly acquired a sort of fatherly interest in his well-behaved charge, and often in answer to Sadik's inquiries imparted wisdom about subjects that had nothing to do with the French language.

From Achmed Effendi, Sadik Bey learned that the best way to enter high official positions was first to gain admission to one of the bureaus, called a "kalem," of the Sublime Porte. Once in the kalem how quickly and how far he was promoted would depend on Sadik's activity. However his ancestry and influential friends would be of service to him and with Allah's help he might hope to win a high place in the world. But he must be upright. More than this Achmed Effendi would not ask of him, but to be upright, according to the prophet, meant a continual struggle for all the manly virtues: honesty, bravery, love of truth, charity, purity of body and soul.

Little Sadik knowingly nodded his head: "I will be upright, Effendi, be sure of that."

Raif, too, looked knowing when he had received Sadik's news; however he said nothing about taking pains to be upright, but replied:

"The Spartalys are not less noble than the Derebeys; I will rise as high as you."

"Of course you will," answered Sadik, "and I would not wish otherwise. How could I think of ever having the right to order you about?"

"You never will have the right," exclaimed

Raif wrathfully. Sadik stepped back in amazement, but immediately approached his companion again and said,

"Do not be angry with me. If I have given you offense it was not intentional."

Raif made no reply and the incident seemed to have dropped completely. Only on his way home Sadik recalled with bitter self-reproach that he had wounded his friend with his tactlessness.

When both boys were in their seventeenth year, Raif's father came to Sadik's father asking him to use his influence in gaining admission for Raif to some government office.

"I will do it with pleasure," answered Sadik's father. "I will write to-day to Jsett Mollah, an influential man, on whose friendship I can rely. Indeed I thank you, Hussein, for giving me the opportunity to do you a favor."

Soon Hussein Bey departed and Tschapanoglu called Sadik to write for him the promised letter; for Sadik had an aptitude in this direction, and on different occasions had served as secretary to his father.

As he received the command to write to Jsett Mollah he bowed respectfully and said,

"It would make me happy, father, if you had directed me to write my name in the letter just below Raif's, asking the same favor for me that will be shown to Raif. I too desire, with your permission, to become a civil officer, and should like to enter with my friend Raif the calling in which I will strive to do my father honor."

Tschapanoglu was not astonished at this request and had no objections to it.

About three weeks later Jsett's answer was received. It bade Raif and Sadik repair immediately to Stambul and present themselves to him. He would then conduct them to the Sublime Porte, where their reception in a kalem was assured.

Before the answer arrived, Sadik was prone on a sick bed. His speedy recovery to health was not to be thought of, and so Hussein Bey after consulting with Tschapanoglu, decided to let Raif Bey journey alone to Stambul. Three weeks had passed

before Sadik Bey knew of this, for he had been so weak that they had refrained from telling him what without doubt would excite him. When the convalescent began to ask frequently to see his friend, Tschapanoglu told him that at his request Raif had gone on ahead to select suitable quarters for the two boys. All he had to do now was to get well quickly and then he could soon join his friend Raif.

The patient tried hard to hasten his recovery, following all the directions of the physician most conscientiously, but as soon as he gained a little strength the fever pulled him down again, till Tschapanoglu finally despaired of his son's life. Then unexpectedly there was an improvement in the patient's condition. This time he knew that the fever had left him, and bowing toward the east in fervent prayer gave thanks that his life had been spared. Two months later he was strong enough to make the journey to Stambul accompanied by a trusty servant.

Upon his arrival in Stambul Sadik immediately presented himself to his father's friend. He was cordially received by the venerable gentleman, and from him learned that he would enter the same kalem with Raif Bey. At the beginning of the usual business hours he could announce himself in person to Said Effendi at the bureau, where he might be sure of soon meeting Raif Bey who was an ambitious, punctual young man. And so it happened. Sadik had hardly greeted Said Effendi when Raif entered the room, and a hearty greeting took place between them.

Sadik found his friend improved very much in appearance. In the year of their separation Raif had grown tall and in spite of his youth had a dignified bearing. He wore a bright blue caftan of fine cloth, a splendid girdle, and a becoming turban folded artistically, neither too large nor too small, the turban of a distinguished young man who aims at no vulgar display but yet who wishes to distinguish himself in his attire from the common herd. Sadik, who had not taken his eyes from Raif's face, observed these externalities only when Raif

soon after they were seated, said,

"Your clothes are good enough for the country. In Stambul they are not fine enough for your rank. I will look after the necessary things. I suppose the pasha, your father, has supplied you with sufficient money to enable you to live here in a becoming manner?"

"The pasha has seen to it," replied Sadik. "I am well supplied with money."

During the next two years, Raif and Sadik were always together. Sadik was happy to be with his friend, and his innocent eyes and good heart did not permit him to see or feel or at least to dispute about the subordinate position given him in their common home, for Raif imposed on him the whole burden of the housekeeping and by far the greater share of the expense. No word of these irregularities, of course, ever reached outsiders. To them Sadik Bey, the son of Tschapanoglu, from the family of valley princes, was an eminent young man—and princely indeed were his tall form, noble countenance, his large, earnest, beautiful eyes, beaming with mildness and warmth of heart, that attracted all. He was the favorite of the kalem although he had not, as Raif had, taken pains for the sake of policy to gain a reputation for cleverness and virtue.

At the end of his three years' apprenticeship Raif received his hard-earned reward for good behavior. He had expressed a desire for a position in the finance ministry, and now he was entrusted to a post which, though it yielded him small pay, brought him often into the august presence of the minister of finance. The minister was pleased with his fine appearance and courtly manners but shortly more pleased that the young man was a trusty, speedy, and unusually apt officer. He therefore often trusted him with important business far in advance of that strictly within the sphere of his position, and Raif Bey showed so much sagacity that the minister promoted him accordingly.

Raif Bey bore his sudden fortune apparently with modesty, but to Sadik he boasted that he was the minister's right hand, with

careless familiarity implying that he oversaw all the business and was acquainted with all the mysteries of the great machine, of which in reality he was only one of many thousand wheels. But if his extravagant boasting was done with a view to making his friend envious, Raif could not have understood the noble simplicity of Sadik's heart. The thought that Raif must be exaggerating and falsifying did not occur to him; his beautiful honest eyes beamed in happy admiring pride at the success of his favorite companion.

"O, Raif, if only Allah grants you a long life you will reach your highest aim. How rejoiced I am over your well deserved success!"

Raif looked at his friend with a condescending smile and said,

"It seems that you have found out sooner than I anticipated that a Spartaly is not less great than a son of Derebey."

Sadik was astonished. "I do not understand you. What is it you say?"

"You do not understand me?" asked Raif coolly, feeling his uncontested advantage. "Have you forgotten the time you threatened to order me about when you as a Derebey should have gained the top round of the official ladder?"

"I cannot recall ever having said or even thought it," said Sadik, and after some consideration continued, "I never can have said it, you must have confused me with some one else."

"O, no, I am not mistaken," answered Raif, still smiling with condescension. "You provoked me too much at the time, but I have long ago forgiven it and now let it be forgotten."

"Then it must have been when I was delirious that I said it," said Sadik sadly; "I am sorry to have offended you."

"It is forgiven and forgotten," said Raif.

Sadik took him at his word, and soon banished the incident from his mind. He dimly remembered having once offended Raif but his illness had swept the particulars from his recollection.

One day Raif Bey surprised his friend Sadik with the news that they soon must

separate because he was about to marry. Raif and Sadik were now both twenty-three years old, already past the age when in Turkey it is customary for men to marry, but the news coming thus as a surprise made it all the harder for Sadik to part with him.

The next day Raif invited his friend to accompany him for a walk, and led him into a fine part of the city, where they stopped before a handsome new house.

"How do you like it?" asked Raif.

"It is beautiful," answered Sadik.

"I am glad you like it," Raif continued, "for I think we will spend many pleasant hours there."

"How so?"

"It is mine. I bought it a few days ago and hope soon to live there with my wife."

Several weeks later the marriage took place. Sadik knew that Raif had been industrious and frugal and when he heard that the bride was beautiful and rich and that her father had given them a fine new house he believed only the first half of it. When he returned to his lodgings everything reminded him of his departed friend Raif.

The next morning before he went to the ministry he betook himself to a matchmaker and entered into negotiations for a wife. He wanted a white girl, good-looking, young, and of pleasant disposition, and offered to pay from a hundred to a hundred and fifty pounds for her. In about three months Sadik Bey took for his wife, Mihir, a bright, pretty young girl, who seemed very happy and thankful to have for her husband such a mild, handsome, and distinguished gentleman as Sadik Bey. Sadik had to pay two hundred pounds for her, but he did not begrudge it, for at first sight Mihir impressed him favorably and he soon lost his heart to her.

His father Tschapanoglu, whom he dutifully had informed of his intentions, placed to his account a considerable sum, and with it the unassuming young couple established themselves comfortably in a pleasant, modest house in western Stambul. Sadik Bey took very much to heart the letter that his father sent along with the money for his marriage. His letter said that his possessions in Asia Minor were yielding very scant

income and requested Sadik to manage his affairs so that he could get along without assistance from home, at least for a time. Sadik resolved never again to be a burden to his father. His income was small, but he gave Mihir to understand that it must suffice for all their needs.

In the course of a few years Sadik had attained a position at the head of the bureau, and with his beloved Mihir was happy in this modest position. He had two beautiful healthy children who sweetened his life, and his income though very slowly had increased a little and sufficed to feed and clothe his family satisfactorily to Mihir's simple taste.

Soon Raif Bey was spoken of in Stambul as a well-to-do, then as a rich, and finally as a very rich man. It was known that he had bought considerable property, received thousands of pounds from his house rent only, and was interested in several banks where he had large sums to his credit. True, distinguished Turks shrugged their shoulders and smiled over the general secretary's greed of gold; but little businessmen spoke with admiration of his many kinds of successes. He could not well avoid an occasional pious donation—for fear he would be regarded with disfavor in high and influential positions—and on such occasions he did not skimp. But real generosity of heart which prompts to give without display, for the single motive of assisting humanity, was a stranger to Raif Bey.

Sadik Bey heard not infrequently among his acquaintances ill-natured remarks about Raif. He warmly defended his friend. "You do not know Raif Bey as I know him. He is noble and great and his mind from being engrossed in great things often overlooks little things."

One night Sadik's home fell a prey to the flames. He and his family barely escaped with their lives. One of Sadik's business companions immediately invited Sadik and his family to go home with him.

Early the next morning Sadik called on Raif and to his greeting, "What is the news?" responded,

"You do not appear to know that I have met with a great misfortune."

"No. What has happened?"

"My house burned down with all my goods and possessions."

"You are fortunate to escape alive. And what are you going to do now?"

"Build a new house, I suppose. What else could I do?"

"Yes, of course, of course," said Raif thoughtfully.

"And may I ask you to lend the money for it," Sadik continued simply and quietly.

"What?" exclaimed Raif quickly, and a painful convulsion passed over his haggard face. Sadik did not notice it. "Eight hundred pounds," he said calmly, "I think, will answer."

"Eight—hundred—pounds!" Raif snapped angrily, pausing after each word. "Why not eight thousand? It seems to you a paltry sum; to me, it is a big amount, more than my whole year's salary."

Sadik looked astonished and confused, incapable of saying a word.

"I see," Raif went on, "that it pleases you to-day to put credence in the lying, malicious report, which has been circulated for the express purpose of injuring me, that I am a rich, influential officer who in the finance ministry draws sustenance from both rain and sunshine, till I scarcely know what to do with all my money. In reality you know very well that there is not a word of truth in these foolish reports and that the money that in the course of time I have laid by has been saved by the hardest work, and amounts in all to only a few pounds."

Sadik simply looked at the general secretary. An indescribably sad expression had come over his face. Raif did not observe it. He was buried in his own thoughts. After a short pause, while he breathed heavily and moved uneasily about his seat, he spoke impressively,

"Why did you not make your request of the pasha, your father? Were it not more natural to receive a present from him than from a stranger? For it would be out and out a gift, since you must know as well as I that with your small salary you never could manage to pay even the interest on eight hundred pounds, much less the principal."

Sadik started to rise with dignity and silence from the divan on which he sat beside Raif. Raif laid his hand detainingly on his guest's shoulder:

"You will, no doubt, be embarrassed for the time," he said in a gentler voice, "and I will gladly stand by you so far as is in my power, until you can get word from your father. Come this afternoon to the ministry and there I will place fifty, yes, a hundred pounds to your account, and it shall be yours to say whether you will receive it as a gift or a loan."

With a slight movement Sadik shook off Raif's hand, rose slowly and bowed himself out of his presence without deigning to give his lost friend a single word or even look.

For a long time Sadik walked on, his eyes cast on the ground, without realizing where he went or what was going on about him. A deep sorrow gnawed at his heart. He felt that he had suffered another misfortune, greater than the loss of his goods, because it never could be restored. Suddenly he found himself outside the old city walls; he sat down in a lonely place, and tried to collect his distracted thoughts. He realized that all his life long he had been deceived in Raif. With a feeling of shame for his own blindness and of disgust for the man who a few hours before had been to him the embodiment of nobleness and greatness, and his best, most trusted friend, he said to himself, "I have been a blind fool; Raif is an ignoble soul. I will, Allah permitting, never see him again. That I have lost a true friend is my great misfortune; but the Master has opened my eyes to his falseness, therefore be He praised!"

Downcast and sad, Sadik returned home. His friends attributed his sad humor to the terrors of that awful night of the fire, for he told no one his new trouble, not even his loved and trusted wife Mihir, and the affair would have remained a secret between the two men had not Raif's evil conscience driven him to justifying himself, first at home to his wife and rich father-in-law, where he got no sympathy, and then to his business acquaintances. But although in the course of the day Raif's story had grown so

that it represented Sadik as an impudent sponger and himself as a noble friend to humanity, it never met with any success.

Nobody believed that Sadik Bey would put himself in a position to deserve Raif's slander. Those who knew him esteemed him as an honorable man, and the little charities which he did in secret won him more public friends than were won by Raif Bey by the great amounts for which his name shone on charitable lists.

Raif's own father-in-law visited Sadik and asked to be granted the honor of becoming his creditor, and he was not the only rich man who did so. At last the story of the two friends reached the sultan's ears. Full of mercy he sent for Sadik.

An hour later Sadik entered the imperial palace. Though conscious of no guilt, his heart beat fast as he thought of appearing before his ruler. Sadik never had been in his highness' presence before, but it had been a part of his education to learn court manners and he approached to the prescribed distance in faultless manner. There he remained standing, his eyes respectfully cast to the floor.

"It seems a misfortune has befallen you," said the sultan.

"My house burned down," replied Sadik.

With a slight movement of impatience the sultan continued: "I did not wish to speak of that. You have fallen out with Raif, the friend of your youth. Why?"

Sadik's lips trembled. He was silent.

"You know your duty to me when I ask you a question?" His voice was gentle.

"To tell the whole truth, to the best of my knowledge," answered Sadik softly.

"Now, proceed with your duty."

Sadik caught his breath. Involuntarily he laid his hand on his beating heart. The sultan looked with pity.

"After the fire," began Sadik, "I betook myself to Raif and asked of him a loan to rebuild my house. I see now it was a mistake on my part to do so, for possibly I could never have repaid the loan." He hesitated.

"Well? Go on."

"Raif made me aware of the mistake. He offered as a gift to put part of the sum

I asked to my credit. I did not accept, and left him."

"Is that the whole truth?"

Then Sadik bowed to the floor and said, "O, Effendimis, you now know all of it that I can tell you." He paused awhile, then added, with downcast eyes: "But I am no longer angry with Raif."

The sultan regarded him dumfounded, then his eyes lit up with an indescribably beautiful light. He left the room, returning with a heavy silken purse.

"Take this," he said, "and know that the caliph is the true protector of all good Mussulmen. You have lost a false friend and found a true one. Allah be praised! Go!"

Scarcely had Sadik departed when the sultan ordered a secretary to inform the minister of justice without delay that it was the sultan's will that an immediate and thorough investigation should be made into the affairs of Raif Spartaly's department of finance. If Raif could not show proof that his wealth had been acquired by honorable means, all his wealth wrung from the government should be confiscated, and he banished to the isle of Chios.

Before the sun went down Raif Bey and about twenty witnesses were called up, and it was conclusively proved that aside from the dowry that his wife had brought him, by far the larger part if indeed not all of his fortune had been won dishonorably. The sailors that carried Raif into banishment to Chios were instructed that any kindness shown Raif would be generously rewarded by his father-in-law. But nothing that could be done could bring joy to the banished man nor alleviate his sorrow. Six months later he died broken-hearted.

Raif's possessions, at the sultan's command, were applied to the erection of a charitable institution for the blind. Sadik continued to be beloved by all who knew him, and finally had cause to be satisfied with his lot as far as his ambitions were concerned, for on many occasions the sultan showed him special favor. Yet on his handsome and once care-free countenance there was a deep trace of sadness, and his discerning wife Mihir knew that Sadik Bey mourned his lost friend.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

DR. CHARLES H. PARKHURST AND HIS BATTLE.

THE political revolution in New York City during the past month was not the work of politicians or political organizations, but rather it was the introduction of a moral idea into the city government by a preacher of the gospel.

Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst, as president of the Society for the Prevention of Vice and Crime, held a favorable relation to his organization as well as to the public for leading a reform movement in the New York police force. This he used in the face of fierce opposition from good men. Ministers of the gospel declared publicly against his methods. A number of influential newspapers opposed him. Some of the best men in his own church talked strongly against his methods. But he stood up in the face of all opposition, making speeches, preaching sermons, and writing articles which had so much influence over the public mind that to-day his cause is advocated by tens of thousands.

The New York Legislature appointed the Lexow committee, who in the name of the state of New York began an investigation which has unearthed so much of bribe taking and endorsement of crime on the part of the police and higher officials in the city government as to have shocked respectable people everywhere. At last a combination was made of all respectable Republicans, Democrats, Independents, and people who believe in law and public morals. They have elected their candidates for mayor, recorder, and the rest of the ticket over the regular Tammany organization, which is a great triumph for morality in what has been considered the most corrupt city government in this country.

One only need read the testimony of the Lexow committee to be convinced of the deep degradation to which men will descend in corrupting government, violating law, and oppressing the people while yet clothed with civil authority.

For more than ten years there have been gossip in the newspapers and rumors current among all classes of people in New York City, that grievous wrongs were being perpetrated, but never until Dr. Parkhurst

took hold of the matter has anybody succeeded in unmasking the perpetrators and bringing them to the bar of justice. It certainly is a great victory for the people, and since this is a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people," the nation may be congratulated as well as the good citizens of New York that this, the greatest commercial metropolis of the country, has been redeemed from its wicked oppressors.

Dr. Parkhurst is pastor of Madison Avenue Presbyterian church. He receives a salary of ten thousand dollars a year. There are a number of very rich men in his congregation. Mr. Eno, who owns the Fifth Avenue Hotel, Mr. Dodge, son of the late Hon. William E. Dodge, are among the members of his church. His church building faces Madison Square, opposite the Fifth Avenue Hotel. It is an old-fashioned structure with the organ and quartet choir at one end of the audience room and the pulpit at the other, with galleries running around the two sides and one end. His congregation did not fill his house before he began his reform movement, but now the people crowd to hear him so that at every service many stand in the galleries and about the doorways because they cannot be seated.

Dr. Parkhurst is a man of penetrating mind. His talents as a sermonizer do not run in the old grooves. He constructs a sermon on his own original plan, and adorns it with illustrations gathered from all sources. He applies a sermon with peculiar force to the present times, to individual character and practical experience. His delivery of a sermon is somewhat strained. He wears a gown with the conventional white necktie, uses a manuscript, and reads every word of his sermon. A part of the time he makes gestures with both fists clenched and held on an even line. He has a fashion of seesawing, now on the right, now on the left foot. His voice is not very musical; it is rather metallic, lacking sympathy and at times too low for everybody to hear every word. His manner however is that of a sincere, earnest man preaching the gospel for the good he may do his fellows, and of a man engaged in a battle for the triumph of the right. He is not handsome, but has

a good figure. He would never draw people to him by sympathy in his tones of voice or his familiar style of oratory, but he does arouse men by his ideas as an agitator and organizer. In talent, and by reason of his success in doing good he stands at the very head of the ministry of the United States. Henry Ward Beecher is dead; Dr. Talmage has resigned his place; now Dr. Parkhurst and his reform come to the front.

But his work is only fairly begun. The iniquities to which he has called attention have only been exposed. Nobody has yet been convicted or punished for these crimes, except, politically, Tammany Hall has been defeated and new officers will take the place of the old ones in the city government. It will be necessary for Dr. Parkhurst to furnish the ideas and make suggestions concerning the future of this campaign. He must be the leader.

He has been honored by being elected an honorary member of the Union League. The New York *World* suggests a testimonial from the city to him. This is the point where, if Dr. Parkhurst is a weak man, he may lose his head. If he is made of the heroic stuff for which he now has credit he will not recognize political compliments, but will continue his work with his organization against social crime until this reform reaches its logical results. Otherwise the movement will be a failure and the victory won will simply be of a political and not a moral nature.

Great honor is due Dr. Parkhurst's church for its patience and forbearance in the early stages of this movement. If a preacher in charge of a church in almost any other denomination had used the methods Dr. Parkhurst did he would have been brought to trial and probably expelled. But the Presbyterian church which he serves and the whole connection of Presbyterians in the United States have rendered to good municipal government a valuable service by holding up the hands of Dr. Parkhurst in this battle. All hail to Dr. Parkhurst! Savonarola was great in Florence but Dr. Parkhurst is greater in this year 1894 in the city of New York.

A CHRISTMAS PROVERB.

"'Tis good to be merry and wise." At Christmas time especially a ready assent is given to this old saying. But with the assent it would be well to study its full meaning.

There is something in the spirit of the

time which is apt to bring out with force one part of the expression to the obscurity of the rest. It is a plain, simple statement so arranged as to make a well balanced sentence with the emphasis equally distributed. But when reflected in the actions of large classes of people it is seen that they make mistakes in its reading.

One class make it top heavy by rendering *sotto voce* the last two words. Merriment is the sole thought held in mind. At any cost the Christmas festivities must be prepared. From pocketbooks whose contents stern necessity demands shall be very evenly apportioned through the months of the year, undue allotments are taken. Many women overtax their strength in making elaborate preparations. Children are filled with such large expectancy that the realization is apt to be disappointing. Christmas gifts sent to friends are often so permeated with anxiety, weariness, or sacrifice as to make it utterly impossible to conceal these sorry elements. Even when wealth is at command there is danger of making similar mistakes. As a guard against such evils the motto should be made to read, "'Tis good to be merry *and wise*."

Another large group of people should have their attention called to the right import of the old saying by giving it another rendering. This group comprises those in whose hearts, apparently, no good impulses stir, who have allowed themselves to grow hard and to express a contempt for the deeds which brighten other lives. It comprises also those who push through life seeking their own pleasure regardless of others. All persons marred by such traits should have a special arrangement of the proverb for their consideration, which should read, "'Tis wise to be merry *and good*."

There exist still some persons who are anachronisms. They should have lived in the days of Cromwell or of the old Puritanical authors of the "blue laws." What impresses their distorted minds as wisdom and goodness makes up for them the *summum bonum* of life; there is no place in it for merriment. The transposition made for these people should read, "'Tis wise and good *to be merry*."

Well will it be for the world when all mankind has grown so honest, so simple and true, so filled with the spirit of Christ that neither at Christmas time nor any other time can there be any mistake in rendering the plain old proverb in its original form.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

FOR THE MONTH ENDING NOVEMBER 10.

JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE.

JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE, the English historian who died Oct. 20, in London, was born April 23, 1818, at Dartington, Devonshire, England. He was the youngest son of the archdeacon of Totness. His youthful environment was religious and scholarly. Educated at Westminster School and Oriel College, Oxford, and graduating in 1840 he took deacon's orders in 1844 in the Established Church, but soon turned his attention to literature almost exclusively. His literary career began with a novel, "Shadows of the Clouds," issued in 1847. His principal works are: "The Nemesis of Faith" (1849), "A History of England from the Fall of Wolsey to the Death of Elizabeth" (10 vols., 1859-67), "Short Studies on Great Subjects" (4 series, 1867-82), "The English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century" (1871-1874, "Cæsar" (1879), "Bunyan," "Two Lectures on South Africa" (1880), "Thomas Carlyle: the First Forty Years of his Life" (1882), "Thomas Carlyle: a History of his Life in London" (1884), "Oceana," "The Two Chiefs of Dunboy" and "The English in the West Indies" (1889), "Life of Beaconsfield" (1890), "The Divorce of Catherine of Aragon" (1891), and "The Spanish Story of the Armada" (1892). In 1892 at the age of seventy-four, Froude became regius professor of modern history at Oxford, succeeding Professor Edward A. Freeman, whose death removed one of the most zealous critics of Froude's historical style. His latest work is "The Life and Letters of Erasmus," published shortly before his death in England and the United States.

Cleveland Leader. (Ohio.)

In industry, brilliance of style, and power of making history fascinating, Froude had few equals in any age or country. He was fertile, alert, powerful in controversy, and always interesting. His work covered a wide range and opened many fields of discussion and research. His faults were chiefly carelessness of justice or inability to command the judicial temper and breadth of view, hasty conclusions, and the exasperating habit of wresting facts, consciously or unconsciously, to suit the purpose or bias of his writings, even in his most serious and laborious historical work. He was a striking figure in the world of letters, but less admirable than picturesque and brilliant.

Chicago Inter-Ocean. (Ill.)

Mr. Froude came into prominence as a man of letters in 1856, when he published the first two volumes of his "History of England from the Fall of Wolsey to the Defeat of the Spanish Armada." Few literary productions ever created so much hostile criticism. All recognized its strictly literary merit and its thoroughness of research, but it was an attempt to reverse what is usually called "the verdict of history" in several respects, but more especially as regards Henry VIII. He was an ardent admirer and a bold apologist of a sovereign whose name had always been held in detestation for his gross sensuality and cruelty. The last of the Henrys is the Bluebeard of royalty, and when Mr. Froude undertook to present in clear and overshadowing outlines the better side of his character and reign there was a loud, shrill cry of indignation.

The Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

James Anthony Froude, the eminent English writer, was a controversialist all his life, and now that he is dead he will become the subject of controversy. One thing upon which all commentators may unite is that he was a brilliant, forceful, entertaining writer. As to the value of his works they will seriously differ, and they have reason to do so. He was too much of an advocate to write history impartially, and his books have scarcely any value as works of reference, for they are not accepted as reliable by all scholars, and that of itself is sufficient to condemn them as histories.

San Francisco Examiner. (Cal.)

The death of James Anthony Froude gives another chance for the venerable observation that the last of the school of great writers is passing away, leaving no successors. Even if Froude is a great historian rather than the brilliant special pleader that his critics would have him, the race of historians and great writers has not closed. When Macaulay died the eulogists marked the end of the line of living historians. Yet Green and Freeman and Froude have built great and enduring, if less brilliant, works in the thirty-five years that have since passed. When Scott died, the last of the great novelists was proclaimed, yet Charles Dickens was then making the observations that in a few years flashed into the world in the merriment of Pickwick, Thackeray was passing through the vicissitudes that were to lead him to the first rank among novelists, Charlotte Brontë and George Eliot were living, and others who were to win a more moderate fame had entered the world.

* This department, together with the book, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. Course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

DEATH OF ALEXANDER III., EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.



ALEXANDER III.

the emperor's position having served probably more than any other power in affording a guarantee of peace between European nations. The news of the emperor's death was received with deep concern throughout the world and in France he is mourned as the sincere friend and strongest ally of the French nation. Alexander III. was forty-nine years old at the time of his death. The czarina, who is a daughter of the king of Denmark and a sister of the princess of Wales and the king of Greece, together with three sons and two daughters survive the czar.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Dying in his fiftieth year, he ruled Russia only about half as long as did his father, and his reign cannot for a moment be compared with that of Alexander II. in respect of historical importance. Virtues undoubtedly he had; they were such as would reflect great credit on a plain man in a private station; but as regards his public career it must be said that at the outset he renounced a unique opportunity to regenerate his country and showed himself to the last a reactionist in his principles of government. If he refrained from disturbing the peace of Europe, it was partly because until quite recently he had no chance of facing the triple alliance with a prospect of success.

Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

The czar was more enlightened and humane than many of the Romanoffs, but his persecution of the Jews and of the Catholics was cruel and indefensible. Aside from these crimes against the helpless and innocent, Alexander made one of the best rulers that Russia has ever had. If he had great faults he had some great virtues. It may be said in his behalf that if he was a despot, he inherited his policy from a long line of tyrants. If he distrusted the people it must be recollected that he was in constant danger of assassination, and the attempts upon his life naturally made him bitter and revengeful.

Jewish Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

We are glad to announce that the tyrannic heart of Alexander III. beats no more. Was it not a sight to make angels weep and despots tremble, that the czar of all the Russias should be lying on

THE death of Emperor Alexander III., known as czar of all the Russias, which occurred at Livadia (in the Crimea) November 1, was not an unexpected event, the serious character of his illness having been reported for several weeks. He succeeded to the throne in 1881 upon the assassination of his father Alexander II. by the nihilists. At the very hour of assassination of Alexander II. on March 13, 1881, the government presses were preparing for immediate publication the charter which the emperor had signed the day before granting to the people the parliamentary government which they had long sought. Thus nihilism apparently in agreement with a strange fate suddenly cut short the progress of the Russian people, for Alexander III. on the night following the murder of his father ordered the decree to be destroyed, and inaugurated forthwith a reactionary policy to which he adhered until death. The press of Europe speaks with practical unanimity in condemnation of the late emperor's religious fanaticism as evidenced chiefly in his vigorous hostility to the Jews. The peaceful attitude which he maintained for Russia in the affairs of Europe is the occasion also for general favorable comment,

his sick bed imploring death; he, the persecutor of Jew and Gentile; he, the heartless prince whose cruel edicts have given so many to the whipping post, to Siberia for life, or to death. He is dead, and we welcome his benevolent grave.

The Times. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Thoughtless American busy-bodies have talked about cruelty and barbarous despotism, but the whole effort of the late czar was to ameliorate the general condition of his people so far as it could be done with the instrumentalities at his command.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

He had but two cardinal principles of administration—one the suppression of the Nihilists who murdered his father; the other preservation of international peace. It is impossible to think of the death of the czar except as that of the peace keeper of Europe—an autocrat who was nevertheless an exemplary ruler in many ways, and one whose private virtues earned the respect of all men.

President Casimir-Périer of France.

He was France's strong and loyal friend.

La Presse. (Paris, France.)

All French patriots will be grieved by the sad news. The mourning will extend throughout France. The czar was a sincere partisan of peace and a devoted friend of our country. Our sorrow is unutterably deep, but there is no reason for despair, as the heir of Alexander III. will recognize the close bond uniting France and Russia. The sorrow of France will be the most convincing evidence to the son and

sovereign that the union of the nations, which for years has assured the peace, must remain and guarantee the peace in the future.

The Emperor of Germany.

The decrees of the emperor of Germany ordering mourning in the army and navy for Alexander III. read in part as follows:

"To honor the memory of Alexander III. of Russia, who to my greatest sorrow has departed this life, I order the Alexander III. Guards and the Alexander III. Uhlans to go into mourning for three weeks. No music shall be sounded during the first three days. Thus they will show that the German army shares my deepest pain for my most faithful friend and the most sincere guardian of the peace of

Europe: also that it remembers gratefully the kindness ever shown to it by the departed czar.

The Daily Chronicle. (London, Eng.)

Death calls forth human and personal emotions before which all political and public considerations subside. For doing his utmost to preserve Europe from war, millions who detest his ideas and the nature of his rule will respect his memory. We devoutly hope that his pacific views will be shared by his successor.

The Daily Graphic. (London, Eng.)

On the whole, the czar's influence was healthy. He leaves Russia distinctly happier, stronger, and more prosperous than in any other period of her history. He was faithful to his great trust as custodian of the European peace.

NICHOLAS II., THE NEW EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.



NICHOLAS II.

THE accession of Emperor Nicholas II., eldest son of the late Alexander III., was proclaimed in St. Petersburg November 2. He is twenty-six years old and is betrothed to Princess Alix of Hesse-Darmstadt, a granddaughter of Queen Victoria and cousin of the emperor of Germany. It is impossible to estimate with any degree of accuracy the political disposition of the young emperor or to gauge in any reliable way his future public policy either as it relates to his own empire or its commanding position among the nations of Europe. His attitude toward the triple alliance is a question which interests all Europe and his future course is made the subject of general speculation. The proclamation issued by the new emperor announcing the death of his father is not regarded as furnishing a definite indication of the course which he will pursue. It reads in part as follows: "We in this sad and solemn hour, when ascending the ancestral throne of the Russian Empire and the Czarism of Poland and the Grand Duchy of Finland, indissolubly connected therewith, we, in the presence of the Most High, record our solemn

vow that we will always make our sole aim the peaceful development of the power and glory of beloved Russia and the happiness of our subjects." In conclusion the proclamation directs that the oath of allegiance be taken to the new emperor and also to the Grand Duke George, his lineal successor, "until God shall vouchsafe to bless with a son the union into which the emperor is about to enter with the Princess Alix."

New Orleans Picayune. (La.)

The two most powerful thrones in Europe are now occupied by very young men. Emperor William of Germany was but a few years older than Nicholas when he ascended the throne. It must be admitted that Germany has lost nothing in prestige abroad or prosperity at home under her young emperor, hence it may be hoped that an equal good fortune is in store for Russia under Nicholas II.

The Daily News. (London, Eng.)

There are all the elements of a perfect understanding between the new monarch and his people, and it seems impossible to believe that the old repressive system will continue. Yet it can only be stopped on one condition. The assassins must give up their profession. Nihilism has proved a complete failure as a political force, for it cannot point to a single reform due to its agency. The nihilists have not even marked time during the reign of a liberal party.

Press Dispatch from London, Eng.

Persons who have been thrown into close contact with the Czar Nicholas II. during his visits to England say that he spoke English perfectly. His Majesty acquired his education from an English governess and tutors. When induced to talk freely he expressed liberal ideas and seemed to care nothing for the rights of kings. He showed no disposition to militarism, and was almost nervously fond of retirement. During his stay in London he preferred to spend his time quietly reading rather than in attendance at ceremonies. Solitary rambles through the streets seemed, too, to afford him much more amusement and pleasure than theater and opera going. He has openly professed a dislike for war, and his tendencies are in the direction of peace and his tastes and pursuits are simple.

London Correspondent of the Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Speculation about the general foreign policy of

the young sovereign is endless, but it is only speculation. No one pretends to have a scrap of knowledge on the subject. It is known only that Nicholas II. is more cosmopolitan, and, in some sense, broader minded than his father, by reason of his wider travel, but it is a question whether this is an advantage in his position. It is usually admitted that he lacks his father's conservatism and unchangeable resolution. It was the latter quality which kept peace in Europe under provocation which, more than once, would have tempted a less determined man to let loose the dogs of war.

Paris Correspondent of the New York Herald, N. Y.

It is alarming to reflect that a young man of twenty-six, wholly without preparation hitherto for the terrible greatness of his mission, is about to be absolute master of one hundred and twenty million men. It is said that he is more liberal in his views than his father, and is anxious to continue the same pacific policy in relation to all the powers, but it is affirmed that personal ties of friendship link the present czar with Emperor William, which was not the case with Alexander III.

Berlin Correspondent of the United Press.

The young czar's intercourse with Emperor William and many German princes has shown that he is completely acquainted with Germany's domestic life and is in sympathy with German art and letters. Although he has occupied himself little with politics,

he is believed to have a judicious and cautious mind, which will not allow him to seek any quarrel with a neighbor and old friend. His alliance with the Princess Alix of Hesse, which was the emperor's cherished plan, will tend to cement the friendliness of his personal relations to the German courts.

The Gaulois. (Paris, France.)

Russia and France are more sisters than ever, since they weep for the same father. Nicholas II. will love France because Russia loves her. He personifies the soul of holy Russia.

Press Dispatch from Rome, Italy.

The Vatican is said to hope that the czar will continue the traditions of friendliness toward Rome which marked the last days of Alexander III. The Vatican believes that the death of the czar will in no way affect the French-Russian alliance, and it is said that so long as Cardinal Rampolla, who is an ardent friend of Russia, remains papal secretary of state, the adhesion of the Vatican to the French-Russian alliance will remain an article of pontifical faith.

Novoe Vremya. (St. Petersburg, Russia.)

His youth will not hinder his working for the highest good and exacting the right from all, especially those serving nearest him. The Russian nation has not hitherto been spoiled with too much happiness, and it will not be a difficult task to give it happiness.

THE COTTON STATES AND INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION.

THE preliminary arrangements for the Cotton States and International Exposition, to be held in Atlanta, Georgia, in the autumn of 1895, have been made and the work of laying out the grounds and constructing the buildings is about to begin. A large government appropriation together with substantial local support and the widespread interest evidenced throughout the South in the undertaking have made the launching of the enterprise auspicious.

The Constitution. (Atlanta, Ga.)

The exposition moves on beautifully. There is not a hitch anywhere and those who are engaged in directing the great undertaking could not ask a more auspicious beginning. It will be the greatest success of the century, so far as the South is concerned.

With the endorsement of the government and the cordial co-operation of Spanish-America it goes without saying that our exposition will be one of the biggest ever held in this country.

Chicago Herald. (Ill.)

It has been christened The Cotton States and International Exposition, a name which it will be difficult for the people to remember, which must involve frequent explanations, and perhaps apologies, and which in no manner gives expression to the idea intended to be conveyed by its promoters. Governor Northen, of Georgia, in a recent letter takes a proper view of this subject when he says: "I understand that its scope will not be confined to those states known as the cotton

states proper, but that all the states of the South will be included. . . . Let us understand at the beginning that every southern state shall have a full and fair opportunity to display herself and the rivalry for precedents and development will be pleasant to look upon." The managers of the enterprise will find it greatly to the advantage of the exposition if the understanding which Governor Northen urges shall be made the prevailing and only one. To make it the great success it deserves to be all attempts to localize it in name or in scope should be defeated. It must have, of course, a comprehensive official title, and The Southern and International Exposition would express the idea and be high-sounding enough for official stationery. The South helped to make the World's Fair a success. Its response to our appeals was prompt and generous. The North in general, and Chicago in particular, appreciates this fact. The North in general and Chicago in particular, will help to make the southern exposition a success.

SHALL THE U. S. STANDING ARMY BE INCREASED?

THE annual report of Major-General Schofield, commanding the army, made during the month deals chiefly with the question of increasing the standing army of the United States. The part taken by the United States troops in the railroad strikes in the West last summer is reviewed and the report asserts that the country is now confronted with the necessity of making provision against both foreign aggression and domestic violence. General Schofield then urges the increase of the army in these terms:

"A considerable permanent increase in the enlisted strength of the army should be made, and a still further increase authorized to be made by the president when, in his judgment, an emergency requiring it may reasonably be foreseen. It is not a good military system in which the executive has no authority whatever to increase the effective strength of the army in time of need. The organization being fixed by law, with maximum and minimum limits of strength, the executive should be authorized to vary the enlisted strength between those limits according to his estimate of the necessities of the country. The cost of the suggested increase in the strength of the army would be utterly insignificant as compared with the damage which might have been done in one day in one city, if the military force assembled at that point had proved inadequate. The relation of the United States to the great military powers of Europe now exhibits a far greater disparity in respect to preparation for war than that which has existed between China and Japan. Will the people of the United States and their representatives have the modesty to appreciate and the wisdom to profit by this lesson?"

(Dem.) *The Post.* (Pittsburg, Pa.)

With cautious language General Schofield argues that the labor question in its wide ramifications makes an increase of the regular army a necessity. We do not believe the notion will ever become popular in this country that the labor question is to be determined by the regulars. When we give up the policy that the civil authorities aided by the state troops are fully adequate to meet disorders of this character, we surrender one of the distinctive principles of the American system of government.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N.Y.)

The *Tribune* is heartily in accord with General Schofield's views, having recommended repeatedly an increase of the army and emphasized the necessity for establishing large military posts in Chicago and other railway centers. The army has become an indispensable instrument for the suppression of mobs in serious emergencies; and Congress cannot afford to pass over the recommendations of General Schofield in silence.

(Labor.) *Washington Times.* (D. C.)

There is a great objection to the Schofield cure for modern evils. The discretionary power which he proposes to lodge in the hands of the president would be so vast and absolute that the mere thought of it is disturbing. An unscrupulous president, a pliant secretary of war, and a superserviceable commander of the army would enable the chief executive to perpetuate his power or dictate his successor. That is the South American method, where revolutions and presidential elections go hand in hand, but it is not a system which will be tolerated in the United States.

(Rep.) *The Journal.* (Kansas City, Mo.)

There is one feature of the recommendation of the commanding general that needs no study or discussion to any well-balanced American mind that

understands the principle upon which human liberty rests. His recommendation that the army may be increased at the discretion or will of the president is a departure from the safeguards of liberty that we are surprised to see in a grave public document from any department of the government.

(Dem.) *The World.* (New York, N. Y.)

General Schofield's plea for a larger army was to have been expected. It is the professional soldier's hobby. But the country does not need or want a larger army. Its present force is ample as a training school for officers and as a nucleus for an army which can be easily increased in case of need by the enlistment of the state militia.

(Ind.) *Philadelphia Times.* (Pa.)

As the report recommends an increase of the regular army and the fortification of the seacoast ports, it is certain to be assailed by those who profess to believe that the United States can whip all creation without any previous preparation. As against this sort of claptrap the dignified warnings of a man who has made the arts of war and defense the study and practice of his whole active life should be regarded as conclusive. Taking the humiliating condition of China in its present contest with a nation not one tenth its equal in territory and population and the riot crisis of last summer as illustrations of the necessity of an efficient military defense against armed invasion and domestic violence, General Schofield argues that the ratio of one soldier to fourteen square miles of territory and 2,800 of population constitutes a military force too small for the enforcement of the laws in case of riot and insurrection or for successful defense in case of an armed invasion. The source and thoughtful recommendations of this report make it one of the most remarkable documents ever addressed to the American people, and it ought not to go unheeded.

THE GENERAL ELECTIONS.

THE "Tidal Wave," one of the curiosities of American politics, this time Republican in character, manifested itself in the general elections held throughout the country on November 6. In thirty-one states elections took place for state officers or members of state Legislatures, twenty-one states electing governors. Representatives in Congress were elected in every state in the Union excepting Maine, Vermont, and Oregon, which had previously elected solid Republican delegations as usual. The results of the state elections are given below and these, together with the congressional returns, show widespread and unprecedented Republican gains especially at the expense of the Democrats in the South and the Populists in the West. A feature of general importance outside the state directly interested was the voting of women in Colorado for the first time on an equal footing with men. Other notable features in the state elections were the defeat of the equal suffrage amendment to the constitution in Kansas and the adoption of thirty-eight far-reaching amendments to the constitution in New York.

THE NEXT UNITED STATES SENATE.

By the election of Republican state Legislatures the Republicans will gain one U. S. senator each, in New Jersey, West Virginia, and Kansas. The next United States Senate, according to a strict party classification, will probably stand, 41 Republicans, 41 Democrats, and 6 Populists. Of the six Populists three, Messrs. Pepper of Kansas, Allen of Nebraska, and Kyle of South Dakota, are stanch members of the People's Party without other political affiliations; two senators, Jones and Stewart of Nevada, have strong Republican leanings, and one, Governor Tillman of South Carolina, should he be elected as predicted, is counted a Populist-Democrat. Thus the Populists will hold the balance of power in the United States Senate for the two years between March 4, 1895, and March 4, 1897.

THE NEXT HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

In the present House of Representatives there are 125 Republicans, 219 Democrats, and 12 Populists, the Democrats having a majority of 82 over all. The next Congress will probably have 240 Republicans, 102 Democrats, and 14 Populists or Fusionists, in which case there will be a Republican majority of 124 over all. This majority based on the returns as reported may be increased somewhat by the result of a few contested elections. It is certain that the Republicans will have a two thirds majority by states in the 54th Congress, which will be a matter of large importance should the next presidential election be thrown in the House of Representatives. By this election the proportions of the last Congress elected have been about reversed. It will be seen that there will be fewer Democrats in the next Congress than there are Republicans in the present House. This fact is made apparent by an analysis of the returns. But one Democrat is elected in the six New England states which in 1892 returned nine Democrats to the lower house. New York City elected four Democrats to Congress this year, the only ones in the state which two years ago elected nineteen Democratic congressmen. In place of a Pennsylvania delegation of ten Democrats in 1892, but one was elected this year in the state. Of a total of twenty-two congressmen elected in Ohio two are Democrats where there were seven elected two years ago. Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Delaware, Idaho, the two Dakotas, Montana, Wyoming, and Washington send solid Republican delegations to Congress. The same states in 1892 were represented by 30 Republicans and 25 Democrats. In Missouri 10 Republicans are elected in place of one at the congressional election two years ago. Other states in the South return Republicans as follows: Kentucky, 2; West Virginia, 4; and Maryland, 3. In 1892 the delegations elected from West Virginia and Maryland were entirely Democratic and that of Kentucky was made up of 1 Republican and 10 Democrats. Among the prominent Democrats in the present house who failed of re-election are William L. Wilson of West Virginia, author of the Wilson Bill and Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, and Messrs. Hatch, Bland, and Dockery of Missouri, Springer of Illinois, Holman and Bynum of Indiana, Enloe of Tennessee, Outhwaite and Johnson of Ohio, and Cummings and Sickles of New York.

THE STATE ELECTIONS.

New Hampshire: The Republicans elected their candidates for governor and all other state offices. Mr. Charles A. Busiel is the governor elect. The Republicans also secured an increased majority in the Legislature which will elect a successor to United States Senator William E. Chandler, Republican.

Massachusetts: F. T. Greenhalge, the present governor, was re-elected together with the entire state ticket by more than 60,000 plurality. The net

Democratic loss this year is about twenty-four per cent and Governor Greenhalge's plurality is almost doubled over that of 1893. The Legislature, which is largely Republican, will elect a successor to United States Senator George F. Hoar.

Connecticut: The entire Republican state ticket was elected by about 17,000 plurality. O. Vincent Coffin is the governor-elect. It is the first time in about fifteen years that a Republican governor has

been elected by the people. The Legislature will stand: Senate, Republicans 21, Democrats 1; House, Republicans 205, Democrats 47.

New York: The Republicans elected their whole state ticket, and 106 out of 128 members of the lower branch of the state Legislature. The successful Republican candidates and their pluralities are as follows: Governor, ex-Vice President Levi P. Morton, 156,781; Lieut. Governor Charles T. Saxton, 125,825; Judge Court of Appeals Albert Haight, 126,515. At the preceding state election in 1891 Roswell P. Flower, Democrat, was elected governor by a plurality of 47,937. The defeated Democratic candidates were for governor, United States Senator David B. Hill; lieut. governor, Congressman Daniel S. Lockwood; judge of the court of appeals, Charles F. Brown. The Republicans will have a majority in the state Senate of 6 and 84 in the lower house. All of the 33 amendments to the state constitution proposed by the Constitutional Convention, enumerated in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for November, were favorably voted upon by the people. The anti-gambling amendment was one of the most important and by its passage pool selling and race track gambling is prohibited by the constitution, a result which will, it is said, put an end to the business of horse racing in the state.

New Jersey: The Republicans elected 5 out of the 6 state senators voted for and 56 out of the 60 members of the Lower House of the Legislature. No state officers were voted for. The next Legislature will be composed of 56 Republicans and 4 Democrats in the Lower House and 16 Republicans and 5 Democrats in the Senate, giving the Republicans a majority of 63 on joint ballot. This Republican Legislature will elect a United States senator to succeed John R. McPherson, Democrat, the present U. S. senator from New Jersey.

Pennsylvania: The entire Republican state ticket, led by General Daniel H. Hastings for governor, and including the venerable Galusha A. Grow, candidate for congressman at large, was elected by largely increased pluralities, that of General Hastings, who led the ticket by several thousand votes, being more than 243,000 over his Democratic opponent, Mr. W. H. Singler, editor of the *Record*, Philadelphia. The Republicans gain several seats in the Legislature, the new state Senate standing 43 Republicans and 7 Democrats, and the lower house having 176 Republicans and 28 Democrats.

Delaware: The Republican candidate for governor, Joshua A. Marvil, was elected by a plurality in excess of 1,000. The present governor is a Democrat. The next state Legislature will stand, House, 21 Republicans and 7 Democrats; Senate, 5 Democrats, and 4 Republicans, a Republican majority on joint ballot of 13. Thus a Republican

Legislature will elect a U. S. senator to succeed Anthony Higgins, Republican, the present senator from Delaware.

Ohio: The Republican state ticket comprising candidates for minor state offices, was elected by a plurality in excess of 138,000, the largest plurality ever given to Republican candidates in the state.

Michigan: The Republican candidates for governor and other state offices were elected by greatly increased pluralities. The present governor, John T. Rich, was re-elected. The next state Legislature will be composed almost if not entirely of Republicans and will elect two U. S. senators to succeed the present Republican senators.

West Virginia: The state went Republican by popular vote for the first time in twenty-one years. The Republicans have a majority in the Legislature which will elect a successor to U. S. Senator Camden, Democrat.

North Carolina: The state and judicial ticket of the Republican-Democratic fusion was elected. The Democrats lost control of the Legislature. The Republicans and Populists having elected Fusion candidates in many counties will have a majority on joint ballot in the Legislature and elect two United States senators to succeed Ransom, Democrat, and Jarvis, Democrat, who was appointed to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Vance, Democrat.

South Carolina: The entire Democratic state ticket, headed by John Gary Evans, the candidate for governor, was elected by an overwhelming plurality. Evans' majority over Pope, the Independent candidate for governor, was about 20,000. He is the author of the "State Dispensary Law" and one of the youngest men ever elected governor of an American state, being but thirty years old. A constitutional convention was decided upon by a small majority. The Legislature, which is largely Democratic, will elect a United States senator to succeed Senator Butler, Democrat.

Texas: The Democratic state ticket, headed by Charles A. Culbertson, the candidate for governor, was elected. The Populists polled a heavy vote throughout the state.

Tennessee: The Republican candidate for governor, H. Clay Evans, was elected by a small plurality. This is the first time Tennessee has elected a Republican governor since the days of the reconstruction. The next state Legislature will be Democratic and will elect a United States senator to succeed Senator Harris, Democrat.

Missouri: The Republican candidates for minor state offices, including a judge of the Supreme Court, were elected by small pluralities. In 1892 a complete state ticket was elected and the Democratic candidate for governor, whose term does not expire until 1897, was given a plurality of 29,663.

The Republicans will have a majority in the state Legislature.

Indiana: The election was for minor state offices and members of the Legislature. The Republican state ticket was elected by a plurality of about 40,000, and the Republicans will have a majority in both branches of the next Legislature.

Illinois: The election was for minor state offices and members of the Legislature. The entire Republican state ticket was elected. The Republicans will have a majority in both branches of the Legislature, which will elect a successor to U. S. Senator Collum, Republican.

Iowa: The Republican ticket for minor state offices was elected by 70,000 plurality, which is said to be one of the largest pluralities ever given in the state.

Wisconsin: The Republican candidate for governor, Major J. G. Cleghorn, and the whole Republican state ticket was elected. The present governor is a Democrat. The state Legislature will be strongly Republican.

Minnesota: The Republican nominee for governor, Kuete Nelson, the present incumbent, and the remainder of the Republican state ticket were elected by pluralities of about 50,000. The Legislature will be largely Republican and will elect a successor to United States Senator William D. Washburn, Republican.

Kansas: The Republican candidate for governor, E. N. Morrill, was elected, receiving a plurality of about 10,000 over Governor L. D. Lewelling, Populist, who was a candidate for re-election. The balance of the Republican state ticket was also elected. In 1892 Lewelling's plurality over all candidates was 5,432. The Republicans will have a majority in the state Legislature, which will elect a United States senator to succeed Senator Martin, Democrat. The equal suffrage amendment to the constitution was defeated.

Nebraska: The Republican state ticket was elected with the exception of the candidate for governor, who was defeated by the Populist-Democratic fusion nominee, Silas A. Holcomb, who has always been a Democrat. The Republicans will have a majority in the next Legislature, which will elect a U. S. senator to succeed Senator Mandersohn, Republican.

South Dakota: The Republican state ticket, including Governor C. H. Sheldon, who was a candidate for re-election, was elected and the Republicans will have about a two thirds majority in the Legislature which is to elect a successor to U. S. Senator Pettigrew, Republican.

North Dakota: The Republican state ticket, including the candidate for governor, Roger Allin, was elected by a plurality in excess of 10,000. The present Populist governor and other state officers

were elected in 1892 on a Populist-Democratic fusion ticket. The Republicans will have a majority in the next state Legislature.

Colorado: The Populist governor, D. H. Waite, elected in 1892 by a plurality of 6,816, was defeated for re-election by the Republican candidate, Albert W. McIntire, by about 20,000 votes. The balance of the Republican state ticket was elected including the candidate for superintendent of public instruction, the candidates for this office on both tickets being women. The Republicans have a majority of 17 on joint ballot in the next Legislature and will elect a successor to U. S. Senator Wolcott, Republican. It was the first election in Colorado in which women exercised the right of equal suffrage. About 75,000 women voted in the state and in the city of Denver their vote amounted to 55 per cent of the total vote cast. Mrs. Angenette J. Peavey is the successful candidate for superintendent of public instruction, and three women, Mrs. Clara Cressingham, Mrs. Frances Klock, and Mrs. Carrie Clyde Holly, all Republicans, were elected members of the state Legislature. The activity of the women of all parties was one of the notable features of both the campaign and election.

Montana: The election was for minor state officers, members of the Legislature, and the location of the state capital, the competing places being Anaconda and Helena. The Republicans elected their state ticket and will have a majority on joint ballot in the Legislature, which will elect two United States senators. Helena is elected to be the state capital.

Wyoming: William A. Richards, the Republican candidate for governor and the balance of the Republican state ticket, was elected by about 1,500 plurality. The present governor, John E. Osborn, was elected on a Democratic and Populist fusion ticket in 1892 by a plurality of 1,691. The Republicans will have a majority in the next Legislature, which will elect two U. S. senators.

Idaho: The entire Republican state ticket headed by W. J. McConnell, the present governor, was elected by increased pluralities over the state election of 1892. The Legislature will have a Republican majority in both houses and elect a U. S. senator to succeed Senator Shoup, Republican.

California: The entire Republican state ticket was elected with the exception of M. M. Estee, the candidate for governor, who was defeated by James H. Budd, the Democratic candidate, by a small plurality. The Republicans will have a majority in the Legislature, which will elect a successor to U. S. Senator Perkins, Republican. The election of a Democratic governor, is a loss for the Republicans, the present governor H. H. Markham, being a Republican, whose plurality in 1890 was 7,945 over the Democratic candidate.

Washington: The election was for two judges of the Supreme Court and members of the Legislature. The Republican state ticket was elected and the Republicans will have a majority in the Legislature, which will elect a United States senator.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

The defeat in New York was not the defeat of Hill personally. It was the defeat of the Democratic party; and in its magnitude it was not proportionately greater than in other states. It was a tidal wave against the Democracy, swelled by indignation caused by the betrayal of the party under the leadership of Cleveland.

Dearer than ever is David B. Hill to the unterrified, weariless, indomitable Democracy of New York. He has made the greatest political fight witnessed in this land since Andrew Jackson encountered and defeated the United States Bank and the money power more than half a century ago. He has made it disinterestedly, heroically, uncompromisingly. He has proved himself the bravest, ablest, and steadiest champion of Democratic ideas and policies. He has established himself as the true chief of the National Democratic party.

(*Rep.*) *Pittsburg Commercial Gazette.* (*Pa.*)

This is the elimination of David B. Hill from state and national politics. The same castigation should be administered to similar offenders in both parties. The people of this country when aroused sweep with the mighty besom of the ballot such men off the face of the political earth. His career was that of an indefatigable organizer, but seeking only for such principles to avow and espouse as the passing fantasies of the people seemed to favor, and departing from stubborn adherence to principles that abide forever, uncrushable by temporary defeats.

(*Dem.*) *Philadelphia Record.* (*Pa.*)

To some extent Democratic disasters are the direct outcome of Democratic dissensions and mistakes. President Cleveland has developed a wonderful incapacity for successful leadership, and he has not lacked able assistance in the Senate and House. The disastrous overturn in New York state is a result of blundering at Washington and plundering in New York City. No party and no leadership could stand up under such a double load.

(*Pro.*) *The Voice.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

The returns of the Prohibition vote indicate good gains in most of the western and southern states, but a falling off in New York and New England. . . . The moral of the whole affair is this: Whichever old party the country has in power, it wishes it had the other.

(*Rep.*) *Chicago Tribune.* (*Ill.*)

The American manufacturers and merchants and business men generally will draw a long breath of

relief. They are safe from molestation during the next Congress. They can go on with their business without fear of destructive tariff changes in the near future. They will feel that they do not have to wade through two more years of strikes and every other form of industrial discontent. And seeing that the workingmen are alive to their real interests this year the business men have reason to hope that those workingmen will show equal good sense two years hence.

(*Dem.*) *Baltimore Sun.* (*Rep.*)

The disaster that overtook the Democratic party yesterday was not unexpected. In its general aspects it was the logical result of the infidelity of the Democratic Senate to the solemn pledges of the party. The people in a case like this cannot or will not discriminate between the innocent and the guilty. They judge a party by its record and do not accept any plea of good intentions. Moreover, though the mills of the gods grind slowly, the mills of popular wrath and indignation grind exceedingly fast. The people strike hard and quickly when they are aroused, and nothing so strongly moves them as a palpable evasion or defiance of their will.

(*Dem.*) *The Commercial-Appeal.* (*Memphis, Tenn.*)

Unquestionably the Democratic party has failed, in important particulars, to meet the wishes of the people. But the people have not gone to the Republican party to get what the Democratic party has failed to give. They have not changed in their feelings or their opinions since 1892. The Democratic party is the victim of the savage spirit of the unrest of which Populism, Coxeyism and Debsism are symptoms. The blind anger of a people, restless under wrong, has simply struck at the party in power.

(*Ind.*) *Indianapolis News.* (*Ind.*)

Altgeld will soon be the only one of the crank governors left in power. Penoyer, of Oregon, was defeated some months ago. Waite, of Colorado, and Lewelling, of Kansas, will be succeeded presently by Republicans. Hogg, of Texas, will give way to Culberson, and Tillman, of South Carolina, will doubtless go to the Senate. It will be a long time, we hope, before another such a collection of curio governors is seen.

(*Rep.*) *Denver Republican.* (*Col.*)

In Colorado equal suffrage has been justified by the way in which the women voted. This is shown both by the fact that they all voted and that a great majority of them cast their ballots against Waiteism and in favor of good government. The men of Colorado are proud of the way the women of the state joined in saving it from Populist misrule. The women of this state have given the most convincing evidence of the wisdom of equal suffrage, and they have strengthened that cause in every state in the Union.

(Pop.) *Rocky Mountain News.* (Denver, Col.)

The election in Colorado was measurably a fair one barring the indefensible efforts made before election by many employers to force those they employed to support the Republican ticket. What are the causes of the defeat? The Republicans were organized and aroused and supplied with money, as they have never been before. In Denver their course amounted to a crusade ostensibly in defense of home and business. Another element in the contest was no less effective. Never before in Colorado have the large employers of labor shown themselves so united and determined to defeat the ticket of any party. They claimed that the overthrow of the Populists was a prime necessity for the maintenance of fair control over their own affairs and business. The newly enfranchised women voters could not escape the contagion of the feverish fear entertained by their fathers, husbands and brothers. They made able lieutenants, indeed, and led in the work of organization and inspiration. Unquestionably the A. P. A.'s were a potent factor. Every lodge room became a Republican headquarters, every member a committeeman. The Populist party, if it but heeds the lesson of defeat, will suffer nothing by it; on the contrary, learning wisdom from its mistakes, it will avoid them in the future, and go before the people with truly representative candidates and fight the battle for the wise and patriotic principles upon which the party is founded.

(Rep.) *Kansas City Journal.* (Mo.)

The overturn in Missouri and in Kansas in the election of Tuesday brings the two states into political sympathy for the first time in twenty-four years. It will do both a great good, and we hope that in both the memories of other years will only heighten by contrast the benefits of the new peace that has come to each.

(Dem.) *Boston Post.* (Mass.)

For the first time in more than twenty years, there were no federal supervisors or United States marshals at the polls anywhere in this broad land when members of Congress were elected last week. The fact that this election was absolutely free from control and interference except by that of local authority is gradually coming to be understood. Nobody thought of it at the time. Nobody saw any neglect of protection for the voters or of connivance with fraud. It was a free election. This was the result of the repeal of the federal election laws by the Democratic Congress. It is a ludicrous commentary upon the forecasts of those who opposed the repeal, that the first election in which the federal power was forbidden to meddle should be that in which the party upholding federal interference won its astounding victory.

(Ind.) *New York Herald.* (N. Y.)

The Republicans will make a grave mistake if they assume that the vote was a vindication of protection and a mandate for its restoration. McKinleyism was stamped with sweeping condemnation by the people two years ago and they have not changed their opinion of it since. What they condemned on Tuesday was the inexcusable delay of the Democrats to fevise the tariff and their failure to pass a satisfactory law in the end.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

The overthrow of the free-trade Democracy may have to be followed by a struggle, and if so by a victory, in the presidential election of 1896, before the evil work of the last year can be undone. But it brings at least this glad assurance, that the further progress toward free trade which the party has promised will not be made. One test of a Democratic tariff has been enough, and the people have made it clear that they will have no more.

THE DOWNFALL OF TAMMANY IN NEW YORK CITY.

THE election of municipal officers in New York City which took place November 6 was an event of the first importance in the history of municipal government in the United States. The municipal reform movement inaugurated by the Rev. Dr. C. H. Parkhurst and supplemented by the investigation carried on by the Lexow committee had for its logical outcome the nomination of a city ticket opposed to that of the Democratic city organization, Tammany Hall. The anti-Tammany ticket was endorsed and supported by the Republicans, a number of anti-Tammany Democratic societies, the Good Government Clubs, the German-American Reform Union, and the Committee of Seventy, a non-partisan organization formed for the purpose of defeating the Tammany candidates. The anti-Tammany ticket was headed by Col. Wm. L. Strong, a prominent business man and a Republican, for mayor; and John W. Goff, chief counsel of the Lexow committee and a Democrat, for recorder. Ex-Mayor Hugh J. Grant led the Tammany ticket as its candidate for mayor, and Frederick Smyth was the nominee for recorder, of which office he is the present incumbent. The two candidates for president of the Board of Aldermen were Jeroloman, an anti-Tammany Democrat, and Peters, Tammany. Thirty candidates were supported also by each of the contending parties for aldermen. The result of the election was a complete victory for the anti-Tammany ticket, its candidates being elected by the following pluralities: Strong, mayor, 43,624; Goff, recorder, 53,080; Jeroloman, president Board of Aldermen, 39,690. The extent of this defeat for

Tammany is evidenced by a comparison with the vote of 1892 when Gilroy the present (Tammany) mayor of New York was elected by a plurality of 75,587. Of the thirty members of the Board of Aldermen elected, thirteen are Tammany Democrats and seventeen are Republicans elected on the anti-Tammany ticket. Thus the Republicans will have a majority in the Board of Aldermen for the first time since 1871. The present board is entirely Democratic.

THE GREATER NEW YORK AND RAPID TRANSIT.

OTHER features of the election in New York City, but not directly Tammany or anti-Tammany issues, were the questions of the Greater New York and Rapid Transit. The proposition to extend the limits of the city of New York to include Brooklyn and much other adjacent territory was favorably voted upon, the combined returns from the territory interested giving a substantial majority for the Greater New York. The vote of the people on this question was mainly advisory and the matter has now to be taken up by the state Legislature for further action. The proposed greater New York covers an area of 317.77 square miles, while the present New York has only 38.85 square miles. New York is now the third largest city in the world but the Greater New York would have a population of more than 3,000,000, making it second only to London, the largest city in the world. By a vote of 105,221 to 36,431 the people of New York also declared in favor of the municipal construction of a Rapid Transit system. This action empowers the Rapid Transit Commission of the city to enter into a contract for the construction of an underground railroad. It is clothed also with the power to incur a debt of \$50,000,000 in the pursuit of its work and as much more as may from time to time be authorized by the Legislature of the state. The person (or corporation) who secures the contract for the construction of the road must also contract to operate it for a period of from thirty-five to fifty years. The indebtedness incurred by the city for construction will be met by the issue of bonds. The builders and operators of the road must pay for their privilege an annual rental sufficient to defray the interest on this bond issue with one per cent additional which will form a sinking fund for the redemption of the bonds at maturity. The rate of fare, the law provides, is to be fixed by the Board of Commissioners.

(*Ind.*) *New York Herald.* (N. Y.)

The system of public plunder and private persecution that has come to be known as Tammanyism has been emphatically condemned. The center of activity now shifts from the mass of the citizens of New York to the executive officials to whom, by their votes last Tuesday, they have intrusted the government of the city. The people have done their part. It is now their turn to point to the evil of Tammanyism and say to the newly-elected officers, "What are you going to do about it?"

(*Rep.*) *The Morning Advertiser.* (New York, N. Y.)

Dr. Parkhurst proved to be the John the Baptist of the Lexow committee and the political revolution that has followed its revelations. To this brave man more than to any other citizen, we owe the overthrow of the infamous Tammany ring.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

We have just closed a campaign in which many of the clergy and great numbers of good people, men and women, have been engaged because of the horror excited in them by the exposure of the practical working of this widespread system. Now that that particular campaign is over, why should not these moral reformers proceed with their movement? They have not reached the seat of the disease, but have only dealt with some of the symptoms. That seat is not in Tammany Hall, but in the low moral tone of the society where many conspicuous church members and men looked up to as examples for truth and righteousness, have not hesitated to pay bribes, and to make themselves confederates of the

police in spreading such corruption and social demoralization. Let the ministers preach sermons on the text of the mote and the beam as appropriate to the immediate situation.

(*Socialist.*) *Volks Zeitung.* (New York, N. Y.)

The city of New York is freed from the Tammany corruptionists, for the Capitalistic-Republican Boodler Strong has been elected, and with him the rest of the office-hungry rabble of pseudo-reformers. The people have thrown out the Democratic robbers and swindlers to put Republican ones in their places.

(*Dem.*) *The Mercury.* (New York, N. Y.)

The fact is that it was not so much Tammany that beat the Democratic ticket in this city as it was malicious lying about Tammany. The Tammany Society is nearly as old as the Republic, about as old as the Society of the Cincinnati. We rather think it will live for some time yet.

(*Rep.*) *New York Press.* (N. Y.)

The people have given by an emphatic majority their opinion of Sheehan and his Tammany associates. These have not the slightest claim upon official toleration or popular sympathy, and should be held to the strictest account for any unlawful act.

(*Dem.*) *New York World.* (N. Y.)

To Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst more than to any other man belongs the credit of the defeat of the Tammany ring and the promise of purification of the city government. Tammany undertook to prove that New York is only fit for its corruption. It has failed. New York is redeemed from the thralldom of crime and the rule of criminals.

FIRST TRIAL OF UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE IN BELGIUM.

THE first trial of universal suffrage in Belgium took place at the elections held Sunday, October 14. Prior to the revision of the constitution providing for universal suffrage the electorate was limited to about 130,000. At the recent election under the revised constitution the number of qualified voters was increased to 1,370,000, and an additional provision for plural voting made the total possible vote in the neighborhood of 2,000,000. The enactment of this constitutional provision came about through the demands of the advanced Liberals and Socialists to which the Clerical or Catholic party assented. The distribution of seats in the new Chamber of Deputies according to the result of the election as given in the press dispatches from Brussels is 104 Catholics, 29 Socialists, and 19 Liberals.

The Nation. (New York, N. Y.)

This was the election for the lower house. The Senate is elected by the same electors if over thirty years of age. The one-voters are men over twenty-five, who have lived a year in the district. The two-voters are married men and widowers paying a small tax. The three-voters are the educated class, including the priests. Voting is compulsory. The result is extremely interesting, because this is the first time that it has been possible to ascertain, with any degree of accuracy, the manner in which the Belgian population is divided among the various political parties. The three great divisions are the Liberals, the Socialists, and the Clericals or Catholics. The three-voters, who are mainly clerical, are more numerous in the country districts. The one-voters are more numerous in the towns, a circumstance which keeps up the

power of the country as against the town.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Plural voting is a novelty. In Belgium alone it is deliberately sanctioned and applied on a great scale; it is, of course, practiced in Great Britain, but only in a small way, and it is there regarded by all parties as an anomaly that requires correction. From an historical point of view, it cannot even be said that compulsory voting is altogether new, seeing that in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries certain English boroughs, having sought to avoid the cost and trouble of returning members to Parliament, were compelled by the royal authority to exercise their unwelcome powers. There is no doubt, however, that the provision of the Belgian Constitution making voting compulsory represents a noteworthy change in the view taken of the suffrage during the present century.

INVESTIGATION OF THE LEXOW COMMITTEE IN NEW YORK.

THE Lexow committee, representing the Senate of the state of New York, closed temporarily its investigation of the New York Police Department Nov. 5. Its sessions will be resumed about December 1. At no time during the sittings of the committee since the beginning of the undertaking last spring has the testimony called forth been more appalling or disheartening to citizens who believe in honest government than during the few weeks prior to the adjournment. The two most important witnesses examined by the committee during this period were Police Commissioner John C. Sheehan of the city of New York and one Mrs. Herreman. The comments of the press appended deal chiefly with the testimony of these witnesses.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

Nothing that Mr. Goff has hitherto provided for the entertainment of the public has equaled the story told, or half told, by the women Herreman. It had all the marks of truth, was coherent, probable, and capable of corroboration.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Sheehan came to this city several years ago under the cloud of charges affecting his personal honesty. He has become rich. The strokes of honest labor by which this man increased his wealth could very likely be counted on the fingers of one hand. Coming here as a discovered defaulter, and amassing wealth as he has from official positions which could not in any legitimate way have yielded it, it was the most natural and logical thing in the course of such an investigation of municipal corruption as the one now in progress that he should be called upon to produce his books and disclose the sources of his wealth. This he has refused to do.

Refused not with the manner of an innocent man or any pretense of explanation; but with the swagger of a blackguard who feels secure and can laugh at law and justice.

(Evan.) The Outlook. (New York, N. Y.)

The last week's testimony before the Lexow committee added appreciably to the amazing mass of proof as to the corruption in every branch of the Police Department. Commissioner Sheehan declined absolutely to show the committee his bank books, returned evasive answers to many questions, grossly insulted the committee's counsel from time to time, made nothing like a sound defense against the charge that he left Buffalo as a defaulter, and in short, left a wretched impression of his character both as an official and as a man. The woman whom the agents of accused police captains tried to detain in Jersey City was brought to New York and put upon the stand. In part her testimony was like much that had already been heard from keepers of

infamous resorts who have paid blackmail to the police. But it was startling in that Mrs. Herreman testified that she had paid in all from \$25,000 to \$30,000 to the police for "protection" and to free herself from arrest and prosecution. Nothing more atrocious has been told to the committee than this woman's story of the systematic thwarting by the

police of her attempts to keep her own niece from entering into an evil life. . . .

The horrible charge was made, and (in part at least) sustained by the evidence of checks, that the police have systematically blackmailed and "protected" professional abortionists. Is there any possible lower depth than this?

WITHOUT A PASTOR AND WITHOUT A CHURCH.

THE REV. DR. T. DE WITT TALMAGE resigned the pastorate of the Brooklyn Tabernacle, Brooklyn, N. Y., on November 7. Three great church buildings erected by Dr. Talmage's congregation during his pastorate were destroyed by fire, the last one a short time ago, and the announcement is made that the Board of Trustees have decided not to build a new church. Dr. Talmage's congregation is therefore without a pastor and without a church.

Dr. Talmage's Resignation.

To the Session of the Brooklyn Tabernacle:

DEAR BRETHREN: I hereby ask you to join with me in a request to the Brooklyn Presbytery that they dissolve the pastoral relation now existing. The congregation of the Brooklyn Tabernacle have built during my pastorate three great churches, which have been destroyed. It is not right that I should call upon them to build a fourth during my ministry.

I advise that you do one of two things—either call a new pastor, under whose leadership a new church might be built, or that you remain in organization until you can give certificates of membership to our people so that they may, in usual form, join sister churches.

As for myself, I will, as Providence may direct, either take another pastorate or go into general evangelistic work, preaching the Gospel without money and without price.

Thanking you for your ever-increasing kindness to me and mine, and hoping to be associated with

you in the heavenly world, together with the multitudes with whom we have worshipped during the last twenty-five years, I am yours in the Gospel,

T. DE WITT TALMAGE.

The Resignation Accepted.

To the Brooklyn Presbytery:

DEAR BRETHREN: At the request of our pastor we hereby ask you to dissolve the pastoral relation now existing between the Rev. T. De Witt Talmage, D. D., and the Brooklyn Tabernacle. Commissioners fully authorized will represent us at your next meeting. It is with unfeigned sorrow that we comply with our pastor's request, recognizing Dr. Talmage's faithfulness in preaching an unmixed Gospel, pure evangelism, repentance for sin, and faith in our Lord Jesus Christ, the trumpet giving no uncertain sound. Expending nothing on the mere technicalities of religion, he had given his energies to the preaching of the broad mercy and practical comfort of the Gospel. Very respectfully,

EDWARD H. BRANCH,

Moderator of Sessions.

GENERAL BOOTH IN THE UNITED STATES

GENERAL WILLIAM BOOTH, of London, England, commander of the Salvation Army, whose visit to the United States was noted in these columns last month, began a tour of American cities in October which will take him to all the important centers of the Army's work in this country. In New York he received a hearty welcome, large audiences representative in character greeted him, men prominent in the affairs of church and state made public speeches in honor of his visit and spoke with one accord in high praise of the work of the Army, and an address was read to General Booth representing, it is said, four fifths of the Protestant clergymen of the city. Both in New York, Pittsburg, and the other cities already visited, the treatment of the founder of the Salvation Army has been most cordial, a fact which is to be taken as an indication of the appreciation which Americans have for his labors and the work of the organization of which he is the head.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

General Booth's plan of moral regeneration is to make better the mass of society by making better the individuals composing it. The Salvation Army is following the old-fashioned Christian theory that the wickedness of society can be prevented only by turning the hearts of men from evil to good; and whatever may be the occasion for criticism of the peculiar methods used by General Booth's follow-

ers in their pursuit of that purpose, it cannot be denied that they stick to it with firm and unswerving faith.

Chicago Inter-Ocean. (Ill.)

The visit of General William Booth to this country is an event of greater interest to more people than would be the visit of any other religious leader in Europe. General Booth is the founder and the head of the Salvation Army, which was at first re-

garded by many people as a travesty on religious organization, but he has lived to see it one of the greatest powers for Christian work in Europe and America, with its influence rapidly extending to all parts of the world.

It has even become the model in many things for Christian work by other agencies, and is to-day recognized as the work best calculated to re-

deem the plague spots of all great cities where churches were unable to live or be of service to the cause of either religion or humanity. General Booth is now on a sort of general tour of inspection, and as he goes from one country to another to inspect the grand divisions of his army he is in all probability looked to as leader by more people than look to any other one man living.

THE BUSINESS OUTLOOK.

ONE effect of the recent election has been to relieve the discussion and estimate of the business situation of its intense partisan character and there is manifested a general disposition, prompted by the highest patriotism, to urge on the improvement, however slight, which has gradually taken place in the natural course of trade. Business failures during the month of October were less frequent and much smaller than during the same month of last year, which is in itself a favorable indication. Trade continues on the same conservative lines which have marked its course within the last few months, and while there appears to be no widespread business revival it is quite generally conceded that the conditions and outlook are better than during the corresponding period in 1893 although not up to the normal level of 1892.

Chicago Evening Post. (Ill.)

The country has an assurance of at least two years of freedom from injuriously disturbing congressional legislation—that is to say, legislation that will stick. To that extent therefore the business interests of the country can plan with confidence on a season of smooth sailing. Nothing can occur likely to unsettle financial, commercial or industrial affairs. The times should therefore continue to mend rapidly. Increasing industrial activity is probable. That was a certainty, regardless of the result of the election. The prospect of a season of quiet is encouraging capital to reach out with greater confidence. The wholesale and retail trade in the cities and towns is assuming satisfactory volume and advices from the interior reflect comfortable prosperity among the farming classes.

Kansas City Times. (Mo.)

As a matter of fact prosperity is returning, not with the velocity of a cyclone, but in safe and regular strides which manifestly means that it will get here and stay. There are various reasons for this, and they are clear and unmistakable. But the most potent and powerful of them all is that the new tariff law saves to the people of the country the enormous sum of \$200,000,000 a week, which is more than the total amount of the liabilities involved in the 358 business failures that occurred during the first week of November last year and the 261 which occurred during the week that ended November 8, this year.

American Wool and Cotton Reporter. (Boston, Mass.)

The sweeping result of Tuesday's elections does away with all fears of further reduction of the tariff, and will give to the business of the country a degree of stability which has been lacking. The trouble with many of the public men of both parties appears to be that their tariff views are so extreme that when once in control of the government, they

go further in the way of legislation in one direction or another than the people expected. With the control of the government now divided between the two parties until March 4, 1897, the business interests will be let alone until they can determine how far they may be able to adjust themselves to present conditions. The worst feature of the situation at the present time is the condition of the United States treasury, and the obstacles which exist to the maintenance of a sufficient gold reserve.

American Grocer. (New York, N. Y.)

As compared with last year's bad record, business shows a slight improvement, but when we go back to the prosperous period of 1892, it is nearly 25 per cent behind that time. It is not by examining market statistics, but rather through contact with manufacturers and jobbers, that we arrive at the conclusion that business is steadily but slowly increasing. There are gains all along through the list of manufacturers. Prices of great staples continue phenomenally low, the effect of which is to stimulate a search for methods of reducing the cost of production, both on the farm and in the factory. Reports from other cities are that business is steady in volume, except at Omaha, where larger sales are reported than for any month this year. St. Louis reports that grocery jobbers are pushed to fill orders. These are the exceptions to the general tenor of advices from other points.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

There is no doubt about the improvement of the business situation. The banks are letting out money more freely, the markets are stronger and there is a better confidence all along the line. Investments are increasing, and the inflow of foreign capital has begun. Politics have had their season, and now trade is dominating the thoughts of men. Let the good times come! Encourage them! Hasten them!

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

October 10. The American Association of Bankers meets in Baltimore.—The Annual Conference of the Catholic Archbishops of the United States meets in Philadelphia, Cardinal Gibbons presiding.

October 11. The ninth Annual Conference of the Brotherhood of St. Andrew opens at Washington, D. C., with 1,200 delegates present; Louisville, Ky., selected as the place for the next annual meeting.

October 12. In the test case brought by the Louisiana Sugar Planters Judge McComas of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia refuses to grant a mandamus authorizing the secretary of the treasury to pay the bounty for the sugar crop of 1894 as provided for by the McKinley tariff law.

October 17. The trial trip of the battle ship *Maine* is pronounced a success.

October 23. The Convention of the American Missionary Association opens at Lowell, Mass.—The General Conference of the Universalist Church opens at Baltimore, Md.

October 24. The National Switchmen's Union of North America is organized at Kansas City, Mo., to take the place of the Switchmen's Mutual Aid Society, which became disorganized during the recent railroad strikes in the West.

October 25. Great property interests sacrificed and a few lives lost by prairie fires which sweep over large portions of northwestern Nebraska.

October 26. First notice of the intention of Germany to prohibit the importation of cattle and fresh beef from the United States is given to Secretary Gresham by the German ambassador at Washington.

November 3. President Cleveland signs an order extending the classified system in the Civil Service.

November 7. The 75th Annual Conference of the Missionaries of the M. E. Church opens in Brooklyn, N. Y.

FOREIGN.

October 11. The Japanese capture Wi-Ju. China orders arms from German manufacturers.

October 14. Germany rejects England's proposal to join the Powers in intervention in the Chino-Japanese war.

October 15. The Legislative Assembly of New South Wales passes a resolution favoring the extension of franchise to women, the vote standing 58 to 13.

October 18. The Chinese fortify Wei-Hai-Wai.—The Berlin Municipal Council rejects a socialist proposal to establish an eight-hour working day for all workingmen employed by the council by a vote of 94 to 18.

October 19. The Japanese Parliament convenes

in special session and is opened by the emperor. Bills for increasing the army and navy are introduced.

October 22. All the socialist workingmen's societies in Italy are dissolved by a government decree.

October 23. The special session of the Japanese Parliament is closed. It is declared that no interference in the war will be tolerated by Japan.

October 25. About 300 persons are killed and 3,000 houses destroyed by earthquakes in Japan.—In Germany Imperial Chancellor von Caprivi resigns his office and Count Zu Eulenberg resigns as president of the Prussian Council.

October 27. Prince von Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst is appointed imperial chancellor of Germany and president of the Prussian Council, to succeed Caprivi and Zu Eulenberg, the two offices being consolidated.—A decree is promulgated in Hamburg prohibiting the importation of live cattle and fresh meat from the United States.

October 29. Prohibition against the landing of American cattle and dressed meat is extended to every port in Germany.

October 31. The Chinese emperor summons his viceroys to Peking to discuss the war with Japan.

November 4. The Japanese win several victories taking Andong and Fong-Wong; the Chinese retreat without fighting.

November 7. Germany agrees to refer the prohibition against the importation of American cattle to the opinion of experts.

November 9. The Japanese attack Port Arthur by sea and land, the Chinese fleet being confined to the harbor.

November 10. Diplomatic relations are suspended between France and Madagascar.

NECROLOGY.

October 13. Charles F. E. Mingriood, a Virginia clergyman, famous as a counselor of Jefferson Davis and General Lee during the war.

October 18. Sir Alfred Stephen, for thirty years chief justice of New South Wales. Born 1822.

October 19. Samuel Booth, ex-mayor and postmaster of Brooklyn, N. Y. Born 1818.—James Darmestetter, a well-known Orientalist, professor of the Persian language and literature in the College de France, Paris. Born 1849.

October 21. John D. Beedle, ex-governor of New Jersey. Born 1831.

October 30. Honore Mercier, ex-premier of the Province of Quebec. Born 1840.

October 31. Charles T. Cowden, one of the cavalrymen who captured Jefferson Davis in 1865.

November 6. Philip Gilbert Hamerton, the eminent English poet, author, and artist. Born 1834.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR DECEMBER.

First week (ending December 8).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VI. from page 123 to page 130.
- "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XXI. and XXII.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Painter's Art in England."
- "Social Life in England in the Nineteenth Century."

Second week (ending December 15).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VI. concluded.
- "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XXIII., XXIV., and XXV.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The French Chambers."
- "The Question of Madagascar."

Third week (ending December 22).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VII. to page 156.
- "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XXVI., XXVII., and XXVIII. to page 315.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The World's Debt to Astronomy."
- "Some Contemporary English Novelists."

Fourth week (ending December 29).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VII. concluded.
- "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters XXVIII. concluded, XXIX., and XXX.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "Great Canals."
- "A Visit to Prince Bismarck."
- "A Christmas Meditation."

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Paper—Brief sketches of some of the prominent Irish patriots.
2. Table Talk—A study of English art. Make a collection of English pictures to add to those given in the present magazine; note the distinguishing characteristics of each artist, and express opinion regarding the works. It will not be difficult to find the pictures; a search through magazines will reveal many fine reproductions; and many late books contain pictures by these artists—"Trilby" for instance is illustrated by its author Mr. Du Maurier. In THE CHAUTAUQUAN for July, 1892, there are several pictures by Burne-Jones, and in August of the same year there is one by William Hamiliton, "Rosalind and Orlando."

3. General discussion—Has England necessarily entered upon a period in which her trade and commerce must decrease and she must experience national decadence? (See statement made near close of the article on "Social Life in England in the Nineteenth Century" in this impression of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.)
4. Character study—Alexander III. of Russia.*
5. Table Talk—The relation of Russia to the other great nations of the world during the reign of the late czar, and the points in which that relation is likely to be changed under the new czar.

WICLIF DAY—DECEMBER 10.

"If we want truth every man ought to be free to say what he thinks without fear."—*Erasmus*.

1. Paper—The relation between England and the church of Rome in Wiclif's time.
2. A study—In what did Wiclif's heresy consist?
3. Table Talk—Wiclif's method of disseminating his doctrines. Other religious leaders and sects that have followed a similar plan.
4. Paper—Some famous followers of Wiclif, notably John Huss and Jerome of Prague.
5. A story retold or abridged—"A Story of the Lollards," written by the author of the "Schönberg-Cotta Family," and forming the last one of the sketches given in the volume "The Early Dawn."

THIRD WEEK.

1. Readings from Shakespeare. The conversations between King Henry IV. and Prince Henry, afterward Henry V. See I. Henry IV., Act. III., Scene II., Act V., Scene IV., and II. Henry IV., Act IV., Scene IV., beginning with King Henry's request, "I pray you take me up, and bear me hence into some other chamber." The wooing scene between Henry V. and Katharine, in Henry V., Act V., Scene II.
2. Two papers—Shakespeare's representation of Joan of Arc, in I. Henry VI., and of Jack Cade in II. Henry VI., beginning with Act IV., Scene II.
3. A map study of the Slavic countries.
4. Table Talk—Favorite English novelist, and why.
5. General discussion—Events leading up to the revolution in New York politics.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Character study—Richard III. as presented by Shakespeare in III. King Henry VI. and Rich-

* See *Current History and Opinion* in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, also the text-book, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century."

† See *Current History and Opinion*.

ard III. Several selections may be chosen for reading in character.

2. A reading—Washington Irving's "Mahomet," Chapter XXIV.
3. Table Talk—Great canals,—those already finished, those in process of construction, those abandoned, either temporarily or permanently, and those proposed. Make a map study of all and show the peculiar benefit to be derived from each.
4. *Questions and Answers*, or questions from *The Question Table* in the current number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
5. General discussion—Review the recent general elections and compare with those held in 1892.*

CHRISTMAS.

"Any man or woman . . . that can give any knowledge, or tell any tidings of an old, old, very old gray-bearded gentleman, called Christmas, who was wont to be a verie familiar ghest, and visite all sorts of people both pore and rich, and used to appeare in glittering gold, silk, and silver in the Court, and in all shapen in the theater in Whitehall, and had ringing feasts and jollitie in all places both in the cite and countrie, for his coming: whosoever can tel what is become of him or where he may be found, let them bring him back again to England."—*An Hue and Cry after Christmas*.

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

Circles wishing to commemorate Christmas will find a good suggestion for an entertainment in the preceding quotation. Let each one come as if in response to the call made, to tell something concerning the festal day. Its observance in "Old England," from the earliest times on down, its cheer, the charities connected with it, the music and musicians (waits), the feasting, games, the Abbots of Unreason or Lords of Misrule, etc., will form good topics. The leader of the circle might call the quotation after the manner of a town crier and those who are to take part rise as volunteers to give their part of the information; or the leader might call on various ones personally, asking if they could not give some account of the missing character. Fictitious names could be assumed by those thus called on. Christmas stories read or retold (care being taken in not making them too long), Christmas poems recited, traditions, family narratives, or personal experiences could all be made appropriate and timely. A Christmas banquet served as far as possible in the old English style would be a fine accompaniment to the festivities.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR DECEMBER.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

P. 123. "Pō-lēm'ic." A Greek derivative from the word for war. Controversy; the art or practice of disputation; especially that "branch of theology which is concerned with the history or conduct of ecclesiastical controversy."

"Hu'man-ism." A system of thought in which human interests prevail; literary culture. Specifically it was applied in the Middle Ages to the intelligent and appreciative study of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew.

P. 126. "Absolution." Remission of sin. "It is not a mere announcement of the Gospel, or a bare declaration that God will pardon the sins of those who repent, but, as the Council of Trent defines it, is a judicial act by which a priest as judge passes a sentence on the penitent."

P. 127. "Connoisseur" [kōn-nis-sūr]. A French word now become English, meaning a critical judge of any of the arts, especially of music, painting, or sculpture.

P. 129. "Palmer." Latin *palma*, a palm branch. The name given to a pilgrim who had returned from the Holy Land whither he had gone in fulfillment of a vow, and had brought back with him as evidence a palm branch which he deposited on the altar of his parish church; then it came to be applied to an itinerant monk who went from shrine to shrine, under a perpetual vow of poverty.

P. 130. "Ver-na-c'u-lar." A similar Latin word means born in one's house, native; and this was derived from *verna*, the name of a slave born in his master's house. Hence the word means belonging to one's own country; native; used especially of language.

"Al-lit'er-a-tive." From the Latin word for letter. It means characterized by alliteration, which is the repetition of the same letter or sound at the beginning of words in close succession. The following selection from "Piers Plowman" is a good example of alliterative verse:

"Hire robe was full riche of red scarlet engreyned
With ribanes of red gold and of riche stones;
Hire array me ravysshed such richesse saw I nevere."

Notice the alliteration on pages 128 and 129 of the text-book.

"Lol'lard." "A name given to several religious associations in the Middle Ages. Its etymology has been variously explained. Some suppose that it comes from the German, *lullen*, to hum, so that the term would signify persons speaking at religious services with a low suppressed voice; others consider it a term of reproach derived from the old English word *loller*, a vagabond; others derive it from Matthew Lollaert, a Dutch heretic who was put to death. The name first appears in the Netherlands about the year 1300. In England it was applied to the adherents of Wiclif as early as 1382,

and in 1387 and 1389 it was used in episcopal documents. It remained a common appellation of the adherents of Wiclif until the beginning of the reformation of the sixteenth century."

P. 131. "Friars." The word in this early modern English form, the old English being *frier*, is the same as *frère* in French, *frate*, or *fra*, in Italian, and *fruter* in Latin, all meaning brother or monk. It could be used in any religious order, but was especially applied to members of the mendicant orders, the Franciscans, Dominicans, etc.

"Præmunire" [prēm-u-nī're]. From a Latin word meaning to forewarn, to cite.

P. 132. "Mark." "An Anglo-Saxon and early English money of account. In the tenth century it was estimated at 100 silver pennies, but from the end of the twelfth century (or earlier) onward at 160 pennies, or 13s and 4d."

"The Babylonish captivity." Rome was in such a distracted state at this time that Pope Clement V. accepted the protection of the French king and moved the papal chair to Avignon [ä-vën-yōn]. His successors remained there for nearly seventy years, and on account of this length of time, closely corresponding to the stay of the children of Israel in Babylon, the period was popularly called the "Babylonish captivity."

"The Great Schism." On the death of Gregory XI., Urban VIII., an Italian, was elected pope by the cardinals. He immediately showed bitter animosity to the French, and the majority of the cardinals being French bitterly resented this treatment. They declared his election invalid and chose Clement VII., who became thus the first of the anti-popes. Both popes held their position, the one in Italy, the other in France. Under the same name also is known the event alluded to on page 247 of "Europe in the Nineteenth Century" and defined in the *C. L. S. C. Notes* on that book.

P. 134. "Transubstantiation" [tran-sub-stan-shi-a'shun]. A change of one substance into another. In theology, the change, held to occur during the consecration of the elements of the communion service, of the bread into the real body of Christ and of the wine into His blood.

P. 136. "*Sine quā nōn*." Latin. Literally, Without which not, that is,—an indispensable condition.

P. 140. "Cov'ın." A secret agreement, collusion, a deceitful arrangement.

P. 160. "Tonsured." From a Latin word meaning to shear, to shave. Tonsure is defined as the act of clipping the hair or shaving the crown of the head. "In the Roman Catholic and Greek churches, this was the name of the ceremony of shaving the head, either wholly or partially, performed upon a candidate as a preparatory step to his entering the priesthood or embracing monastic life; hence entrance into the clerical state or a monastic order."

Hallam says, "No ecclesiastical privilege had occasioned such dispute, or proved so mischievous, as the immunity of all tonsured persons from civil punishment for crimes."

"Decimated." When a Roman cohort revolted, and the revolt was put down, a common punishment was to decimate the cohort—that is, select every tenth man, *decimus*, by lot, and put him to death. If a cohort suffered in battle so that about one man in ten was killed, it was consequently said to be decimated. Long custom seems to have sanctioned the use of this word to express a great but indefinite destruction. Dean Trench says, alluding to the fact that it has become a veritable case of conscience with some whether they ought to use words which originally rested upon some superstition or untruth, "We involve ourselves in no real contradiction in speaking of a population decimated by a plague, though exactly a tenth of it has not perished."

P. 164. "Seely." An obsolete word, meaning silly, harmless.

P. 165. "Mum'mers." Perhaps from a German word *mumme*, mask. Persons who mask themselves and make diversion in disguise, especially in England, companies of persons who go from house to house at Christmas, performing a kind of play.

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

P. 237. "Disestablishment." "The act of withdrawing a church from a privileged relation to the state."

P. 239. "Obstruction." When a bill is introduced into a legislative assembly which is looked upon by the minority as objectionable, and which would be passed as soon as presented, by the majority, a strong effort is often made to prevent its reaching a vote. The minority take up their course of obstruction. This consists in "numerous speeches, motions to adjourn, on which the yeas and nays are called, and an unlimited number of amendments, each of which can be discussed and voted upon as a distinct question. There is no termination to such proceedings except through the physical exhaustion of the contestants or concessions on the part of the majority."

P. 247. "Fetichism" [fē'tish-iz'm]. Also spelled fetishism. A fetish is any material object which is looked upon with awe as possessing mysterious powers, or as being the representative or habitation of a deity, to which worship may be paid and from whom supernatural help may come. A fetish may be an animal or an inanimate object. Such worship, called fetishism, belongs to a low form of religion. Sir J. Lubbock says it stands in much the same relation to religion that alchemy does to chemistry, or astrology to astronomy.

"The great schism." "The estrangement between the Greek and Latin churches, culminating

finally in the great schism, stands historically in close connection with the vision of the Roman Empire into an Eastern and Western Empire. Before the ninth century there had been temporary suspensions of communion between the Roman church and the East. The immediate occasion of suspension of communion was the intrusion by the Greek emperor Michael III., in A.D. 857, of the learned Photius into the see of Constantinople instead of Ignatius, who, at that time patriarch, had just been deposed. The Roman See asserted jurisdiction in the matter as possessing supreme power, and mutual charges of false doctrine and excommunications followed; but Photius was finally acknowledged at Rome as patriarch. The final division was that between Pope Leo IX. and the patriarch Michael Cerularius, in A.D. 1054, since which time Roman Catholics regard the Greeks or Easterns as cut off from the Catholic church; the Greeks on the other hand, claim that they have remained faithful to the Catholic creed and ancient usages."

P. 250. "Vodka." A Russian whisky or brandy which is usually distilled from rye, but sometimes from potatoes.

P. 255. "Turadians." People speaking the language which is designated as Turanian, a word "loosely and indefinitely applied to the Asiatic languages in general outside of the Indo-European and Semitic families."

"Islam." The religious system of the Mohammedans.

P. 256. "Kö'ran" [or ko-rän'.] The Mohammedan bible; the book containing the religious system and moral code of the Mohammedans.

"Cos'sack." One of a military people living on the steppes of Russia, in Caucasia, Siberia, and elsewhere. They are supposed to have been originally refugees from the ancient limits of Russia, who were compelled by hostile invasion to adopt a military mode of life which developed into a tribal existence.

P. 257. "Laveleye" [läv-lä], Émile Louis de. (1822-1891.) A Belgian political economist and the author of numerous works.

"Cadi." A chief judge or magistrate. The Spanish word *alcaydē* is the Moorish *al cadi*.

P. 258. "Hellen-ized." Made Hellenic or Grecian. The Greek name for the word Greek was *Hellēne*, from the name of the mythical founder of the race, Hellen.

P. 261. "Ot'to-man." The word is formed from Othman or Osman, the name of the founder of the Turkish empire in Asia. It distinguishes that branch of the Turks which founded and rule the empire.

P. 266. "Cä-po-dis'tri-äs."

P. 272. "Li't-to-ral." From a Latin word for seashore. Pertaining to the coast of the sea. The country which lies along the shore.

"Porte." The Ottoman court; the government of the Turkish empire. It is commonly called the Sublime Porte, meaning lofty gate. "In the Byzantine empire, the gates of the palaces were the place of assembly for judicial and legal administration.

P. 274. "Nicholas." The Russian tsar.

P. 277. "*Bash'i-ba-souks*." Volunteer and irregular auxiliaries serving in connection with the Turkish army for maintenance but without pay or uniform."

P. 291. "Romansch" [ro-mansh']. Belonging to the group of Romance dialects spoken in South-eastern Switzerland.

P. 297. "Olaus Rudbeck." (1630-1702.) An eminent Swedish anatomist and botanist, the author of "*Atlantica*" in which he maintains that Sweden is the "*Atlantis*" of Plato.

P. 298. "Li-tur'gic-al." Of the nature of, or pertaining to a liturgy, which is an established formula for public worship.

P. 312. "Hanks." Skeins of yarn or thread. A hank of cotton yarn measures eight hundred and forty yards; of linen yarn or thread three thousand yards.

P. 313. "Berthollet" [bër-to-lä.]

P. 330. "Vendettas." See note on page 235 of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for November.

P. 333. "U-ni-cam'er-al." Said of a legislative body having but a single chamber or house. Latin, *unus*, one, *camera*, a chamber.

P. 334. "Absenteeism." The practice followed so generally by landlords of living away from their landed estates.

"Autonomy." See note on page 107 of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for October.

"Re-ha-bil-i-ta'tion." The act of reinstating in a former rank or capacity; restoration to former rights, or reestablishment in the esteem of others.

P. 335. "*Imperium in imperio*." A kingdom within a kingdom; a government within a government.

REQUIRED READINGS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"THE PAINTER'S ART IN ENGLAND."

1. "*Parí passu*." A Latin expression meaning with equal pace; together.

2. "Ge-hen'na." "In Jewish history, the Valley of Hinnom, south of Jerusalem, where the Israelites once sacrificed their children to Moloch, where the city of off was thrown and fires were kept burning to purify

the air. The place of future punishment for the wicked."

3. "Bän'al." In its early history this word, like ban (proclamation, edict), derived from Latin, meant pertaining to compulsory feudal service; applied especially to mills, wells, ovens, etc., used in common by people of the lower classes, upon the command

of a feudal superior. Hence, common, commonplace. Ba-nā'i-ty, in old French, meant the right by which a lord compelled his vassals to grind at his mill, bake at his oven, etc. Hence, the state of being banal or common or trite; commonplaceness.

4. "Champs Elysées" [shān zā-lē-zā]. Elysian Fields; a beautiful public park in Paris.

5. "Per-se-us." A Grecian legendary hero who after several notable exploits discovered one day a strange sight on the seashore. Princess Andromeda, a beautiful maiden, had been chained fast to the rock-bound coast and left the prey of a terrible sea monster in order to atone for the vanity of her mother Cassiopeia, who had claimed that she was fairer than any of the sea nymphs. Perseus slew the monster just then approaching to devour her, freed the maiden, and made her his bride.

6. "Ateliers" [ā-tē-lyā]. A French word for studios, or workshops.

7. "The-māt'ic." Of or pertaining to a theme, or subject.

8. "Corot" [ko-rō]. "Millet" [mē-yā]. Degas [dā-gā]. "Monet" [mo-nā].

9. "Plein Airists." "The *plein* [plān] *air* school of modern French painters whose creed is to paint their pictures in the open air," or with open air effects.—"The Impressionist school is a contemporary school of painters, the adherents of which set themselves to render, not reality in its minuteness, but a rapid aspect of nature, reproducing as nearly as possible the impression made upon their own mind by any particular scene."

10. "*Tours de force*." French. Feats of strength or skill.

"SOCIAL LIFE IN ENGLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

1. "Ap'o-gee." The point in the orbit of a planet or heavenly body which is farthest from the earth. Greek, *apo*, from, and *ge*, the earth.

2. "*Bona fide*." Latin; in good faith; genuine.

3. "Lu-cul'lus." (109-57 B. C.) A Roman general, who after retiring from active life spent his time at his rural villas in the enjoyment of a princely fortune, and in royally entertaining his friends. It is said that a single supper cost him the sum of \$8,500.

4. "*Premier crū*." French. Of the first growth; of ancient growth; the best.

5. "Guineas." English money of account. A guinea is of the value of twenty-one shillings, about five dollars.

6. "Tattersall's." The name of a race ground in Grosvenor Place, London, so-called after Richard Tattersall, who was originally a training groom of the duke of Kingston. He made a great fortune by purchasing the celebrated horse, Highflyer, for which he paid the sum of £2,500.

7. "*Fin de siècle*" [fān de se-a-kl]. End of the century. "This phrase is much used in contemporary French to designate the ideas, persons, and things characteristic of the closing years of the nineteenth century."

8. "Auber" [o-ber]. "Rossini" [ros-see'nee]. "Bellini" [bel-lee'nee]. "Donizetti" [do-ne-dzet'tee]. "Verdi" [vār'dee]. "Meyerbeer" [mī'er-bār]. "Wag'ner" or vāg'ner. "Gounod" [goo-no].

9. "*Opera bouffe*" [boof]. A French expression taken from the Italian word for jest. Comic opera.

10. "*Cacoethes scribendi*" [kak-o-e'thēs scri-ben'di]. Latin. A morbid propensity for writing; a desire for authorship.

11. "Mac-ad'am-ized." Covered with road metal, or finely broken stone, which is rolled down into the road bed with heavy rollers. So called from the man who invented the process.

12. "Parquet floors" [par-kā or par-ket']. Floors consisting of a mosaic of woodwork.

13. "Con'su-late." The government which existed in France from the overthrow of the Directory in 1799 to the establishment of the empire in 1804.

14. "*Gigot*" [jig'ut]. A French word for leg of mutton.

"THE FRENCH CHAMBERS."

1. "Plebiscite" [pleb'i-sit]. From two Latin words meaning the people and a decree. "An expression of the will or pleasure of the whole people in regard to some measure already decided upon; a vote of the whole people for the ratification or disapproval of some matter. Chiefly of French usage."

2. "*Coup d'état*" [koo dā tā]. French. A stroke of policy; an extraordinary and violent measure taken by a government when the safety of the state is, or is supposed to be, in danger; action of importance to the state.

"THE QUESTION OF MADAGASCAR."

1. "The July Monarchy." The monarchy of Louis Philippe. When in July, 1830, Charles X., the king of France, attempted to suspend some of the most important guarantees secured to the people by the charter granted them by Louis XVIII. at the time of the Restoration, a formidable insurrection broke out. Charles was obliged to abdicate, and Louis Philippe was appointed king by the Chamber of Deputies. The July monarchy, as it was termed, lasted nearly eighteen years.

2. "Ex-e-quā'tur." A Latin verb meaning when translated literally, Let him execute (it); this form of the verb being in subjunctive mood, third person, singular number. It is used in English to denote an authoritative recognition, as of a document or right; an official warrant or permission. Specifically, a written recognition of a person in the character of consul or commercial agent, issued by the government to which

he is accredited, and authorizing him to exercise his powers.

3. "Mayors of the palace." "In France, originally the first officers of the royal household, then the first officers of state under the Merovingian kings. Gradually these officers aggrandized their own influence to the detriment of that of the monarchs, till the latter ruled only nominally, all real power being usurped by the mayors."

4. "Corvée" [kor-vā]. "In feudal law, an obligation to perform certain services, such as mending roads, for the king or a feudal lord. In present use any system of forced labor, as in Egypt in the annual rise of the Nile."

5. "The Cape." Cape Colony.

"THE WORLD'S DEBT TO ASTRONOMY."

1. "Cy'no-sure." One name of the constellation of the Little Bear, which contains the pole star, to which the eyes of mariners are directed. Hence the popular use of the word as applied to anything that attracts attention; a center of attraction.

2. "Sir'i-us." The dog star.

3. "Al'ma-gest." From an Arabic word meaning the greatest. A collection of problems in astronomy and geometry, given by Ptolemy; so named by the Arabs because it was reckoned the greatest work on these subjects.

4. "Calendars." From a Latin word for account-book, interest book, and this was so called because interest became due on the calends, or kalends, the first day of the month with the Romans. Tables of the days of the months in a year.

5. "Observatories." Places or buildings fitted up with instruments for making observations of the phenomena of nature, as astronomical or meteorological observatories.

6. "Vulcan's fall." The god of fire and of the forge was Vulcan, son of Jupiter and Juno. He was tenderly attached to his mother, and on one occasion when Jupiter had hung her out of heaven by a golden chain to punish her for a fit of jealousy, Vulcan was about to loose the chain and set her free when he was discovered by his father. Jupiter was so angry at the interference that he thrust Vulcan out of heaven. The space between heaven and earth was so great that he was a whole day and night in falling. His aversion to Mount Olympus, the home of the gods, heaven, was always strong after this occurrence. The Greeks thought that their country occupied a central position on the earth, and that Mount Olympus, the mythological abode of their gods, was placed in the exact center and that its cloud-encircled summit pierced the heavens.

7. "Co-per'ni-cus." (1473-1543.) The great Polish or German astronomer.

8. "Par'al-lax." "The difference in the direction

of an object as seen from two different places. For a simple illustration of it, hold your finger before you in front of the window. Upon looking at it with the left eye only, you will locate your finger at some point on the window; on looking with the right eye only, you will locate it at an entirely different point. The difference in the direction of your finger as seen from the two eyes is parallax. In astronomical calculations the position of a body as seen from the earth's surface is called its apparent place, while that in which it would be seen from the center of the earth is called its true place. It has been agreed by astronomers, for the sake of uniformity in their calculations to correct all observations so as to refer them to their true places as seen from the center of the earth."

"SOME CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH NOVELISTS."

1. "Chalet" [shā-lā]. A residence built after the style of a Swiss mountain cottage, this being the name of the dwelling houses of the Swiss peasantry, and also of the mountain cabins in which their herdsmen are housed at night on the mountains.

2. "An-thol'o-gy." From two Greek words meaning flower and to gather. A garland, a collection of flowers. More commonly, a collection of poems, epigrams, and fugitive pieces by different authors,—a gathering of the flowers of literature.

3. "Rara avis." Latin. A rare bird.

"GREAT CANALS."

1. "Hy-draul'ic." Pertaining to fluids in motion. The science which treats of the motion of liquids and the application of the principles to conducting and raising water in conduits, is called hydraulics.

2. "Am'ru ibn el Aas." One of Mohammed's early proselytes, a valiant soldier in the conquest of Syria and Egypt. He became emir of the latter country.

3. "Abou Giaffar [jaf'far] el Mansour." One of the renowned caliphs of Bagdad, the one who founded that famous city. He introduced the taste for literature and for many progressive works.

4. "The Le-vant'." The region east of Italy lying on and near the Mediterranean, sometimes reckoned as extending east to the Euphrates and as taking in the Nile Valley, thus including Greece and Egypt; more specifically, the coast region and islands of Asia Minor and Syria. The name was originally given by the Italians, who derived it from a Latin verb meaning to rise, and applied it to the land lying in the direction of the rising sun.

5. "Sault" [sō]. The rapids in the river.

"A VISIT TO BISMARCK."

1. "Chauteau" [shā-tō]. The French word for castle or manor house; a large residence, usually in the country.

2. "Po-lō'ni-us." A character in Shakespeare's play of "Hamlet"; lord chamberlain to the king of Denmark; "a garrulous old courtier who fancies himself a shrewd politician."

3. "Schloss." The German word for castle or mansion.

4. "*Homme d'affaires*." A French expression. Literally, a man of affairs, a business man. A steward, an agent.

5. "Marks." German coins, each one of which

is equal to 23.8 cents of United States money.

Erratum. By a careless blunder a misstatement was made in the sentence at the top of the second column on page 9 of the October number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The statement should read, "A late promising innovation has been the compound or double cylinder locomotive, the second and *larger* cylinder utilizing the exhaust steam from the *smaller*, and thereby increasing the power of the machine."

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

1. Q. When did the English language make its final triumph in the English nation? A. In the fourteenth century.

2. Q. What fruit was borne of the seed sown by the story of Piers Plowman? A. The Lollard movement and the Peasant Revolt.

3. Q. What statutes were enacted in the fourteenth century against the pretensions of the church? A. The Statute of Præmunire and the Statute of Provisors.

4. Q. For how long a time did the rival popes of Rome and Avignon contest the powers and privileges of the Holy See? A. For fifty years.

5. Q. What was the essential feature of Wiclif's reform? A. The endeavor to recall the church to apostolic Christianity.

6. Q. Why did John of Gaunt withdraw his favor from Wiclif? A. Because the latter boldly denied the doctrine of transubstantiation.

7. Q. To what did Wiclif devote his energies during the last years of his life? A. To translating the Bible into the speech of the people.

8. Q. How was he prevented from obeying a summons to Rome to answer to a charge of heresy? A. He was stricken with paralysis and died before the pope's anathema could reach him.

9. Q. What other reform movement of great significance agitated the people of the fourteenth century? A. The struggle of the laboring people to free themselves from feudal dependence.

10. Q. How did Edward III. seek to develop the infant industry of the manufacture of cloth? A. By offering his protection to Flemish artisans who would settle in England and ply this trade.

11. Q. Under what responsibility were the gilds of this time held? A. The town authorities looked to them for the honest conduct of trade.

12. Q. What gave rise to the Peasants' Revolt? A. The oppression of the laboring people.

13. Q. How does Froissart describe Wat Tyler, the leader? A. As a bad man and a great enemy to the nobility.

14. Q. To what was the eventual emancipation of the serfs in England due? A. To the gradual operation of economic forces.

15. Q. When was the first act against heretics inscribed among English statutes? A. In the reign of Henry IV.; it condemned the one found guilty to be burned to ashes.

16. Q. What English king is said to be the best product of his age? A. King Henry V.

17. Q. How did religious reform prosper during his reign? A. It smoldered in secret until the Reformation.

18. Q. Of what great projects did Henry V. dream? A. The conquest of France, of reducing the Turks to submission and restoring the Holy Sepulcher to Christian keeping.

19. Q. To what dangers was England exposed at the death of Henry V.? A. The prince of Wales was but nine months old and the realm had to meet the difficulties of a long minority.

20. Q. In whom did the awakened patriotism of France find expression when that country had touched the lowest ebb of its fortunes? A. In Joan of Arc.

21. Q. Who was crowned king of England at the age of seven and king of France at ten? A. Henry VI.

22. Q. What gave rise to the War of the Roses? A. The rival claims to the throne made by the Lancastrians and the Yorkists.

23. Q. With which house did the final victory lie? A. The Yorkists.

24. Q. How is the last of the York kings, Richard III., characterized? A. As the worst product of his age.

25. Q. How is the fifteenth century described? A. As a brutal age, in which selfish materialism overwhelmed patriotism, religion, chivalry, and checked all literary impulse.

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

1. Q. How is Ireland governed? A. By a centralized authority wielded directly from Dublin

Castle, the seat of the English lord lieutenant.

2. Q. What second grievance has the Emerald Isle? A. That the Protestant population is simply an English garrison.

3. Q. By what act did Mr. Gladstone signalize his advent to the prime ministry? A. The disestablishment of the Irish church.

4. Q. What question has overshadowed everything else in Ireland? A. The land question.

5. Q. What is the Home Rule which Irish Nationalists seek? A. An Irish Parliament empowered to manage Irish interests.

6. Q. How does the population of the Russian empire compare with that of the United States? A. It is nearly twice as large, numbering 113,000,000.

7. Q. In what relation to the civil power does the Russian church stand? A. It is under the direct rule of the tsar, being an established state church.

8. Q. How does the Russian government differ from all other European governments? A. It is the only absolute hereditary monarchy.

9. Q. What convinced Tsar Alexander II. that he had carried his governmental reform and liberalism too far? A. The attempt made by Poland to regain its liberty.

10. Q. How are temperance societies treated in Russia? A. They are forbidden as seditious, since the government tax on whisky is a large source of income.

11. Q. Tried by that test of good government, protection to life and property, how does Turkey rank? A. About as bad as government possibly can.

12. Q. Under whom did Constantinople become the seat of Turkish power? A. The Ottoman Turks, in 1453.

13. Q. When and where was the high water mark of the Turkish empire in Europe reached? A. In 1682, at Vienna.

14. Q. What has formed the history of eastern Europe for the last two hundred years? A. The gradual expulsion of the Turks from the continent.

15. Q. What was the first treaty the Turks made with a Christian power? A. That recognizing Hungarian independence.

16. Q. When was Turkish despotism over Greece brought to a close? A. By the battle of Navarino in 1827.

17. Q. What Slav countries have freed themselves from Turkish rule? A. Montenegro, Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria.

18. Q. What has been the long standing relation existing between Russia and Turkey? A. That of enemies.

19. Q. Who were the leading contestants in the

Crimean War? A. Russia and Turkey, with England and France as allies of the latter.

20. Q. What is the Eastern Question? A. The disposal which is to be made of the Turkish possessions, especially Constantinople.

21. Q. What powers are most deeply interested in the future of Turkish dominions? A. Russia, Austria, and England.

22. Q. Name several possible solutions of the Eastern Question. A. To place the Turkish possessions under Russian Dominance, under Austrian dominance, to make them a cluster of independent states, or a Balkan federation.

23. Q. When did the confederated cantons of Switzerland find themselves free from allegiance to the German empire? A. At the close of the Thirty Years' War, in 1648.

24. Q. What one peculiar feature of legislation marks the Swiss republic? A. The referendum.

25. Q. How has the history of the Netherlands been modified? A. By the extraordinary nature of the country which lies mostly below sea level.

26. Q. What two facts in history have left their mark on the character of the Dutch? A. The eighty years' war against Spain and their former maritime and naval power.

27. Q. What monarchy made the most successful of the European attempts at colonizing Africa? Belgium, in the Congo Free State.

28. Q. Which is the most sparsely settled country in Europe? A. Norway.

29. Q. Name some of the marked contrasts existing between the northern and southern peninsulas of Europe. A. Those in race, in language, in religion, and in education.

30. Q. Why had Denmark to pay a heavy penalty after the French wars? A. Because it had remained steadfastly loyal to Napoleon.

31. Q. How came Spain to be a constitutional monarchy? A. In its war of liberation from French dominance under Napoleon, the patriots drew up a constitution, and the king, glad to get his throne back on any terms, signed it.

32. Q. What three substances form the best exponent of the material progress of the age? A. Cotton, iron, wool.

33. Q. What is the most obvious and serious thing in the present European situation? A. The military question.

34. Q. In what most effective way has the democratic tendency of modern times made itself manifest? A. By gaining universal suffrage.

35. Q. What great American idea has Europe not yet learned? A. That of free unsectarian education for all, at the cost of the state.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

● ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—III.

1. What book, published in the sixteenth century, is said to have had the greatest influence on English composition?
2. What is the most celebrated English work ever published, the author of which is unknown?
3. To whom has the authorship of the above work been attributed?
4. What English poet wrote his three most important works in different languages?
5. For what were Samuel Johnson, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, and Thomas Carlyle celebrated?
6. Who was considered the greatest spendthrift among English authors?
7. What was the most celebrated partnership known in English letters?
8. What was the first and most perfect marriage hymn in the English language?
9. By whom was the first English romance written and what was its title?
10. What is considered the greatest epic of the nineteenth century?

WOMAN'S WORLD.—III.

1. In what period of America's history was developed her pioneer woman journalist?
2. Who was the next American woman notably active in this field, and when did she enter it?
3. What was the pioneer woman suffrage newspaper of America?
4. What two American journalists of national fame were the principal founders of the American Suffrage Association?
5. Who invented the syndicate system of correspondence supplying matter simultaneously to newspapers all over the country?
6. How did Mary L. Booth first distinguish herself in literary work?
7. In what besides her literary work is Frances Power Cobbe prominent?
8. What English journalist, lecturer, and novelist was in the second half of this century appointed printer and publisher in ordinary to the queen?
9. What very noted French novelist used her pen in favor of elective franchise for women?
10. Among Germany's eminent women journalists name three active advocates of the industrial promotion of women.

ART.—III.

1. Whence chiefly came Rome's works of art?
2. Did the Romans have an independent school of painting?

3. Is there an eminent Roman painter?
4. What great Roman general, having conquered Corinth, stipulated with those who contracted to convey to Italy the finest paintings and statuary of Greece, that if any were lost on the voyage they should be replaced by others of equal value?
5. What noble Roman was a liberal patron of art and literature?
6. What became of the great works of art collected in Rome?
7. What distinct branch of the art of painting were the Romans the first to cultivate?
8. When painting reached its greatest depth of degradation in Rome how was the artist valued?
9. The Roman emperor Claudius caused the face of the famous picture of Alexander the Great painted by Apelles, to be erased and that of a Roman substituted instead; whose was it?
10. What event "potted for posterity" in a perfect state of preservation a great collection of Roman art?

CURRENT EVENTS.—III.*

1. Of what dynasty is the czar of Russia and how far back does this dynasty claim to trace its descent?
2. Trace the line of descent which links Princess Alix of Hesse, the affianced of the new czar, to the English throne.
3. What proportion of the solid land of the earth does Russia comprise?
4. In his proclamation of himself as czar of Russia, what did Nicholas II. promise to make his aim?
5. What did Lord Rosebery in a speech at Sheffield declare to be the watchword, the reign, and the character of the late czar?
6. What relation does Dr. Parkhurst who urged the women of New York to take an active part in politics and help put an end to misrule and corruption, hold to woman suffrage?
7. When and for what purpose was the Tammany Society organized?
8. Whose biography written by James Anthony Froude roused a perfect storm of reproach?
9. The events which led to the resignation of the German chancellor, Caprivi, seems to indicate a return on the part of the emperor to what policy?
10. What event gave rise to the proposed changes regarding the standing army?

*This set of questions is based upon the topics treated in *Current History and Opinion* in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN"
FOR NOVEMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—II.

1. Artistic composition in words, or thought artistically expressed, either spoken or written. 2. The English. 3. Cædmon, sometimes called "the father of English song." 4. The epic poem, "Beowulf." 5. Geoffrey Chaucer, known also as the "morning star of English poetry"; "The Canterbury Tales." 6. From its being used by a royal follower, King James I. of Scotland. 7. Bede, known in history as "The Venerable Bede"; the "Ecclesiastic History of the English Nation." 8. The "father of English prose," and the "morning star of the Revolution." 9. Howard, earl of Surrey, in his translation of "Virgil's Æneid." 10. In "Paradise Lost."

WOMAN'S WORLD.—II.

1. Cicero. 2. The nun Ava (died 1127). 3. Hannah Adams. 4. Phillis Wheatley. 5. Julia Ward Howe, while on a visit to the camps near Washington, in 1861. 6. It was at that time "the one American book that had taken Europe by storm." 7. Miss Frances Burney. 8. Mrs. Hemans (Felicia Dorothea Browne). 9. Mrs. Mary Somerville. 10. Elizabeth B. Browning.

ART.—II.

1. With the struggle against the Persians. 2. In the myths of gods and heroes. 3. Polygnotus, who lived about 493-426 B. C. 4. Zeuxis and Parrhasius. 5. It was his custom, when he had finished a picture, to place it where it could be seen by passers-by and to conceal himself and listen to their remarks. One day a shoemaker, having criticised the slipper of a figure, the artist changed it. The next day, the shoemaker, bolder grown, found fault with the leg, when Apelles indignantly uttered the words of the expression. 6. Apelles. 7. Apollodorus on account of his picturesque arrangement of light and shade. 8. It is reported that he died of laughing over the

picture of an old woman that he painted. 9. Etruscan vases. 10. Upon panels mostly, sometimes upon walls, and occasionally on canvas; the colors were white, yellow, red, and black.

CURRENT EVENTS.—II.

1. On both sides of the Mississippi from fifty-seven miles below New Orleans to nearly one hundred and ninety miles above; on the Red River and its tributaries; and on many of the bayous. 2. The first tariff act passed after the adoption of the Constitution, July 4, 1789, placed a duty of one cent a pound on raw sugar, and of three cents on refined sugar. 3. The ophthalmoscope, the instrument by which the retina of the living eye may be inspected. 4. It is generally ascribed to a Virginia farmer named Charles Lynch who undertook to punish a thief with his own hands instead of delivering him to the law, by tying him to a tree and flogging him. 5. That of reclaiming the Colorado desert, which lies mostly below sea level. It is to be accomplished by diverting a part of the water from the Colorado River to the greatest depression in the desert, thus forming a lake from which irrigating canals can be built in all directions. 6. A history of the Civil War. 7. That after January 1, 1897, it shall not be allowed in any form. 8. A body of thirty men from one of the southern provinces presented in March, 1893, a petition to the king asking the rehabilitation of their religious founder who had been put to death under ignominious circumstances in 1864, and for permission to practice their religion (Buddhism). The king refused to receive the petition; sent the petitioners home; and bade them return to their faith in Confucianism. The Tong Hak, or followers of the Eastern religion, revolted; Japan undertook to help quell the disturbance; and China attacked Japan for interference in a tributary kingdom of China. 9. The father of the king of Corea. 10. On account of supposed remissness in prosecuting the war against Japan.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1898.

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

"The truth shall make you free."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. F. Crafts, Pittsburg, Pa.

Vice Presidents—Prof. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.; the Rev. J. B. Morton, Winter Park, Fla.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.; George P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.; Robert A. Miller, Canton, O.; Mrs. H. S. Hawes, Richmond, Va.

Recording Secretary—Miss Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.*Corresponding Secretary*—Miss Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.*Treasurer*—R. M. Alden, 625 Maryland Avenue, Washington, D. C.*Trustee*—George Hukill, Oil City, Pa.*Historian*—Miss Janette Trowbridge, New Haven, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—NASTURTIUM.

CLASS EMBLEM—A BLUE RIBBON.

THE members of '95 are showing much zeal in the prosecution of their fourth year's work. So far from considering their work as drawing near to a close, we find them even at this point in their career helping to organize new circles and thus perpetuate the influence of the C. L. S. C. In some cases there are circles made up almost entirely of '95's, and these, we doubt not, are planning for special lines of work at the end of the four years.

MEMBERS of '95 and of other classes also who have used with so much pleasure the outline wall maps prepared by the C. L. S. C. office, will be glad to learn that a map of the British Isles has been

added to the number, to provide for the needs of circles studying English history. The map of Europe prepared last year will also be found very useful in the study of "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Either map can be secured by sending fifty cents to the C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

"*Truth is eternal.*"

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. Chas. C. Johnson, Arcade, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—R. C. Browning, Orange, N. J.; Mrs. Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Cynthia I. Boyd, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna Hodgson, Athens, Ga.; F. G. Lewis, Manitoba; Oliver Ellsworth, Niles, Cal.; Mrs. Wheaton Smith, Detroit, Mich.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Anna J. Young, 237 Wylie Ave., Pittsburg, Pa.

Recording Secretary—Miss Grace G. Merritt, Montclair, N. J.

Treasurer and Class Trustee—John A. Seaton, Glen Park Place, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

THE C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo reports that many members of '96 who failed to send their fee and report last year, have forwarded the fee for the current year and taken up the work again. This is good news as it proves that though through stress of circumstances some of our class discontinued work for a time they propose to go forward at the earliest opportunity. Of course our "Roman" friends of '97 would gladly add a few belated '96's to their ranks, but we hope to bring the most of our members safely through in '96.

CLASS OF 1897—"THE ROMANS."

OFFICERS.

President—Prof. F. J. Miller, University of Chicago.

Vice Presidents—Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss.; Mrs. M. T. Gawthrop, Swarthmore, Pa.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, O.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; the Rev. James E. Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, New South Wales; Charles E. Boyd, Cambridge, Mass.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Dayton, O.

Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Meadville, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

TO THE CLASS OF '97.—Dear Classmates:—We have not as yet selected a class motto, and it begins to seem incongruous to many of our valiant "Romans" that we should go on further in our course without a motto. It seems to me that the logical necessity of our name is Caesar's famous (if now somewhat trite) message, *Veni, vidi, vici*. I would suggest this as our motto, and call for words of assent or dissent from members of the class. I was empowered, as president of the class, by the representatives of the class at Chautauqua this summer to select a motto; and if no general objection is heard, the one suggested above will stand.

Yours fraternally,

F. J. MILLER, Class President.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"*The humblest life that lives may be divine.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Walter L. Hervey, New York City.

Vice Presidents—Clifford Lanier, Montgomery, Ala.; Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.; Dr. Richard T. Ely, Madison, Wis.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York City; the Rev. Mr. Parker, New Orleans, La.; Miss J. Solomon, South Africa; Miss Eliot Henderson, Montreal, Can.; the Rev. Mr. Chalfont, China; Dr. J. E. Williams, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Josephine R. Webber, Waltham, Mass.; Dr. J. W. Hartigan, Morgantown, W. Va.

Treasurer and Trustee—The Rev. Mr. Whistler, Kenton, O.
Secretary—Miss Elizabeth Brown, Janesville, Wis.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

THE membership of the Class of '98 has already reached into the thousands. Fifty names have recently been reported from the southern Assemblies, sixty from Illinois, forty from Wisconsin and thirty from Iowa Assemblies. New circles are being organized everywhere and the publishers are severely taxed to keep pace with the demand for books. Evidently "The Laniers" are a power.

THE Class of '98 has enrolled its first member from the United States Army. An assistant surgeon from a post in California reports his name for membership. We hope to add others from the same place.

A RECENT letter from Japan brings an inquiry regarding the C. L. S. C. It is probable that this correspondent will become a member of the Class of '98. She is evidently very eager for information as her letter was written immediately upon the arrival in Japan of the magazine which contained the notice of the C. L. S. C.

A REQUEST for one hundred circulars has been received at the Central Office from Bombay, India. The writer has already ordered seven sets of books, and hopes to have at least a dozen new members to report for the Class of '98.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

A MEMBER of the Pioneer Class, who began the C. L. S. C. work at an isolated point on the Pacific coast and carried it through amid many obstacles, is now living in the city of Portland, Ore. She writes that she has just finished reading the course a second time, having gone over it with her daughter, who is now a student at Leland Stanford University.

FROM Brooklyn, N. Y., a member of '94 writes: "I shall miss the reading greatly as my books are now to me like old and helpful friends. The course has been very helpful to me and I urge my friends to take it up and be benefited by systematic and well directed literary work. So much of our reading nowadays is confined to our many paged newspapers, that unless one makes a determined effort the year will pass without his having read or opened a book. I expect to continue the very interesting art

studies this year in Professor Goodyear's 'Renaissance and Modern Art.' In fact the course has started the ball a rolling for instructive, uplifting and judicious reading, and when once started there is no telling where it will end."

THE new course in current history is already

attracting much attention and there is every indication that a large number of graduates will organize for the special study of this admirable course. All who are interested and who have failed to see the announcements should write at once to John H. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

JOHN WYCLIF DAY—December 10.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER DAY—January 7.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

RECENT reports from state and county secretaries show a widespread renewal of interest in the C.L.S.C. Among the new state secretaries may be mentioned Miss Mary H. Mather of Delaware, who has had charge of the Girls' Outlook Club at Chautauqua for some years past. Mrs. Emily Goodrich Smith of Connecticut was obliged to resign as state secretary for Connecticut owing to ill health; but Chautauquans generally will be interested to know that Dr. Frank Russell, president of the Class of '87, will act in her stead.

The Rev. H. C. Farrar, well known for his interest in Chautauqua work and in that of the Christian Endeavor societies, has accepted the position of state secretary for eastern New York. Dr. Farrar has conducted an active circle in his own church for many years, and will be glad to give service to circles in his field who feel the need of help.

The work in the state of Ohio is being considerably strengthened by the personal attention given to it by Mr. Robert A. Miller.

Nebraska has made an especially good record in the number of county secretaries enlisted. This is due to the wise leadership of the state secretary, Mr. W. E. Hardy.

Mr. J. H. Fryer, secretary for western Canada, has been carrying on a vigorous correspondence with churches and Y. M. C. A.'s, and many new readers will doubtless be the result. An excursion to Chautauqua from Canada was organized by Mr. Fryer in the summer, but the railroad strike demoralized arrangements so that it had to be abandoned.

Large and enthusiastic meetings have been held under the leadership of Chancellor Vincent in Chi-

cago on September 11, and in Evanston, Ill., where the results have been the organization of several new circles. At Galena, Ill., the church was crowded and many unable to secure admittance. A service was also held at Rockford, Ill., and the Chancellor proposes to hold others in Oklahoma Territory.

In the larger cities a great deal of aggressive work is reported. In New York City the New York Union reports through its secretary, Mr. F. M. Curtis, that they are anticipating one of the best years in the history of the union.

The Extension Committee of the Brooklyn Chautauqua Union, of which Mr. D. Harris Underhill is secretary, are carrying out a very interesting series of meetings this fall. They have divided the city into sections and expect to hold some fifteen or twenty meetings, each meeting to be held under the auspices of one or two circles in the vicinity. As there are between twenty and thirty circles in Brooklyn, the possibilities of extending the work are considerable, and it is expected that a large number of new members will be added to the Class of '98. The first of these meetings was very successful.

Mr. George H. Lincks is secretary for Hudson County, N. J. The circles in northern New Jersey are considering the organization of a union for the county, and it is probable that the work will be extended at no distant day.

In Washington, D. C., under the leadership of Mr. W. R. Woodward, the work is being widely extended. A correspondent from that city writes, "The prospect of C. L. S. C. work in this city for '94-5 is very bright. Eight or ten of us met last night as representatives of different local circles and talked

over C. L. S. C. interests with very gratifying results. We now have a movement on foot to hold a grand rally."

In Buffalo, N. Y., the C. L. S. C. rally was held on the evening of October 1. The Chautauqua Circle meeting at the People's Church invited all the members of the C. L. S. C. and their friends, and the parlors of the church were crowded. The evening was devoted to a literary program, and closed with songs by the Æolian Quartette and a social gathering. The result has already shown itself in a large increase of new members in several of the circles.

In Denver, Colo., the Chautauquans are as usual showing much activity. Under the leadership of the state secretary, the Rev. B. T. Vincent, and the president of the Rocky Mountain Assembly, Mr. F. M. Priestley, the work is being successfully developed. The summer Assembly is reported as very successful, and the result is an increase of interest throughout the state. On Friday evening, September 21, the Denver Chautauqua Union held a public meeting. Addresses were delivered on the C. L. S. C. and the required books for the current year. A number of new members were enrolled and a temporary local alumni association was organized with a nucleus of ten members. The Chautauquans of Denver propose to hold a convention in November.

In the far West and Northwest the outlook is reported as encouraging, although the Pacific Coast has felt the hard times very severely.

From county workers have come many interesting reports. The rally held by Bishop Vincent in Chicago was organized through the efficient leadership of Mrs. Francis L. Beebe, president of Outlook Circle and secretary of the work in the city of Chicago. The rally in Evanston was organized by Mrs. Sarah Bailey Mann, the secretary for Cook County. Much interest has been awakened in many parts of this county, and one of the leading agricultural papers has agreed to publish in its columns that most effective little Chautauqua story, "The Evolution of Mrs. Thomas."

In Pennsylvania, Miss Lilla Snyder, the secretary for Berks County, reports the reorganization of St. Andrews Circle, which has taken the oversight of the work in the county. The papers have shown a friendly spirit and have been glad to publish articles regarding the work. In Warren County, through the efforts of Judge Charles H. Noyes, a county union has been organized. All members of the C. L. S. C. in the county are invited to join the union, and it is proposed to hold an occasional rally and to arrange for union vesper services and other meetings which will draw the members together. The Rev. Eli Pickersgill, secretary of Schuylkill County, reports a decided increase of interest in various parts of his field.

From Ohio much good work is reported. Clarke County, under the leadership of Mr. C. M. Nichols, reports the reorganization of the Worthington Circle, one of the oldest in Ohio, and a general public meeting to be held at an early date for the purpose of extending the work. Mrs. Emma Ferrall, secretary of Carroll County, reports a new circle besides the reorganization of an old one. The hard times make work in this county especially difficult. Mr. J. H. Kaufman, secretary of Stark County, has been most active in developing a rally in the city of Canton. Dr. J. C. M. Floyd, secretary of Jefferson County, has reached many local conventions with circulars of the C. L. S. C., and is watching all parts of this important field with the utmost care.

The Rev. F. A. Hatch, secretary of Fairfield County, Conn., has reorganized his own circle at Danbury, and as he is to do considerable lecturing during the coming weeks, will have many opportunities for developing the work of the C. L. S. C.

Miss Alice Mayhew, secretary for Milwaukee County, sends an encouraging report of the outlook in Milwaukee. The circles are reorganizing, and they are planning for much aggressive work.

Mr. James B. Dudley, secretary for New Hanover County, N. C., has placed circulars in the hands of the leading teachers in the county and has many friends enlisted. He is principal of the public schools of Wilmington, and has a wide influence in the county.

Other reports are being received daily, and further items of interest will be published in the succeeding numbers of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

NEW CIRCLES.

CANADA.—Some Montreal young men between eighteen and twenty years old, having graduated from the Montreal Senior School, have united to form a Chautauqua circle. They will have access to a large microscope and probably a telescope; they all are interested in chemistry and natural philosophy and hope to arrange for a small laboratory.

VERMONT.—An enthusiastic C. L. S. C. has been organized in Thetford.

CONNECTICUT.—A thriving Chautauqua circle was organized at Stafford Springs, on September 12. About a dozen persons joined it to take the current topics seal course, some of whom have read the regular course, others have not. Besides these the membership roll shows a dozen regular readers.

NEW YORK.—Prosperity is gladdening circles recently formed at New York City (W. 95th St.), Panama, Valley Cottage, and West New Brighton.—There are bright prospects for circles at Nyack and New Brighton.—About fifteen persons, most of whom are members of Bushwick Ave. Baptist church, expect to start a circle in Brooklyn.

NEW JERSEY.—There are fine classes at Dunellen and Haddonfield.—The circle at Newton has had

one meeting. Most of its thirty-five members are young women and men in the church and Y.P.S.C.E. All are pleased with the work and anticipate a very pleasant winter.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Mahanoy City has a promising circle of thirteen members.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—At the mass meeting of the District Epworth Leagues held September 14, in Trinity M. E. Church of Washington, the representative of Wesley Chapel told the leaguers how her chapter had formed a Chautauqua circle, and advised all the chapters to form similar circles. The chairman of the meeting added that besides the one circle there are "a hundred scattered Chautauqua readers, who ought to get together and have a rousing circle at some central church." Later news from the chairman says that in the several chapters the literary heads are already at work utilizing the local readers interested in the Chautauqua plan of self-culture. He started in Waugh Chapter a class comprising upwards of twenty readers. They met on September 24 for a fuller organization, hoping that October 1 would find them at work. Wesley Chapel has a fine class again this season. Foundry Chapter has about a dozen individual readers and Dunbarton also has several. So instead of "one rousing circle" there are several distinct circles, that may follow the chairman's advice to the extent of finding an occasional union meeting helpful.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Westbrooke C. L. S. C. of Yorkville has entered into the Chautauqua spirit with a vim. It is progressing well in its studies, and lately has had a series of special programs. The last meeting was Sentimental Night, and the entire program aside from the regular lesson was of a sentimental nature, especially the long report given by the critic of the evening, in which poetry and prose were harmoniously blended. That the sentiment was not without edge may be surmised from the following brief excerpt :

"Now I beseech you, lovely girl,
Till Nature turns your teeth to pearl,
Your neck to snow, your eyes to fire,
Those yellow locks to golden wire,
Attempt not to decree till then
A sentimental sketch again."

TENNESSEE.—A hopeful circle of ten duly organized, reports from Cornersville.—Clonion Literary Club of McMinnville will pursue the Chautauqua reading this winter. On account of a week's delay the club held two meetings the second week in October, which show a good spirit in the direction of success.

ALABAMA.—Some people at Mentone propose to organize a Chautauqua circle among their helpers.

MISSISSIPPI.—Much interest among its present members and a hope for increased membership is the news from a new circle at Luka.

TEXAS.—The new circle at Greenville organized

with twenty-two members. Officers were elected and the name Truth Seekers adopted. The membership was limited to twenty-five. Meetings will be held Friday afternoons at 3 o'clock and adjourned at 4:30.

OHIO.—An enthusiastic circle is in progress at Elyria with at present six full members and others who take part of the reading.

INDIANA.—Seven '98's report from Churubusco,

ILLINOIS.—Nine '98's constitute a class at Pekin, and six '98's one at Evanston.—A Chautauquan at Payson, after having read alone two years, is organizing a circle.

MICHIGAN.—A circle is forming in Albion.

WISCONSIN.—An interesting little neighborhood club at Fort Atkinson is engaged in Chautauqua work.—Elroy expects to have a circle this season.

MINNESOTA.—Minnehaha Circle of Minneapolis holds weekly meetings which are interesting and helpful to all its nine members. They are working on the principle that they get good out of the course in proportion to the effort they put into the work. Their president is a thorough and capable leader.

IOWA.—At Red Oak there is a class of twelve '98's.

KANSAS.—Clifton has a circle.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—The flourishing class at Sioux Falls will probably be joined later by other members.—There is an enterprising class at Canton.

WASHINGTON.—Fort Spokane C. L. S. C. starts on its career with bright prospects.

OLD CIRCLES.

CANADA.—Alpha Circle of Galt, Ontario, has reorganized with a membership of twenty-nine, almost a new class. It expects good work, as much enthusiasm prevails. A graduate class was also formed.—Primrose Circle of Dundas is composed of eighteen zealous members. The circle is divided into three committees, each of which in rotation provides the program. The meetings, held twice a month, are opened with roll call responded to by quotations from an author previously selected. A sketch of the author's life and general conversation on it follows. The required work of the intervening two weeks is reviewed and discussed and papers on subjects relating to the work are introduced. Many of these papers were of unusual interest, notably those relating to the various economic questions of the day. The high school principal gave the circle two most scholarly papers, one on Homer, the other on Virgil. Discussions were very spirited on the subjects, "Heredity *versus* Environment" and "The Ideal as opposed to the Realistic in the Formation of Intellectual Character."

MAINE.—There is a circle at Fryeburg of many years' standing. The majority of its ranks are local members who of the books required in the C.L.S.C. read only THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Last year the circle made Roman history its chief subject and in that

branch was thorough.—News is received from Dirigo Circle of Lewistown.

VERMONT.—Informal Circle of Lyndonville has resumed work.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Hurlbut Circle of East Boston opened its eleventh season in the same parlors where its first meeting of each year has been held. Fifteen were present, of whom three were original members. Owing to the enthusiasm, genius, and versatility in the circle its meetings are well sustained and always enjoyable.—A stirring, prosperous circle of '97's is the Ivy Club of Haverhill.

The Brooklyn Chautauqua Union announcements are out for a course of entertainments for 1894-'5, beginning with a reception, November 5. The program which is good throughout, shows addresses by Bishop John H. Vincent and Maj. Gen. O. O. Howard, the latter presiding on this evening, a reading by Chas. F. Underhill, and music by Miss Anna Park.—Chautauqua Circle of the People's Church, Buffalo, issued neat invitations, printed simply on strips of paper, to its general meeting on October 1. The invitations announced brief addresses upon subjects to be studied during the year, and music.—The circle at Hoosick Falls arranged for its closing exercises of last season a program to include a paper from each class from 1887 to the present time, also an address by the president.—Epworth C. L. S. C. of the First M. E. Church of Jamestown has organized for the winter. Fifty persons were enrolled and much interest manifested. A brief outline was given of the work for the next few weeks, which will begin immediately.—Circles report reorganization at Candor, Three Mile Bay, and Syracuse.

NEW JERSEY.—Before starting out on new work, Beach Circle of Jersey City makes sure of its footing by a review in English and European history, "Science at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century," and "The Germans." The program at hand also includes: sketch, Marie Antoinette; sketch, Empress Josephine; table talk, Corea—the land, the people, and the government; discussion, Is the position taken by Mgr. Satolli on the liquor traffic one which can be sustained? The circle numbers thirty-three.

Tabernacle Circle of the same city begins the season with twenty members, who will meet weekly. They will pursue the regular course and in addition take up addresses, essays, debates, etc. At a recent session, an address was given on "Roman Remains in England" by one who last summer personally inspected the work of the ancients in England.

At its reorganization Una Circle, also of Jersey City, enrolled eleven active and three honorary members. It has retained five of its charter members, who will complete the four years' course in the spring. The circle includes five '98's.

Several new members have joined the Y. M. C. A. Circle, and anticipate a profitable season.

All together seven Chautauqua circles are known to exist in Jersey City, and a union of all the circles in Hudson County is in a fair way to be organized.

PENNSYLVANIA.—In response to a call published by the secretary for Warren County, a meeting of C. L. S. C. members and others interested in the work was held in the public library at Warren, which resulted in a county union. The circle at Glade is prospering and a class is forming at Warren.—Circles at Allegheny and Reading are heard from.—Anthracite Circle of Scranton enters with pleasant anticipations on its eighth year.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—Philologists at Washington are resuming activity, and with other circles of their place are propagating C. L. S. C. work. A number of applications for seal courses have been received from them.

GEORGIA.—The Senecas of Atlanta aim to show by their earnest application their great appreciation of the compliment paid to southern Chautauquans by the naming of the new class for their beloved Southland poet, Lanier.

ALABAMA.—Clara Swift Circle has been organized at Lower Peach Tree, with fifteen members, and Sidney Lanier Circle at Shelby, with a dozen members.—Alexander City has two earnest readers and Wilsonville two.—Talladega has a C. L. S. C. triangle.—Jasper is about to organize a circle that promises to be a success both in size and interest.—On November 4, at Fayette, a band of fifteen entered upon the C. L. S. C. readings and although the circle has been changed by both losses and additions, the meetings have gone on regularly and much good work has been accomplished.

ARKANSAS.—Three '97's report from Huntington.

OHIO.—Three years ago the circle at Akron started with twenty-five members. The next year the number had grown to forty, last year it was eighty-seven, and this year the prospects are good for a hundred.—River View has reorganized at New Richmond and the classes at Forest and New London.—News of festivities comes from the circle at Lithopolis.—St. John's C. L. S. C. at Toledo is prospering.—The class at Attica reorganized with four new members.—Fourteen persons constitute the class at Harbor. The meetings are attended by all but three of last year's members.—The circle at Geneva enjoyed in the spring two excellent lectures, one on the South and the other on Life in East London. Both of the speakers had visited the scenes they so forcibly discussed.

INDIANA.—Nucleus Club of Summit Grove is an active band.—There is a circle at Greenwood.

ILLINOIS.—Encouraging word is received from Bryant Circle of Hyde Park, Chicago. Outlook Circle, also of Chicago, makes use freely of postal cards on which to send out printed notices of its meetings. This class is ingenious in the application

of its knowledge.—Carlville has a class of '95's. —The new year's studies are being tackled by circles at Elgin and Malden.—The circle at Brighton took up its regular labors the first Tuesday evening in October, with every member present, hopeful and interested for the coming year. The regular pro-

gram was followed and plans for the welfare of the circle discussed. If something of importance happens to prevent this circle from holding its meeting on Tuesday, it manages to find some other evening in the week for it, as all of its nine members realize the importance of the work as an aid to culture.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

The Christmas publications are given the preference in the reviews of the month. They comprise so great a variety both in matter and in form as to make anything like a correct classification impossible. All fields of literature have been garnered and all realms of the book-maker's art ransacked for the thought, the taste, and the material which has furnished this great output, and the satisfactory results are such as must meet all requirements.

Holiday Editions of Standard Works. Green's "History of the English People" is held by common consent to be the most important general history of England ever written. Compassing a period reaching from the earliest record of the land down to the year 1815, which saw the downfall of Napoleon, its value lies not alone in the careful and accurate information given, but also in the vigorous and interesting style in which it is told. It is published in four volumes of convenient size and of durable and attractive form.

That well known and highly estimated work, Mr. McCarthy's "History of our Own Times,"† appears in a new edition which has added to the original work, supplementary chapters, bringing the history down to the year 1894. Special interest centers about these new chapters. Even a cursory reading plainly reveals the fact that the writer is largely possessed of a subtle sympathetic spirit which has enabled him to enter into the mental attitude of the original author and to complete this account in a manner well in keeping with the earlier record. For an attractive bird's-eye view of modern English history no better standpoint can be found than the one furnished by this production.

When Mrs. Oliphant turned from successful novel writing to the field of historical literature she did not lay aside the facile grace which her pen had acquired in the former domain. In "The Victorian Age of English Literature,"‡ the fine critical studies of the works considered and the terse biographical narratives of their writers flow as smoothly and win the attention as readily as do the pages of her popular

fiction. She is frank, fearless, and discriminating in her estimates, and has made this work a remarkable one in comprehensiveness and completeness.

A work which has been before the public for a long time and whose value time only enhances, is Welsh's "Development of English Literature and Language."* Perhaps no production of its kind ever won more unqualifiedly the praise of all critics. Historically, philosophically, and in a literary sense it takes high rank. It discusses the biography of the writers, their works, style, rank, and character; it studies the marked characteristics of each literary period; and gives selections from the works of the authors. There is left nothing wanting which can be demanded of a complete work.

A treasure house of knowledge regarding the literature of the far East has been recently opened to the reading world by Elizabeth A. Reed, who is widely known as an orientalist. Dealing with a subject which to the uninitiated seems bristling with difficulties, she has invested the whole with a deep interest. In her opening pages she brings strong proof to bear against the prevalent idea that the Veda is centuries older than the Old Testament writings. The full and clear studies made of these oriental productions and the many well selected specimens given make the book a successful and valuable one.

Boswell's "Life of Johnson,"‡ that work without which no library is complete and which never fails to interest, instruct, and amuse its readers, appears in two handsome volumes substantially bound and containing numerous portraits of the distinguished characters mentioned. The Introduction is a fine preparation for the work to follow, being a well rounded and forcible character study of the great author.

A fine large illustrated edition of Scott's poetical works|| comes out at this season with an admirable introduction pointing out the secrets of the poet's hold on the popular heart of the world, and with a succinct and sympathetic sketch of his life.

* History of the English People. Four vols. 2,041 pp. \$5.00. By John Richard Green, M. A.—† A History of Our Own Times. By Justin McCarthy. With Introduction and Supplementary Chapters by G. Mercer Adams. Two vols. 649+890 pp. \$5.50.—‡ The Victorian Age of English Literature. By Mrs. Oliphant. Two vols. 647 pp. \$3.50. New York: Lovell, Coryell & Company.

* Development of English Literature and Language. By Alfred H. Welsh, A.M. Two vols. 1,100 pp. \$4.00.—† Hindu Literature. By Elizabeth A. Reed. 410 pp. \$3.00. Chicago: S. C. Griggs and Company.

‡ Boswell's Life of Johnson. Edited with an Introduction by Mowbray Morris. Two vols. 590+609 pp. \$3.00.—|| The

In the Handy Volume Series, so pleasing to all book lovers, appears Byron's *Childe Harold*.* The text is illustrated from photogravures of places mentioned. An appendix contains many clear explanatory notes.

Irving's "Tales of a Traveller"† with a new Introduction containing a clear biographical account of the author and a critical study of his literary style and influence, and also an addendum of several pages of explanatory notes, has been published under the name of a Student's Edition. Its editor had in view the requirements of students of English literature, and well has he met their wants.

A volume of selections from the works of Goldsmith‡ and one of selected essays from Addison|| form attractive companion works for the holiday season. For the former Edward Everett Hale has written an introduction giving a succinct personal history of the queer, lovable man; and of the author of the latter collection and his work, Mr. Winchester has made a fine introductory study.

A gem in beauty is a small volume of Longfellow's "Evangeline" § in its violet binding. The best of paper and of printing is shown in the work, and numerous fine and original illustrations embellish its pages.

Poetry. The poems ¶ of Richard Watson Gilder, previously published in five small volumes, are collected and revised and fourteen new poems added. The fervid lines so richly freighted with melody proclaim the born lyrist, while their grace and finish recall the words of a brother singer,

"To thee our love and our allegiance
For thy allegiance to the poet's art."

Poetic imagery, freshness of thought, rare command of expressive phrase, and faultlessness of form are among the notable qualities of William Watson's verse. This new edition,** revised by the author, contains four elegiac poems, several pages of epigrams, each a gem, a long poem entitled "The Prince's Quest," and many on miscellaneous subjects. The binding of dark blue will bear the frequent handling which the book is sure to get.—"The Humours of the Court"†† is founded on two

Complete Poetical Works of Sir Walter Scott. With an Introduction by Charles Eliot Norton. Biographical Sketch by Nathan Haskell Dole. Two vols. 770 pp. \$3.00.—* *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*. By Lord Byron. 283 pp. 75 cts. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

† *Tales of a Traveller*. By Washington Irving. Edited by William Lyon Phelps. 558 pp. \$1.00. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

‡ *Oliver Goldsmith*. A selection from his works. 287 pp. \$1.00. || *Selected Essays of Joseph Addison*; 175 pp. 75 cts. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

§ *Evangeline*. 125 pp. \$1.50. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.

¶ *Five Books of Song*. By Richard Watson Gilder. 240 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.

** *The Poems of William Watson*. 238 pp.—†† *The Humours*

Spanish comedies and is written in smooth and flowing measure.

That Langdon E. Mitchell inherits in large degree the poetic gifts of his father, Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, is evidenced by the little volume of poems* on many subjects, all graceful, pleasing, and full of promise.—The Cambridge edition of Whittier's poems† is a stout volume bound in garnet and enriched by a fine etching of the poet and his home at Amesbury. There is also a biographical sketch.

A collection of the best of Faber's hymns‡ forms a lyric treasury. Add to this fifty delicate wash drawings by L. J. Bridgman and a biographical sketch by N. H. Dole, the whole bound in beautifully designed covers of white and gold, and no more desirable gift book could be found.—A new illustrated edition of "The Light of Asia"|| is an acceptable addition to the Handy Volume Series. There is a good portrait of the author and four illustrations by W. St. John Harper.

The society verse of "Point Lace and Diamonds"§ has long been familiar, and the vest-pocket sized book of selections from it has quite a fetching air.—With covers strewn with purple and white violets comes a new edition of Lowell's *Poems*¶ sumptuously illustrated by Edmund M. Ashe.

The whimsical and humorous predominate in the handful of verses gathered in "A Patch of Pansies,"** but none the less sweet and true to pitch are the tender and pathetic ones.—Parts of the Bible story of the Book of Esther have been adopted by the author of "Vashti"†† and with much amplification made into a poem of considerable merit. The strong nature of the woman who dared ignore the command of her king and husband, the courage of Esther, and the love of race of Mordecai are well brought out.

Popular Translations. The reported discovery made in an ancient convent by a holy monk, of a ceiling painting by one of the old masters, which had been long hidden away under several coats of whitewash, led a connoisseur in art to journey to the spot that he might behold the picture. While

of the Court and Other Poems. By Robert Bridges. 185 pp. New York: Macmillan and Co.

* *Poems*. By Langdon Elwyn Mitchell (John Philip Varley). 118 pp. \$1.25.—† *The Complete Works of John Greenleaf Whittier*. 542 pp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

‡ *Faber's Hymns*. 248 pp. \$1.25.—|| *The Light of Asia*. By Sir Edwin Arnold. 233 pp. 75 cts. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

§ *Selections from Point Lace and Diamonds*. By George A. Baker. Illustrated by Moore Smith. 105 pp. 75 cts.—¶ *Poems*. By James Russell Lowell. 337 pp. \$1.50. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.

** *A Patch of Pansies*. By J. Edmund V. Cooke. 89 pp.—

†† *Vashti—A Poem in Seven Books*. By John Brayshaw Kaye. 166 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

there he saw a second revelation more wonderful than the first, that of the soul of a brother traveler with its intrinsic merit, which had been long concealed under the base coverings, the selfishness, the sins of life, and was now discovered by the same clear seeing eyes which had found the first picture. Such is the trend of a forcible sketch by Paul Bourget named "A Saint."*

If any one would know what social satire is and what is its power, he should read Molière. The great comic dramatist who knew so well how to turn the laugh on the foibles of society, did, perhaps, his best work in "The Misanthrope," "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," "Tartuffe," "Les Precieuses Ridicules," and "George Dandin." The translator though very free in her renderings has with a delicate art preserved the spirit of the original. These fine works are published in two attractive volumes † which is a fine expression of the bookmaker's art.

Daudet's "Tartarin on the Alps," ‡ the story of that bragging comical humbug who has furnished rich entertainment to so many readers has been revised in its translation and republished in a small handy volume with numerous illustrations.

"The Count of Monte Cristo" and "The Three Musketeers" || are doubtless the leading stories of Dumas, that prince among story-tellers, and the handsome volumes in which the new editions appear form a fine setting for the illustrious contents. Added value is given by their many illustrations, the work of leading artists.

A neat set of six volumes in blue covers and gilt tops put up in a box, comprises four others of the historical romances of Dumas, "The She-Wolves of Machecoul," "The Corsican Brothers," "The Whites and the Blues," and "The Companions of Jehu," the latter two works being classed as The Napoleon Romances. This Walter Scott of French literature, with his happy faculty of weaving historical incidents into the fancies of romance, throws into his multitudinous works a certain fascination which never allows him to become wearisome. The books are well illustrated with etchings, steel engravings, photogravures, and half tones.

* A Saint. Translated from Paul Bourget's "Pastels of Men," by Katharine Prescott Wormeley. 82 pp. \$1.00.—† Molière. Translated by Katharine Prescott Wormeley. Two vols. 324+331 pp. \$1.50 per vol. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

‡ Tartarin on the Alps. With Illustrations. By Alphonse Daudet. 235 pp. 75 cts.—|| The Count of Monte Cristo. Two vols. 539+555 pp. \$3.00.—The Three Musketeers. Two vols. 373-355 pp. \$3.00. By Alexandre Dumas. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

§ The She Wolves of Machecoul, to which is added The Corsican Brothers. Two vols. 571+580 pp.—The Whites and the Blues. Two vols. 416+439 pp.—The Companions of Jehu. Two vols. 300+349 pp. By Alexandre Dumas. \$1.25 per volume. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company.

Two works* on Napoleon by Mr. Masson have revealed many satisfactory and useful sketches of Napoleon in private life, and also a great amount of what deserves no better name than gossip. In spite of the author's plea in his well-elaborated introductions,—that in order thoroughly to know a person, to be able to make a complete estimate of his character, knowledge must be had of every phase of his life,—he cannot convince thinking readers that there was a shadow of necessity for much of the information he has detailed, especially in the volume treating of Napoleon as lover and husband. Many parts of it awaken disgust in the reader and add nothing whatever to the work as a character study in the large sense which it was the aim of the book to do. The author's style is agreeable, his ability is marked, and a careful winnowing would leave two valuable works.

The public life of Napoleon was very vividly narrated by Alexandre Dumas, but for some strange reason no English translation of it has ever been made until the very recent and admirable one by Mr. Larnier.† In chapters full of movement the history is borne rapidly along through the different phases of that wonderful career. During Napoleon's early years of preparation, during his generalship, his reign as consul, and as emperor, during his fall and his days of exile, the interested reader traces his whole history. Great pains was taken to make the translation a literal one, so that it retains the original force and merit.

For the Young Easily taking the lead for artistic
Folks. beauty among the holiday books for
the young is "Children of Colonial Days."* The full page pictures after paintings in water color by E. Percy Moran show a perfection of color seldom attained in reproduction, while the decorative borders of quaint and dainty children in monochrome by Elizabeth Tucker are done with rare skill.—A veritable treasury, † as its name implies, is one containing verses by Edith M. Thomas, Elizabeth S. Tucker, and Helen Gray Cone, besides short stories, fairy tales, and Mother Goose jingles. The hundred and forty vignette illustrations after Maud Humphrey are in that artist's well-known pleasing style.

"The Century Book for Young Americans" ‡

* Napoleon and the Fair Sex. By Frédéric Masson. 320 pp. \$2.00.—Napoleon at Home. Two vols. 198+248 pp. By Frédéric Masson. Translated by James E. Matthew. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

† Napoleon. By Alexandre Dumas. Translated from the French by John B. Larnier. 250 pp. \$1.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

* Children of Colonial Days. Stories and Verses by Elizabeth S. Tucker. 38 pp. \$2.00. † A Treasury of Stories, Jingles, and Rhymes. 251 pp. \$1.50. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.

‡ The Century Book for Young Americans. By Elbridge S.

shows "how a party of boys and girls who knew how to use their eyes and ears found out all about the government of the United States." The illustrations are numerous and excellent, and the story well told.—Thirty-one folk-stories of the Pueblos recounted by one who got them from the Indians themselves form the tempting feast offered in "The Man Who Married the Moon."* George Wharton Edwards furnishes the spirited illustrations.—A charmingly written account of the oddities of Holland occupies the first half of "The Land of Pluck."† The rest of the volume is filled with bright short stories by the same author, and the whole is pleasingly illustrated.—"When Life is Young"‡ is a collection of verse by the same author as the preceding, accompanied by the pictures made for them on their appearance in a juvenile magazine. The contrast between the crude wood cuts of a few years ago and the delicate sketches of to-day is a rather trying one for the wood cuts.—"Toinette's Philip" || is a charming story beautifully illustrated by Birch.—Fancy runs riot in Tudor Jenks' "Truthless Tales."§ The illustrations by Dan Beard and other popular artists depict admirably the whimsical ideas of the author.—¶ "The Brownies Around the World," the latest of the series of Brownie books, describes in picture and verse new adventures of these amusing little people, their trip across the Atlantic and their sight-seeing in the principal countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa.

A very bright and lovable little heroine is "Hope Benham,"** though perhaps a trifle dignified and self-contained for her age, and the story of her school life is an absorbing one. The illustrations by Frank T. Merrill accord well with the author's descriptions.

It is a pleasure to note that the demand for "Timothy's Quest" †† has called out a new edition of this little classic. There is a novel mingling of realism and idealism in the pictures by Herford.

The numerous illustrations of "The Farmer's Boy" †† are from photographs, the subjects being posed with a commendable lack of the stiffness that is often painful in such groupings. The vignetted half-tones are especially artistic. Well written

descriptions of life on a farm during the four seasons accompany the pictures. Heavy paper, gilt edges, and tasteful binding combine to form an acceptable gift-book.—That pretty idyl "Paul and Virginia,"* a popular favorite for over a hundred years, has been given a handsome setting in harmony with the chaste simplicity and elegance of the author's style. Of this story Bonaparte was in the habit of saying whenever he saw St. Pierre, "When do you mean to give us more Pauls and Virginias? You ought to give us some every six months."

The beautiful stories † of Wagner's operas as told to a little girl by her father, who sees the actors in the embers of the fireplace, cannot fail to delight an imaginative child. Truth, self-sacrifice, and constancy are among the lessons that may be learned therein.

The sweet songs of childhood that the great poets have sung have been collected and form a thoroughly good book ‡ for the little folks to read and reread. A classification of subjects, index of authors, and short biographical sketches are commendable features, but many of the illustrations are of rather poor quality.—The story of a Yankee waif among the Bluenoses || is told with considerable spirit and teaches incidentally lessons of manliness and generosity.

Four good books for a Sunday school library are "Following the Star," § "Godfrey Brenz," ¶ "The Little Lady of Lavender," § and "How John and I Brought up the Child."** The first is a story of the Wise Men of the East, the second deals with the sixteenth century persecution of "heretics," the third is a charming story of a wee winsome maid who might be a sister of little Lord Fauntleroy, so much sweetness and light does she shed about her, and the fourth, the winner of a prize of \$400 offered by the American Sunday School Union, shows how the problem of bringing up a child was wrought in a Christian home.

Christmas Miscellany.

"Between the Lights" ††† is a religious day book, filled with thoughts suitable for the quiet twilight hour. The selections have been freely chosen from all sources, and will

Brooks. 249 pp. \$1.50.—* The Man Who Married the Moon, and Other Pueblo Indian Folk-Stories. By Charles F. Lummis. 240 pp. \$1.50.—† The Land of Pluck. By Mary Mapes Dodge. 313 pp. \$1.50. ‡ When Life is Young. By Mary Mapes Dodge. 255 pp. \$1.25.—|| Toinette's Philip. By Mrs. C. V. Jamison. 236 pp. \$1.50.—§ Imaginations. Truthless Tales. By Tudor Jenks. 230 pp. \$1.50. ¶ The Brownies Around the World. By Palmer Cox. 144 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Company.

** Hope Benham. A Story for Girls. By Nora Perry. 322 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

†† Timothy's Quest. By Kate Douglas Wiggin. 259 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

‡† The Farmer's Boy. Text and illustrations by Clifton John-

son. 116 pp. \$2.50.—* Paul and Virginia. By Bernardin St. Pierre. With a biographical sketch. Illustrated by Maurice Leloir. 174 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† The Wagner Story Book. By William Henry Frost. Illustrated. 245 pp. \$1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡ Royal Echoes. Compiled by Julia A. Watkins. 304 pp.—

|| Tan Pile Jim. By Freeman Ashley. Illustrated. 259 pp. Chicago: Laird & Lee.

§ Following the Star. By Y. L. 249 pp. 90 cts. ¶ Godfrey Brenz. By Sarah J. Jones. 208 pp. 80 cts. § The Little Lady of Lavender. By Theodora C. Enalle. 320 pp. \$1.25. **How

John and I Brought up the Child. By Elizabeth Grinnell. 233 pp. 80 cts. Philadelphia: The American Sunday School Union.

†† Between the Lights. Compiled and arranged by Fanny B.

infuse courage, joy, and inspiration in the hearts of readers.—A companion volume is "At Dawn of Day"* a collection of thoughts fitted to help and strengthen one during the busy labors of the day. Many of the choicest gems of Christian thoughts are to be found in its pages.

A practical book for thoughtful men is "Religion and Business."† Each one of the short chapters is a strong, convincing sermon showing how closely interwoven, whether acknowledgment is made of the fact or not, are the affairs of secular and of religious life.

"Forty Witnesses to Success"‡ is an interesting book based upon the responses sent by eminent leaders to questions asked concerning the best methods of living. It is religious in its character and filled with thoughts that enrich and ennoble life.

Among the peculiarly interesting characters of American literature stands Lucy Larcom. In her quiet, thoughtful life mental images took precedence of all others and their expression in poetry made her name widely known. This partial acquaintance makes a book § giving an account of her life and extracts from her letters and journals, revealing the personality of the woman, very welcome. A large reading was awaiting such a work as Mr. Addison now offers, which work proves a most satisfactory one.

One would surely look long for a more interesting guide through England than Mr. Davis has proved himself to be in "Our English Cousins."§ Keenly observant, he detects everything of an interesting nature, and his facile pen readily adapts itself to the variety of scenes and incidents described. An exciting political meeting, a jolly festival or frolic, a glimpse into direful poverty, are some of the changing scenes to which he leads his readers.

"Five perplexing phases of the boy question" are considered in a bright work called "Before He is Twenty."¶ Each phase, in the hands of an able writer who has already won recognition as being especially able in the line treated, is presented in a forcible, novel, and effective manner. Parents can gather from these pages many hints which will help them decide as to the perplexities arising concerning home government.

Bates. 441 pp. \$1.25.—* At Dawn of Day. Compiled and arranged by Jeanie A. Bates Greenough. 444 pp. \$1.75.—† Religion and Business. By Henry A. Stimson. 149 pp. 75 cents.—‡ Forty Witnesses to Success. Talks to Young Men. By Charles Townsend. 148 pp. 75 cents New York: Anson D. F. Randolph and Company.

§ Lucy Larcom, Life, Letters, and Diary. By Daniel Dulany Addison. 295 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

§ Our English Cousins. By Richard Harding Davis. 228 pp. New York: Harper & Brothers.

¶ Before He is Twenty. By Robert J. Burdette, Frances Hodgson Burnett, Edward W. Bok, Mrs. Burton Harrison, Mrs. Lyman Abbott. With portraits of the authors. 104 pp.

A book that will appeal to mothers' hearts especially and suggest many helpful things to mothers' minds is a small volume entitled "At Mother's Knee."*

"The Sistine Madonna, a Christmas Meditation,"† is an appreciative study of this "the most beautiful picture in the world," and a reverent and beautiful inquiry concerning the meaning of the lives of the Mother and her holy Child.

Mrs. Bolton has added to the list of her useful and popular biographies a new one containing short graphic sketches of Napoleon Bonaparte, Horatio Nelson, John Bunyan, Thomas Arnold, Wendell Phillips, Henry Ward Beecher, Charles Kingsley, General Sherman, Charles H. Spurgeon, and Phillips Brooks. Under the title "Famous Leaders Among Men"‡ she throws these characters into one classification; and in her treatment brings out distinctly the individual characteristics of each.

A year book filled with the best thoughts to be gathered in literature concerning the conduct of life is entitled Golden Words for Daily Counsel."§

"Character Studies"§ comprises brief memorial sketches and recollections of Edward Irving, Anna Jameson, Washington Irving, Longfellow, Bryant, and Cogswell. Sympathetic in their nature, they recall many of the good things said by others about these characters and throw some new side lights upon them.

"The Use of Life"¶ is a book of short chapters giving careful consideration to the most important themes. The deductions drawn in every case from the logical argument advanced are just optimistic enough in character to make them serve as impulsive motives in the hearts of others.

In "Providential Epochs,"** Dr. Bristol sketches in strong, and rapid outlines four of the pivotal eras in the history of the world—the Renaissance, the Reformation, the discovery of America, and the settlement of our country. About a few leading geniuses, who stand as the representatives of their times, the "history-making personalities of the age," he weaves the story of the period. Accurate in detail, rich in imagery, commanding in style, the

75 cents.—† At Mother's Knee. By J. M. P. Otis, D. D. 175 pp. \$1.00. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company.

* The Sistine Madonna. By Amory H. Bradford. 211 pp. New York: Fords, Howard, & Hulbert.

§ Famous Leaders Among Men. By Sarah Knowles Bolton. 404 pp. \$1.50.—§ Golden Words for Daily Counsel. Selected and arranged by Anna Harris Smith. Edited by Huntington Smith. 372 pp. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

* Character Studies. By the Author of "Salad for the Solitary and the Social," "Pasmine Papers," etc. 177 pp. \$1.00. New York: Thomas Whittaker.

* The Use of Life. By the Right Hon. Sir John Lubbock, Bart. M. P. 316 pp. \$1.25. New York: Macmillan and Co.

† Providential Epochs. By Frank M. Bristol, D. D. 269 pp. \$1.25. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis. New York: Hunt & Eaton.

separate articles—originally given as lectures—appeal alike to profound learning and to popular favor.

As one of the valuable results of recent anthropological study a series of books on the subject is to be published. The first one* in the list has already been issued and is devoted to woman's part of the works of the world during its earlier history. Its revelations make very evident the fact that the term "the weaker sex" as applied to them could only have been coined in modern times. The part these far away ancestors of the present race of women took in all fields of labor made them emphatically the burden bearers of their time. What they accomplished, how they worked, how they were rewarded, and the fact that most modern institutions are in reality founded upon the work of primitive women, are clearly shown. The work is well illustrated.

The International Teachers' Edition of the Bible,† which is distinguished as the "Self-Explanatory Reference Bible," seems to have added the last possible improvement in the line of ready helps to the study of the Word. Embodying all the remarkable features of other editions—the special study of the books of the Bible, the history of the Bible, the helps to Bible study, the concordance, the maps, etc.—this edition has also, instead of merely indicating references to other allied passages of Scripture, printed in full the verses themselves between the double columns of the pages. In clear type, of convenient size, with its flexible covers, there is nothing wanting which the bookmaker's art can supply.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of Holiday publications, see page 225 to 256.

* Woman's Share in Primitive Culture By Otis Tufton Mason, A. M., Ph. D. 295 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† The International Teachers' Edition of the Holy Bible. \$9.00. New York: International Bible Agency.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

D. APPLETON AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.

- Radcliffe, A. G. Schools and Masters of Sculpture. \$3.00.
 Hope, Anthony. The God in the Car. A Novel. 50 cts.
 Seawell, M. Elliot. Decatur and Somers.
 Maclay, Edgar S., A. M. History of the United States Navy. 2 vols. \$7.00.
 Stoddard, William O. Chris, the Model Maker. \$1.50.
 Schultz, Jeanne. Madeleine's Rescue. \$1.00.
 Butterworth, Hezekiah. The Patriot Schoolmaster. \$1.50.
 Stagg, A. Alonzo and Henry L. Williams. Treatise on American Football. \$1.25.
 Huxley, Thomas H. Evolution and Ethics. \$1.25.
 Davidson, Thomas. The Education of the Greek People. \$1.50.

THE CENTURY COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Muir, John. The Mountains of California. \$1.50.

MACMILLAN & CO., NEW YORK.

Salt, Henry S. Animals' Rights. 75 cts.

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS, NEW YORK.

- Porter, J. Hampden. Wild Beasts. \$2.00.
 Murray, Aaron, Dr. Eugene, F. E. S., F. Z. S. E. The Butterfly Hunters of the Caribbees. \$2.00.
 Kingsley, Henry. The Recollections of Geoffrey Hamlyn. 2 vols. \$2.00.

The Life and Letters of Charles Loring Brace. Edited by his Daughter. \$2.50.

HARPER & BROTHERS, NEW YORK.

Lloyd, Henry Demarest. Wealth Against Commonwealth.

JOHNS HOPKINS PRESS, BALTIMORE.

Public Treatment of Pauperism. Edited by John H. Finley, Ph. D.

G. F. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK.

- Kelley, James P. The Law of Service.
 Social England. Edited by H. D. Traill, D. C. L. 2 vols.
 Ropes, John Codman. The Story of the Civil War. \$1.50.
 About Women. Chosen and Arranged by Rose Porter. \$1.00.
 Hosmer, James K. How Thankful Was Bewitched. 50 cts.

F. TENNYSON NEELY, CHICAGO AND NEW YORK.

Zola, Émile. Lourdes. \$1.25.

ROBERTS BROTHERS, BOSTON.

- Partridge, William Ordway. Art for America. \$1.00.
 Webster, Leigh. Another Girl's Experience. \$1.25.
 Coolidge, Susan. Not Quite Eighteen. \$1.25.

THOMAS Y. CROWELL & CO., NEW YORK.

- Brown, Anna Robertson, Ph. D. The Victory of Our Faith. 35 cts.
 Maeterlinck, Maurice. Pelléas and Mélisande. Translated by Irving Winslow. \$1.00.
 Rice, William North, Ph. D., LL. D. Twenty-five Years of Scientific Progress. 75 cts.
 Miller, J. R., D. D. Secrets of Happy Home Life. 35 cts.

A. D. WORTHINGTON & CO., HARTFORD, CONN.

Clark, Rev. Francis E., D. D. Our Journey Around the World.

W. J. SHUEY, DAYTON, O.

Drury, Rev. M. R., D. D. The Pastor's Companion. 75 cts.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & CO., BOSTON AND NEW YORK.

- Wright, William Burnet. Master and Men. \$1.25.
 Deland, Margaret. Philip and His Wife. \$1.25.
 Scudder, Horace E. Childhood in Literature and Art. \$1.25.

HUNT & EATON, NEW YORK; CRANSTON & CURTS, CINCINNATI.

- Corn Flower Stories. 6 vols. Illustrated. \$1.75.
 Wright, John W. Christ in Myth and Legend. 50 cts.
 Roberts, Charles G. D. The Raid from Beauséjour. \$1.00.
 Thompson, D. D. Abraham Lincoln. 90 cts.
 Potts, James H., D. D. The Lord's Sabbath Day. 25 cts.
 Currie, Isabel Frances. Gala Day Books. 4 vols. \$1.50.
 Hurlbut, Jesse L., and Robert R. Doherty. Illustrative Notes on the Sunday-School Lessons. \$1.25.
 Dickinson, Mary Lowe. Three Times and Out. 75 cts.

LEE AND SHEPARD, BOSTON.

Jerome, Irene E. The Jerome Banners. 50 cts. each.

FLEMING H. REVELL COMPANY, NEW YORK.

- Horton, Robert F., M. A., D. D. The Cartoons of St. Mark.
 Dawson, Sir J. William, LL. D., F. R. S. The Meeting-Place of Geology and History. \$1.25.
 Bishop, Isabella Bird, F. R. G. S. Among the Thibetans. \$1.00.
 Herron, George D., D. D. The Christian Society. \$1.00.
 Bruen, Louisa Jay. Poems for Young Persons. 75 cts.

ANSON D. F. RANDOLPH AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Markwick, W. Fisher. Fundamentals. 75 cts.

Harland, Marion. The Royal Road. \$1.50.

JAMES POTT & CO., NEW YORK.

Abreast of the Times. A Course of Sermons on Social Subjects.

FREDERICK A. STOKES CO., NEW YORK.

- Tucker, E. S. A Year of Paper Dolls. 75 cts.
 The Old Woman in the Shoe Calendar. 50 cts.
 The Polar Bear Calendar. 50 cts.

D. LOTHROP COMPANY, BOSTON.

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THE MEDICINAL PROPERTIES AND CURATIVE POWERS OF BUFFALO LITHIA WATER.

PURE water at ordinary temperature is devoid of taste and smell, transparent and nearly colorless. It is widely distributed in nature, permeating the soil and most of the known rocks, and is *remarkable* for its solvent powers, that is, its capacity to unite with or take up into itself various solids, liquids, and gaseous substances. Hence, pure water, except as an artificial product, is unknown, and all natural waters have their characters modified by the presence of foreign matters. That which falls from the clouds as rain or snow-water holds in solution, besides the gases nitrogen, oxygen, and carbonic acid dissolved from the atmosphere, small portions of ammonia and nitrous compounds, and a minute but variable amount of mineral matters which were previously suspended in the air.

After falling on the earth these same waters become further impregnated with foreign ingredients. From decaying vegetation they take up two kinds of substances; first the organic product of decomposition—the so called soluble organic matters; and second, the mineral matters which form an essential part of all vegetation, but are for the most part liberated in soluble forms during the slow decay.

When the atmospheric waters sink into the soil, they undergo still further changes, dependent upon the nature of the strata through which they pass. Hence the ordinary waters of wells and springs, supplied by this filtration, differ very much in their composition from superficial waters.

Besides these reactions which depend upon the mineral matters previously dissolved by the atmospheric waters, there are others, not less important, due to the direct action of the water and its dissolved gases on the solid rocks, in virtue of which the silicated minerals of these are decomposed with the liberation in a soluble form, of certain of their elements. In this way large quantities of alkalis, lime, and magnesia are set free and are dissolved in the form of carbonates, together with a considerable portion of silica. This process of decaying has been going on from remote ages, and has effected the decomposition and disinte-

gration of vast portions of the crystalline rocks, while immense amounts of soluble matter have been added to the waters of the earth.

Pressure also exercises an important influence on the solvent power of water, as also does heat: Some substances, insoluble in cold water, possess a considerable degree of solubility at 212 degrees; while others, apparently insoluble at this point, enter into solution in water when heated under pressure to temperatures considerably higher.

With this explanation, the reader will better understand what is to follow with reference to the medicinal properties and curative powers of mineral springs.

Mineral springs are those which are impregnated with minerals to such a degree as to possess medicinal properties. They differ from ordinary springs by the large volume of gases and the mineral ingredients held in solution in these waters, and the peculiar smell, taste, and sometimes color imparted by the solution. The thousands of mineral springs in foreign countries and in our own which have become fashionable health-restoring resorts, are not the result of man's ingenuity, nor can man always explain how or whence they come. Some issue from the earth like vapors, foaming and steaming; others with a continuous or intermittent noise, gurgling and hissing. Some break in boiling heat through a crust of ice and snow, and some issue with almost icy coldness from many a luxuriant vegetation.

The ancients ascribed supernatural properties to those springs, and their priests placed their sanctuaries near them. Such places were provided not only with baths, hospitals, and medical schools, but with theaters and other resorts for amusement, and were designed both for worship and for the cure of the sick. Philostratus says that the Greek soldiers wounded in the battle of Caicus were healed by the waters of Agamemnon's spring near Smyrna. Josephus relates that Herod sought relief from his terrible disease in the thermal springs Callirrhoe; and we learn from Horace how the Romans used the springs of Tiberias,

and had their favorite health resorts in the mountains and along the coast.

Many theories, both natural and supernatural, have been advanced by philosophers in all ages to account for the curative properties of mineral springs; and it is still admitted that in connection with such waters, nature exhibits phenomena in various parts of the world, which, in accordance with the theories of natural philosophy, are susceptible of no explanation.

It might be supposed, at first thought, that the therapeutic action of mineral water could be accurately determined by a study of its chemical ingredients. Yet so many complex and varied phenomena are connected with this subject that the best evidence of its therapeutical power is that obtained from clinical observation. Careful experiments have shown that water can dissolve minute quantities of the minerals known to be most difficult of solution, and physicians recognize that substances thus held in natural solution, as found in the Natural Mineral Waters, have a much more marked effect upon the system than many times the quantity given in a dried form.

We do not fully appreciate the fact that water is the universal solvent and that when charged with medicinal materials it courses through the whole system, applying these remedies, held in solution, to the diseased surfaces and tissues. While we know that all the materials found in medicinal waters, being in solution must be absorbed with the water and carried to all parts of the system, yet a careful study of the clinical results obtained from the use of these mineral waters warrants the statement that there are effects produced which cannot be explained from a theoretical standpoint nor by the analysis of the waters. The following statement of Dr. Hunter McGuire, Pres. and Prof. of Surgery, in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Richmond, Va., expressed with reference to the Buffalo Lithia Waters, well illustrates this fact: "Whatever may be the published analysis of this water, I know from the constant use of it personally and in my practice that *the results obtained from its use are far beyond those which would be warranted by the analysis given.* I am of the opinion that it either contains some wonderful remedial agent as yet undiscovered by medical science, or its elements are so delicately combined in Nature's laboratory, that they defy the utmost skill of the chemist to solve the

secret of their power."

These celebrated springs lie quietly among the hills of Southern Virginia, several hundred feet above the level of the sea, and have attained a reputation for the beneficial and curative powers of their waters in a greater variety of human maladies than any known mineral water of the American continent, rivaling even the famed waters of Europe.

The medicinal properties of these waters have been known for nearly a century. The springs are said to have received their name from the prevalence of buffaloes in this region many years ago. The Lithia is a more modern addition made after the discovery of Spring No. 2, which contains Lithia, a new alkali found in a rare mineral called petalite, an ingredient of inestimable value, seldom occurring in mineral waters.

It is this spring of which General Roger A. Pryor wrote: "For many years I have suffered severely from dyspepsia and insomnia, but after drinking the water for six months I found myself *entirely relieved* of these painful maladies. To no other cause, beside the use of the water, can I attribute my recovery, nor do I know of any auxiliary agent that conduced to my cure."

It was during the year 1873 that the wonderful Spring No. 2 was first brought to notice, and an analysis of its waters made known. Honorable Roscoe Conkling, speaking of the water from this spring, writes as follows: "Buffalo Lithia Water was first brought to my notice last year while suffering from severe malarial disorder. I say 'malarial' because the doctors said so. After trying other remedies, without benefit, I found prompt relief from the water, and when there has been any return of my unpleasant symptoms, it has always relieved me." Several to whom I have recommended it make like favorable report of it. *I am a strong believer in its power as an 'antidote' to the 'acids,' which it neutralizes.* I have pleasure in saying this, and shall continue to advise my neighbors and acquaintances to try the water." As a tonic, alterative, diuretic, and anti-dyspeptic, it is unequalled, and, what is more remarkable, its reputation suffers no disparagement or detriment from time, trial, or competition but has constantly advanced and maintained all the virtues and efficacy claimed for its waters. These waters are considered equally efficacious at all seasons, and shipped all through the year. The gaseous contents are very small

in comparison with those in most mineral waters, and, as a necessary consequence, preserves its properties, when bottled and exported, to a much greater extent. The waters from all the springs are clear as crystal, cool, pleasant, and exhilarating, as they issue from the earth, and have but little, if anything, in taste or odor to distinguish them from ordinary water. The uniform flow of each spring is not affected by continual rains or severe droughts, nor does their temperature vary in the extremes of hot or cold weather; this showing their sources are far removed from the surface of the earth.

Why can not these waters be manufactured if druggists possess the ingredients? is a question often asked. Now, a careful examination of the analysis of these celebrated waters will reveal the source of their virtues. Certain constituent properties predominate, and are presented in the best medium for administration ever accomplished by the medical fraternity or any knowledge of pharmacy. The imitation of natural mineral waters is sometimes effected by the aid of science; but there seems to be always some quality wanting, which lessens their alterative and curative properties and prevents their commanding popular confidence. It is as impossible to manufacture a water to equal the natural as it is to manufacture a wine equal to nature's product.

Although a knowledge of the chemical composition of a mineral water may furnish some slight clue to its medical qualities, yet no just or satisfactory conclusion can be arrived at as to what classes of diseases it is particularly adapted until a fair trial of every species of malady.

The presence of iron in water indicates a tonic property, but its other chemical ingredients may greatly predominate, and so modify and pervert its tonic powers as to render it wholly useless for such purposes. Besides, it is a well-known fact in pharmacy that in compounding medicines their specific qualities are frequently destroyed and a medicine obtained differing in its action on the human system from any of the articles which enter into its composition. It is, therefore, almost impossible to judge *a priori* of the medical qualities of any water merely from its analysis. The most powerful of all the remedial agents contained in it may elude the tests of the chemists, or wholly escape during the analytical process. The best evidence of its curative power is its salutary and

healthful action on the human system. But while, practically, very little is gained by a knowledge of the chemical composition of a mineral water, it furnishes, at least, a sort of starting-point from which we may act with more confidence in investigating its character as a remedial agent.

The constant use of this water by hundreds of physicians, in a great variety of diseases, has afforded many opportunities of testing its efficacy. Combining in its nature the quadruple powers of tonic, diuretic, sudorific, and aperient, it has been prescribed and freely used in every conceivable specie of malady in which medicines belonging to these several classes are supposed to be indicated.

As a tonic and diuretic it was probably not surpassed by any mineral water in the United States, and when drunk at the Springs, or used in the household with reference to these qualities it rarely disappoints the expectations of the invalid. For Kidney and Bladder diseases, Gout, Dyspepsia, Rheumatism, and Nervous Debility, the value of these waters has been long recognized by the medical profession, and hundreds of sufferers from these diseases have found in these waters not only relief but permanent cure. As the valuable properties of the waters are not affected by transportation, the sufferer at his home, as well as the sojourner at the Springs, may avail himself of their beneficent aid. We give a few from the many endorsements of men of high standing in the medical profession, who have used these waters for ten years in their practice.

Dr. William A. Hammond, of New York, Surgeon-General of United States Army (retired), Professor of diseases of the mind and nervous system in the University of New York, etc., says: "I have for some time made use of the Buffalo Lithia Water in cases of affections of the Nervous System, complicated with Bright's Disease of the Kidneys, or with a Gouty Diathesis. The results have been eminently satisfactory. Lithia has for many years been a favorite with me in like cases, but the Buffalo Water certainly acts better than any extemporaneous solution of the Lithia salts, and is, moreover, better borne by the stomach. I also often prescribe it in those cases of *Cerebral Hyperoemia*, resulting in over mental work—in which the condition called Nervous Dyspepsia exists,—and generally with marked benefit. As a matter of prime importance it

is not to be forgotten that the composition of the Buffalo Lithia Water is such, and the experience of its use so complete, that no doubt exists of its great power, not only as a resolvent for calculi already in the bladder, but of the diseases of such calculi existing in the blood."

Dr. J. Marion Sims, of New York, says: "I have used in my practice the Buffalo Lithia Water, Spring No. 2, for two years past, and have, in many cases, found it highly efficacious."

G. Halstead Boyland, A.M., M.D., of the *Faculty of Paris and University of Leipsic; Formerly Professor in the Baltimore Medical College; Late Surgeon in French Army; from "New York Medical Journal," August 20, 1887, says; "In Bright's Disease of the Kidneys acute or chronic, Buffalo Lithia Water, Spring No. 2, is, in my experience, without a rival, whether in the Parenchymatous form or Interstitial Nephritis. In cases in which the albumen in the urine reached as high as fifty per cent, I have known it under a course of this water gradually diminish and finally disappear."*

Dr. Harvey L. Byrd, of Baltimore, President and Professor of Obstetrics and Diseases of Women and Children, in the Baltimore Medical College, formerly Professor of Practical Medicine, etc., says: "I have witnessed the best results from the action of Buffalo Lithia Water, Spring No. 2, in Chronic Gout, Rheumatic Gout, Rheumatism, Gravel, and Stone in the Bladder, and I do not hesitate to express the opinion that in all diseases depending upon or having their origin in Uric Acid Diathesis, it is unsurpassed, if, indeed, it is equaled, by any water thus far known to the profession.

"It is an admirable general Tonic and Restorative, increasing the appetite, promoting Digestion, and invigorating the gen-

eral health. It is powerfully Antacid, and especially efficacious in what is commonly known as Acid Dyspepsia. It is strongly commended to a very large class of sufferers by a peculiar power as a Nervous Tonic and Exhilarant, which makes it exceedingly valuable, where there is nothing to contraindicate its use, in all cases where Nervous Depression is a symptom."

Dr. William B. Towels, *Professor of Anatomy and Materia Medica in the Medical Department of the University of Virginia*: "Buffalo Lithia Springs No. 2 belongs to the Alkaline, or perhaps to the Alkaline-Saline Class, for it has proved far more efficacious in many diseased conditions than any of the simple Alkaline waters.

"I feel no hesitancy whatever in saying that in *Gout, Rheumatic Gout, Rheumatism, Stone in the Bladder, and in all Diseases of Uric Acid Diathesis, I know of no remedy at all comparable to it.*

"Its effects are marked in causing a disappearance of albumen from the urine. In a single case of Bright's Disease of the Kidneys, I witnessed decided beneficial results from its use, and from its action in this case I should have great confidence in it as a remedy in certain stages of this disease. In Dyspepsia, especially that form of it in which there is an excessive production of acid during the process of nutrition, in some of the peculiar affections of women, notably in Suppression of the Menses, and in Chronic Malarial Poisoning, etc., I have found it highly efficacious."

Buffalo Lithia Water is for sale by druggists generally, or can be obtained direct from the Springs in cases of one dozen half-gallon bottles, price \$5.00 f. o. b. Descriptive pamphlets may be had free by addressing Thomas F. Good, Proprietor, Buffalo Lithia Springs, Va.



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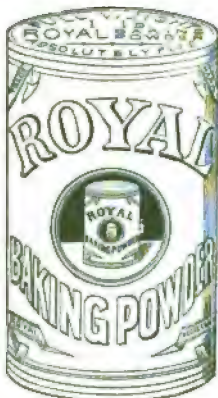
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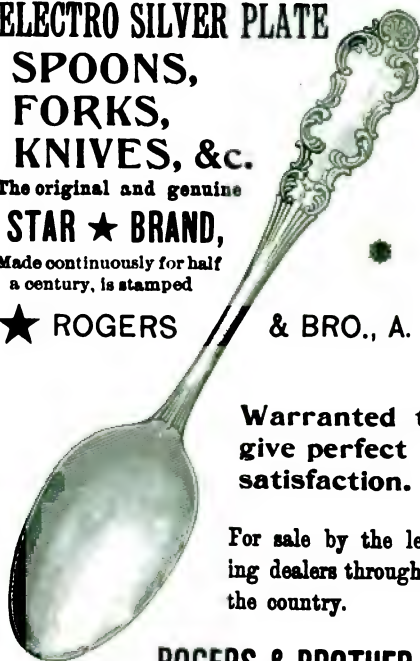
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VOL. XX.

JANUARY, 1895.

No. 4

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE.

CONTENTS

Count Moltke, Field Marshal.....*Frontispiece.*

REQUIRED READING

Some Historic Landmarks of London.....	<i>John Gennings.</i>	387
Christianity and English Institutions.....	<i>David H. Wheeler, LL. D.</i>	395
Aspects of Social Life in the East End of London.....	<i>Miss S. Moody.</i>	399
The Race Question in Austria.....	<i>Otto Wittelskofer.</i>	404
Sunday Readings.....	<i>Selected by Bishop Vincent.</i>	409
Count Moltke, Field Marshal. FIRST ARTICLE.....	<i>Sidney Whitman.</i>	413
The World's Debt to Chemistry.....	<i>Professor H. B. Cornwall, Ph.D.</i>	417
Scott's "Monastery".....	<i>Professor R. G. Moulton, Ph. D.</i>	424
Great City Railroads.....	<i>Robert I. Sloan, C. E.</i>	429

GENERAL READING

Evelyn Moore's Poet. A STORY. (Chapters IV.-VI.) Concluded.....	<i>Grant Allen.</i>	434
Famous Revivalists of the United States.....	<i>S. Parkes Cadman.</i>	441
The Triumph of Japan.....	<i>Sir Edwin Arnold.</i>	449
The New Year Coming. A Hymn. Words by J. Edmund V. Cooke.....		
Music by.....	<i>Frederick A. Williams.</i>	455
Luxury, A Social Study.....	<i>M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu.</i>	456

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE

White Husbands and Indian Wives.....	<i>Kate Carnes.</i>	461
The Story of an Ugly Girl.....	<i>Miss E. F. Andrews.</i>	462
Snowflakes and Snowfalls.....	<i>Reinhard E. Pelermann.</i>	472
The Sensible View of Matrimonial Engagements.....	<i>Lucy Barnard Cope.</i>	474

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK

Political and Religious Reform in Cities; Professor Herbert Tuttle; Woman's Genius in Letter-Writing.....		476
--	--	-----

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION

Death of Dr. James McCosh; Anton Rubinstein's Death; Death of Ferdinand de Lesseps; The Condition and Affairs of the Govern- ment as Reviewed by President Cleveland in His Annual Mes- sage; The New Government Loan and Bond Issue; Twenty- first Annual Convention of the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union; The Reform of College Football; The Chicago Strike as Reviewed by the Federal Commission; The War in the Far East; Railroads in the United States; Govern- ment Ownership of Railroads; Colonel Ingersoll and Christianity; The Catholic Church and the Saloon; Summary of News.....		479
---	--	-----

C. L. S. C. WORK

C. L. S. C. Outline and Programs.....	494
C. L. S. C. Notes and Word Studies.....	495
Questions and Answers.....	500
The Chautauq Table.....	502
The C. L. S. C. Classes.....	503
Local Circles.....	505
Talk about Books.....	509
The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.....	514
The Chautauqua Assembly for 1895.....	516
The Chautauqua Correspondence College.....	518
What Members Say of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.....	520
How to Keep Abreast of the Times: Announcement of the Chautau- qua Current History Course.....	522
Index to Advertisements.....	539

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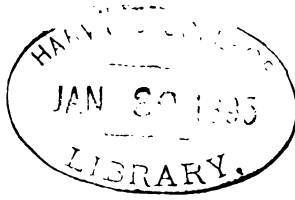


ELISABETH ROBINSON SCOVIL, Associate Editor of The Ladies Home Journal, and a Hospital Superintendent of experience, in her book "The Care of Children" recommends the use of Ivory Soap for bathing infants and says: "There is no particular virtue in Castile Soap which has long been consecrated to this purpose."



COUNT MOLTKE, FIELD MARSHAL.

See page 413.



THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.



TOWER BRIDGE.

TOWER OF LONDON ON THE RIGHT.

SOME HISTORIC LANDMARKS OF LONDON.*

BY JOHN GENNINGS.

THE historic landmarks of London have to be sought. A few of them, such as the Tower and Westminster Abbey, obtrude themselves upon the traveler's notice and seem to say, "Uncover your heads and do reverence unto us, for we have passed unscathed through the storm and stress of centuries, while you are but poor mortals who are here to-day and gone

to-morrow." But the most of them are hidden away in back streets, and in nooks and corners so sequestered that even the majority of Londoners are ignorant of their existence.

Within the past fifty years London proper has been practically rebuilt, and in the process great historic landmarks have been ruthlessly swept away. Temple Bar at the top of Fleet Street, upon which for hundreds of years traitors' heads were exposed for the warning of evil-doers and the encourage-

* The Notes on the Required Readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

ment of patriotism, was pulled down not many years ago because, forsooth, it was an obstruction to traffic, and many a grand old mansion in which kings and princes have taken counsel and held revel has been ignominiously shoveled away to make room for an ugly warehouse.

Of late years the cultured minority have endeavored, with varying success, to stay the hands of the vandal or to minimize his power for mischief, but the average Londoner remains indifferent. He has in truth no taste for delving into the past. Perhaps it would be fairer to him to say that he cannot afford to do so. His concern is for the present, his thoughts are ever concentrated upon the pressing need of earning the wherewithal to live and his energies are devoted without ceasing to that stupendous struggle for existence in which he is but one of five millions of fierce combatants who neither give nor expect to receive quarter.

This is doubtless the chief reason why nine tenths of the daily visitors, say, to the Tower of London, are country people and foreigners. Once past the barrier, you tread upon ground of which every inch is saturated with history, and there is scarcely one room which has not its record of kingly pomp, or princely lust, or fallen greatness but the yokel¹ makes straight for the apartment in which the crown jewels of England are kept in a great glass case, air-tight and dust-proof, heavily barred and jealously guarded.

This phenomenon of indifference is, of course, not confined to London, for the adage "familiarity breeds contempt" is of worldwide applicability, but for all that, it has always seemed sad and strange and inexplicable to me that tens of thousands of Englishmen and Englishwomen can daily pass that glorious pile—Westminster Abbey—without thought of the royal and illustrious dead enshrined within its blackened walls and without desire to explore its stately aisles or to gaze upon the tombs and monuments which of themselves almost epitomize the history of England.

Modern barbarians, miscalled architects and artists and what not, have from time to time done their puny best to dwarf Westminster Abbey and to spoil its surroundings, but the grand old church has not suffered much after all. Eleven hundred years have passed since the first Abbey was built at Westminster by pious and skillful men, and for more than four centuries this majestic monument of man's zeal for the glory of God has stood precisely as it stands now. The mortal remains of a dozen monarchs and of hundreds of sages and statesmen and warriors, whose names live in history, have crumbled into dust, empires have arisen, flourished and decayed, and new worlds have been discovered; but the great Abbey remains to-day as little affected by, or heedful of, the flight of time as of the babbling of honorable legislators in the famous "talk shop" over the way,² or of the ceaseless traffic of the adjoining streets.

Within the Abbey fire and other mishaps occasionally wrought havoc with the beautiful fabric, but until the death of Henry VIII., there was never lack of generous princes and godly priests and laymen to repair such ravages and even to add to and beautify the building at great cost in money. But in the middle of the sixteenth century there commenced a period of neglect and indifference which endured for about a hundred and fifty years. During that time



ST. THOMAS'S TOWER AND TRAITORS' GATE.

beautiful timber roofs were hidden by plaster ceilings and windows and vaults were blocked up in what appears now to have been an utterly aimless manner. Most

of the damage then done has since been repaired, but some undoubtedly remains.

Only the other day Canon Wilberforce discovered in and around his house in Dean's Yard, frescoes, oak paneling, and

well known to the monks, for hard by in the almonry at the west end of the sanctuary he set up his press and there worked for twenty years, during which he produced between fifty and sixty volumes.

St. Paul's Cathedral as it now exists has stood for less than two centuries, but the ground which it covers is historic ground. A Christian church was built upon it in the time of the Saxons and near-



ST. PAUL'S CHOIR AND REREDOS.

the like which must have been executed quite five hundred years ago. This stimulated the reverend gentleman's archaeological ambition with the result that he found in the basement of the house a beautiful groined crypt which was formerly part of the Abbey proper. This had been used as far as the records went back, as a coal and wine cellar, with a dividing wall. The wall was removed, the place was cleared of rubbish, blocked up windows were discovered and reopened, a fine entrance doorway rescued from the mask of brickwork and masonry which had hidden it for hundreds of years, and after several months' patient work, six skilled masons chipped away a thick coating of medieval plaster and revealed to the world the original roof built in 1362. Canon Wilberforce has turned the crypt into a dining room and no one has reason to grumble thereat, seeing that the place was, almost certainly, the refectory of the Benedictine monks who once had charge of the Abbey. William Caxton, who introduced the art of printing into England, may have dined in this refectory. He must have been



INTERIOR OF ALL HALLOWS, SOUTHEAST VIEW.
PENN FONT ON THE RIGHT.

ly seven hundred years ago a lordly cathedral six hundred feet long by one hundred and twenty broad and covering three and a half acres reared its lofty spires to heaven, attesting the piety and munificence of kings, princes, prelates, merchants, and peasants. Until its destruction in the Great Fire in 1666 this noble pile was the heart, the nerve-center, of London. A few years ago there still stood at the eastward end of the cathedral, a tree which marked the site of St. Paul's "Cross," a pulpit formed of wood, with lead covered stone steps, surmounted with a cross. Around that quaint structure surged for centuries the tumultuous life of the ancient metropolis. Thither was summoned the Folkmote, a kind of municipal parliament of whose

powers, privileges, and procedure little is known now. Great divines, the martyrs Latimer and Ridley among them, preached to court and people from the Cross pulpit, laws were promulgated from it, prelates thundered papal bulls from it and did not fear to denounce vice and evil-doing in high places. Beneath St. Paul's Cross an eloquent preacher gave thanks to God for the great victory over the Spanish Armada and raised the patriotic fervor of the citizens to fever heat. Recantations were publicly made and penance done in front of it. Jane Shore,⁵ the luckless concubine of Edward IV., stood before St. Paul's Cross, a compulsory penitent, bareheaded, barefooted, and candle in hand, while the rabble mocked at the beautiful woman who but a few months before was idolized by her royal lover and seemed secure in place and power. In 1643 Parliament, though busily engaged in fighting King Charles, found time to deal with the "emblems of popery" scattered over London, and one result of their newly born ultra-Protestant zeal was the destruction of St. Paul's Cross and other beautiful crosses within the metropolis.

The present St. Paul's Cathedral, the masterpiece of Sir Christopher Wren, is shorn of much of the glory which attached to its predecessor. It is a noble cathedral, a superb church, but little more. A new and greater London has grown and spread for miles around it. Social life in the area of which St. Paul's is the center has been completely changed. Citizens no longer

live in the city and worship in the city churches. They work and struggle within the shadow of the great cathedral but they are utterly uninfluenced by its proximity. They come in the morning and go in the evening by train and tram and omnibus, and leave St. Paul's to the dean and chapter and to country people and foreigners.

Within the memory of middle-aged men there was a time when there was no spiritual life worthy of the name connected with St. Paul's Cathedral. Truth to tell there is not much even now, despite the great religious revival which has acted like a tonic upon the state church. There are daily services but they are thinly attended except when some famous preacher is announced to occupy the pulpit. On the Sabbath, people come in from the suburbs and the attendance is usually large, for the ritual is ornate and the music is very fine. But one instinctively feels that there is no congregational cohesion and activity



WESTMINSTER ABBEY. WEST FRONT.

or religious fervor in the place such as is apparent in the principal Nonconformist and Roman Catholic chapels and in many of the Episcopal churches within the metropolis.

Nelson and Wellington and other doughty warriors and wise men are buried at St. Paul's or have monuments to their memory within its walls, and as the second national Walhalla⁶ it has gained a firm hold on the popular mind; but the cathedral is not a people's church, poor men do not worship beneath its glorious dome.

There is one nonecclesiastical landmark of London, and only one—the Tower—which has changed no more than Westminster Abbey, and which is as inseparably bound up with the history of England as is that great and ancient structure. Hoary and gray as it is one can gaze upon the Tower to this day and realize that previous to the invention of modern arms of power and precision, it was a formidable fortress fitted by its size and strength to stand sentinel over the port of London. The Thames still rolls by its southeastern front, but brown and foul, notwithstanding the millions of pounds sterling which have been lavished upon the sewage and drainage and cleansing works by the richest city in the world. Less than five generations ago, in 1786, every species of fish found in British rivers thrived in the Thames between its source and Woolwich, and salmon were regularly caught in the vicinity of the Tower in the spring. Now the only anglers in the defiled old stream, where it flows through London, are the watermen and longshoremen who fish with gruesome hooks and drags for drowned human bodies.

When William the Conqueror, searching about in the year 1076 for a site upon which to build a fortress whence his savage soldiery could dominate London, selected the spot upon which the Tower still stands, he did no more than follow the example of the Romans who had conquered the country hundreds of years before him. They had found and recognized the suitability of the ground from the point of view of military

strategy and built a fort the remains of which must have been visible in William's time. Thence they constructed a wall twenty-two feet high, two miles and one furlong in length inland and one mile along the river bank, for the defense of the entire city. No shoddy work was put into that wall. Remains of it are occasionally found in the course of excavations to this day, so hard and solid as to make the demolition of

stone and mortar a work of great labor and difficulty. William's architects and builders were glad to avail themselves of the massive foundations put in by the Romans and their work was thereby so much lightened that by 1078 the great square structure known as the White Tower was completed as it stands to-day. Thereafter successive kings employed successive prelates and priests, monopolists of the art of architecture in those illiterate days, to extend the big fortress. The place was in fact built upon the installment system, for kingly lives were then short



ST. PAUL'S. WEST FRONT.

as a rule; with war and lust and gluttony and idleness, princes showed no disposition to embark in very large enterprises.

But for a hundred years or so there was a marked weakness among the rulers of England to add to the Tower. One king put up a tower, another dug a great ditch, and a third, no less a person than Richard the Lion-Hearted, erected the walls. When at length a halt was called, it was found that the walls enclosed a space of twelve acres or thereabouts and there was no room left for large building operations. Thus

King Richard I. rendered his thrifty successors a good service by putting up those walls, for their existence gave them reasonable excuse for letting the Tower take care of itself in the matter of building extensions and it has done so practically for five centuries.

But what an amount of history has been made within its gloomy precincts! Kings and queens have lived and died in it and there princes have been foully murdered. Brave and honest men and fair and virtuous women, as well as proved traitors, scoun-

upon him the implacable enmity of his royal master was his refusal to give an opinion in favor of the legality of the king's marriage with Anne Boleyn. The grand old man suffered death with cheerful dignity on July 5, 1535, on Tower Hill. Ten years previously Henry dined with Sir Thomas in his house in Chelsea and afterwards walked with him for nearly an hour in the garden, the king's arm round his neck. When congratulated upon this signal mark of royal favor the shrewd old man remarked, "I believe my very good lord doth as singularly



TOWER OF LONDON FROM TOWER BRIDGE.

drels, and harlots, have pined in its dark dungeons for months or years before death gave them release at the hands of the headsman on Tower Hill hard by. Who can think of some of these heroic or pathetic figures and gaze unmoved even after the softening lapse of centuries upon the scene of their suffering? Of Sir Thomas More, for instance, lord high chancellor of England, righteous judge, gentleman, wise statesman, learned counselor and devoted servant of that able, shameless, lustful, deceitful, masterful monarch Henry VIII. More was nominally tried and condemned to death for high treason, but the fault which brought

favor me as any subject within this realm; howbeit I must tell thee, I have no cause to be proud thereof, for if my head would win him a castle in France, it would not fail to go off."

Royal perfidy and the fates quickly avenged Sir Thomas More, for Anne Boleyn's shapely head soon fell beneath the same ax and almost on the same spot at the Tower. Six years later Catherine Howard, fifth wife of Henry VIII., was beheaded on Tower Hill. Henry indeed kept the headsman at the Tower very busy, for during his reign the flower of England's nobility, men like the great earl of Suffolk,

the duke of Buckingham, the marquis of Exeter, and the earl of Surrey, were put to death in the great fortress, as well as scores of lesser, but perhaps more honest, men. Kings and queens before and after Henry VIII. disposed of real or fancied enemies in the same fashion, but not on such an extensive scale.

Of the men imprisoned in the Tower the bare list would reach a formidable total. There is no more pitiful sight within its walls than the Beauchamp Tower, which for many years was practically the chief prison for state offenders. Successive prisoners have carved or written on the walls of the principal apartment of this tower, in order to while away the dreary hours of their captivity, and similar memorials found in other prisons within the fortress have been collected and placed in the same room. Two of these inscriptions typify the character of all of them. "The more suffering for Christ in this world," wrote the unhappy earl of Arundell, whose father, the duke of Norfolk, was beheaded in the Tower, "the more glory with Christ in the next."

"The most unhappy man in the world is he that is not patient in adversities," wrote Charles Bailly on his prison wall. "For men are not killed with the adversities they have, but with ye impacience which they suffer"; and again, more pathetic still, "Hope to the end and have patience."

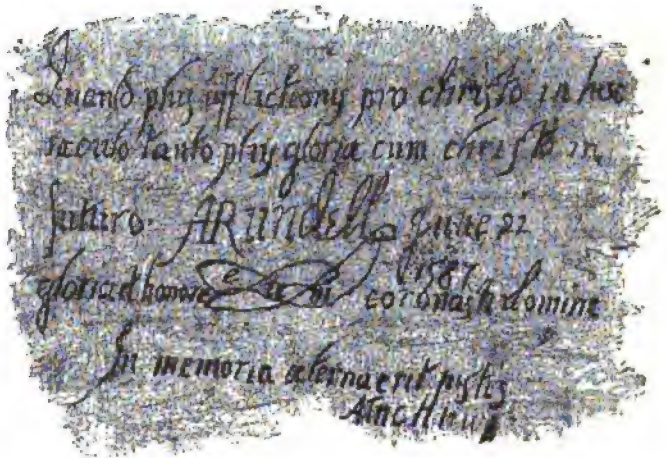
Surely in these two inscriptions the philosophy of captivity is summed up.

Within a stone's throw of the Tower of London, overshadowing and dwarfing it in fact, is the Tower Bridge, a vast structure completed and opened to traffic within the past few months. Upon this triumph of modern science and engineering skill one may stand and gaze upon the ancient fortress, embracing in the view the historic Traitors' Gateway, through which many a victim of

tyranny passed to the Beauchamp Tower and thence to death.

Many of the parish churches of the city of London proper, that is to say the eastern central district of the existing metropolis, are very beautiful but of limited historical interest. The Great Fire of 1666 destroyed the majority of them and they were rebuilt in nearly every case by Sir Christopher Wren during the succeeding four years. Two hundred years or so is a comparatively youthful age for such buildings in this old country, where in hundreds of parishes the people still worship comfortably in churches erected four, five, and even six centuries ago. But among the few city churches which escaped the great conflagration, although not entirely unscathed, there is one which is deeply interesting on account of its historic associations, and which is worthy of the affectionate regard of every American citizen; for within its venerable walls William Penn, the founder of Pennsylvania, was christened and John Quincy Adams, the great president, was married. This is the Church of All Hallows and Our Lady in Tower Street.

Coming from the West End by the underground railway you alight at Mark Lane station, which daily belches forth thousands of business men from its grimy depths, and toiling up to the surface you stand



TOWER INSCRIPTION BY THE EARL OF ARUNDELL.

opposite this plain, quaint little Church of All Hallows, so near, that standing within

it you can feel the tremor of the locomotives, in the bowels of the earth far below its foundations. Overshadowing it, is a vast tea warehouse, recalling the memory of a certain rousing incident in Boston Harbor, and hard by is the frowning Tower of London, together with the site of the public place of execution on Tower Hill. The vaults of All Hallows received many a severed head and body and Christian burial was secretly given to many a mutilated corpse to which tyrants would have denied such honor. The remains of the poet, earl of Surrey, of good and martyred Bishop Fisher, of Archbishop Laud, were received from the headsman by the kindly priests of All Hallows and given temporary resting place.

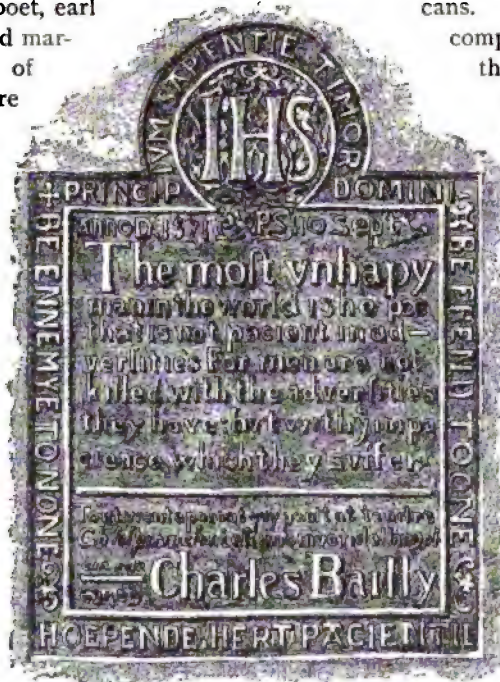
Even in those far-off days All Hallows was quite venerable. Richard I. founded a chapel there and tradition stated, falsely it seems, that his "lion heart" was buried beneath the altar. Edward I. is said to have had a vision in which he was commanded to erect an image of the Virgin at All Hallows, Barking, with the promise that if he did so, and visited the image five times every year and kept the chapel in repair he should be victorious over all nations, succeed his father in due course, and conquer Wales and Scotland. Edward IV. allowed his cousin, the earl of Worcester, to form a brotherhood in connection with All Hallows. Richard III., who was not particularly noted for piety, founded a college of priests there, which in the course of time was suppressed by Edward VI.

All Hallows has in its time numbered among its congregations some honored and sturdy plain men, as well as princes and

courtiers from the Tower, when kings held court there. William Thynne, the first man to publish a complete edition of the poet Chaucer, worshiped and was buried there, and so also Humfry Monmouth, draper and city sheriff, who protected Tyndale and encouraged him in translating the New Testament into English.

All Hallows is therefore worthy of a place, on its intrinsic merits, in any account of the historic landmarks of London, but as I have said, it is also of peculiar interest to Ameri-

cans. Giles Lytcott, "first comptroller general of all the accompts of the customs of England and of all the English colonies in America," lived in the parish and doubtless commenced that system of bookkeeping which just one hundred years after his death drove the colonies to revolt. He was a great man in his time, and when he died and was buried in All Hallows, a monument was erected to his memory. He was only eleven years older than William Penn and probably



TOWER INSCRIPTION BY CHARLES BAILLY.

knew the young man until in 1660 he left the paternal roof on Tower Hill for Oxford University, there to get into trouble for doctrinal heresies which rendered him quite unfit for further recognition or patronage by so eminently respectable a man as the "comptroller general of all the accompts of the customs of England and of all the English colonies in America."

The house of Admiral Sir William Penn on Tower Hill overlooked All Hallows and he naturally had his son christened in that church. The Baptismal Register, Book I., still preserved, has this entry, "1644, October 23. William, son of William Penn and

Margarett, his wife, of the Tower Liberty." The font in which the infant Penn was baptized may still be seen beneath the southeast window. It is of marble and has a carved wooden cover with angels plucking fruit and flowers.

The connection of John Quincy Adams with All Hallows, Barking, appears to have been purely accidental except that the lady who was to be his wife lived in the parish.

Adams met her when passing through London on the mission to the Prussian states with which he was entrusted by his father in the first year of the latter's presidency, and the courtship was a brief one, as this entry in Book V. of the Parish Registers of All Hallows sufficiently attests: "1797. July 26. John Quincy Adams, Esq., of Boston, in N. America, and Louisa Catharine Johnson, of this parish, by license."

CHRISTIANITY AND ENGLISH INSTITUTIONS.

BY DAVID H. WHEELER, LL.D.

THIS topic would require more than one volume for an exhaustive study of it. A brief essay must confine itself to indicating some lines of investigation and reasoning. There is a large ground for the presumption that English Christianity has been the efficient cause of English liberty. Let us first survey this ground. But, since any course of reasoning must be at last aligned with actual facts and results, let us look for the chief actors in the critical periods of English public life. The free institutions of this fortunate people were worked out and established between 1215 and 1688. It is true that the Great Charter had a long preface running back to the first Saxon unions in England. It is also true that a rich development of freedom has followed the revolution of 1688. But it is still true that the four and a half centuries from the Charter to the revolution established and determined the character of the English people and their government. *People* and government, I write, because no orderly system of public life can be called established unless it be builded into the character of the people.

To neglect the large factors in familiar things is a characteristic of all modern inquiry; for the very good reason that the large factors are well known, while the small factors are secret and elusive. A student of farming may neglect the sun and chemical reactions because these large factors may be safely assumed as always at work. In his-

torical investigation our generation has specially strong reasons for searching out the secret and elusive forces and combinations which determine national success and progress; these forces and their interaction present the charm of novelty and the allurement of promise. Given all the great potencies—religion, morals, liberty, natural wealth—our inquiries are pushed into less familiar tracts of national endowment, such as the economic order, the juridical and legislative systems, the distribution of wealth, the relative importance of urban and rural pursuits, and other such indicia of national vitality.

The very largest factor in social progress is religion. In faith and worship the great streams of morals and liberty find their source; and there is no detail of national growth which escapes the effective influence of religious culture. All investigations of society find the earliest uplifts into orderly life and culture associated with and controlled by devotion. The system of worship does not appear as a result of civilization but as a cause of it. The first great thing an Egyptian, Greek, or Roman society has done is to regulate the worship of the nation, and this churchly order is supreme over all other orderings of the nascent and growing commonwealth. There is a theory that society outgrows—has among us outgrown—this relation to religion organized and imperial. The theory has no other support than the fact that a few thousands of persons profess to have re-

nounced faith and worship. They are not the millions. They have no monopoly of culture. They are not the builders of the future. They are as truly "fragments" as that Roman mob to which Shakespeare applies that negative of social power. The vast world of man remains willingly under the yoke of religion, finding a vital force and an upholding hope in God and in His service.

Happy are ye, O people of England! is the hearty salutation of the people and the philosophers of the world. Liberty, wealth, and peace are so entrenched in that island empire that each of them is familiarly qualified as English. Who does not speak with a sense of their largeness, of English liberty, English wealth, English peace? And the English themselves, though they are always conscious of defects in their institutions and always laboring to make their good better, are yet unanimous in their strong preference for their own national heritage of "liberty regulated by law"; and when they look abroad for a public system worthy of comparison with their own, they find it only in the United States and the British colonies—among their co-heirs in the rich estate of Magna Charta and its harvests.

If we look over English history in search of its large factors, we shall at once and everywhere see Christianity active and authoritative. From the first union of the people under one government, kings and people professed the Christian faith. No other religion had a foothold, and Christianity lived no cloistered life of non-interference but rather that of an aggressive and triumphing campaign. The religious conflicts waged around the throne emphasize the prevalence of faith and the supreme importance attached to it by the whole people. They differed and fought about the pope, but they all clung tenaciously to the Christian faith. If we add to this the large part which their religion took in their daily lives and their thoughts, we shall see at once that unless some miracle intervened English institutions must have been shaped by Christianity.

If we turn to the actual character of these institutions, new proof of a Christian

origin will appear. These master political fabrics are all built out of a material we call RIGHTS and every modification or revolution has tended to make rights more common, more dignified, more inalienable. Whether it be possible to separate rights from religion, we need not here inquire; for in fact the English claim for rights has always been uttered by a Christian voice—rights and religion were indissolubly wedded throughout the formative periods of constitutional history. We may regard English institutions as the most conspicuous and most brilliant victory of our common humanity struggling for its rightful heritage of freedom and opportunity; and a Christian people wears the honor of this unparalleled achievement, after having transmitted to us and to other of their offspring the inestimable blessings of their conquest.

It is true that other peoples have been less fortunate in their political careers though they also were Christian in faith; but this does not, through the force of the comparison, degrade the Christian factor and elevate some other factor to the first place. In truth any other factor would be subject to the disastrous effects of comparison. For example there are other peoples of Teuton stock, and marked by the same love of personal independence, whose attempts at political architecture have barely escaped failure. In the most distinctively Teutonic of them all, a young emperor claims to rule by divine right. It is not the original homeland of the Angli which has sent representative government, trial by jury, a free press, and courts free from executive control on a march round the globe. This triumph belongs to Teutons christianized in England and to them alone.

The complexity of the social organization in any civilized country must be recognized in an estimate of the strength of any factor. It is obvious that large factors—such as religion, race, and climate—are subject to the effects of their combination with each other and with other factors, and that the full power of any one of them may not be developed in a given case because of social hindrances of various kinds. Equally en-

dowed races in equally favorable climates may have widely different fortunes. For such reasons Christianity has achieved more in building a Christian state in England than elsewhere. Of course, the fruits of liberty gathered in the United States and in other English colonies are a part of the one great conquest which we are here studying. Nor is it meant that the English have worked out fully the ideal of a Christian state. Actual Christianity is a comparative condition of society. No man has fully worked out the ideal of a Christian character, but there is a vast difference between the poorest and the best Christian manhood.

In England, religion assumed from the first a more commanding place in personal and public life. The student of history will easily distinguish between two things; ceremonial religion on one side and practical godliness on the other. From the first, one notes this difference between France and England. The French sovereign princes contemporary with King Alfred are ceremonially, perhaps, as pious as that Christian ruler. But the French princes did not, like him, give their time and thought as he did to the elevation of the people through Christian education. It is a characteristic note that the English people have styled this man Alfred the Great, though the proofs of his greatness must be sought in the hearty, resolute, and practical Christianity of that earliest great English advocate and promoter of an educated ministry.

Long before the ecclesiastical conflict which made England a Protestant nation, the English priesthood and government had Christianity more deeply branded into their life; conscience had a deeper and wider influence; justice was a larger word; religion meant more in public affairs. I should account for this contrast to France as I would account for the difference between John Wesley and any fox-hunting parson of the eighteenth century. In Wesley, religion had penetrated to the core and root of inner life; in the other man it had only colored the bark and the leaf with the radiance of a summer sun. From an early time in England, religion had political significance and effectiveness be-

cause it had a depth and a practicalness peculiarly English; and therefore it had, not a free hand but a freer hand, in shaping political institutions.

Let us guard ourselves against the seductive theory that unorganized and diffused Christianity has been too strong in England for the organized church. To Englishmen of the fighting centuries—say, from the fourteenth to the eighteenth—there was no such thing as an unorganized Christianity. The substitution of the king for the pope as head of the English church did not disorganize the church *in fact*, whatever it may have done in Catholic theory; and, nearer to us, those changes which practically put Lord Salisbury or Mr. Gladstone at the head of the church have not weakened the organization. And all the Dissenters have agreed to be and to call themselves churches. Organization is a supreme note in things English, and it takes its rise in a religion which teaches that we “are members one of another.” Wide differences about the details of church organization do not affect the common belief that Christians must be organized. For all purposes of this study Christianity and the church are one—and in “the church” we mean to include all the people of England at any time organized, under any system, as Christians.

A moment’s attention may be given to the very remarkable theory that the reformers of religion sought intellectual liberty only and that all the liberating movements have been essentially skeptical and anti-church. The least carelessness should prevent such an error; for it involves the absurdity that an agnostic of our day knows what the reformers wanted better than the reformers themselves knew what they wanted. They wanted to expel an invading force of sinfulness and earthliness from the church; the fruit of their success, in part, was intellectual liberty. If they had left the church to be sacked by the army of invasion and made their crusade for intellectual freedom, neither they nor our civilization would now be known and applauded. They freed the major factor from awful hindrances; and therefore the religious consciousness has been able to effect

intellectual emancipation.

It will at once occur to the careful student that the reformers in church and state agreed, for the most part, in rejecting any broad interpretation of intellectual liberty. Fortunately for them and us that they did reject it! They might have adopted as safely the liberty of murderers and other common criminals. Liberty of the intellect as a vocal force in the world is not possible until it is weighted with instruction and the sense of responsibility. The latter is of so much importance that to this hour intellectual liberty is exercised in England and America under a measure of legal responsibility. We feel, for example, perfectly free to hold an anarchist to an accountability for the effects of his teachings upon undisciplined minds. And if such opinions were widely and effectively taught we should not hesitate to punish men for teaching them to mobs.

A long period of Christian education, during which the people were under the influence of religious teachers in pulpits and in schools, has made a large measure of intellectual freedom one of the very choicest of English institutions, possible and beneficent because illumination and responsibility accompany its exercise. The reformers of religion wanted a free hand for their religion. Wyclif's aspiration and toil struggled toward the religious enlightenment of the people. Four centuries before Wesley he organized a popular preaching army and he gave his ripe years to the translation of the Bible into the speech of the people. He was in this way laying deep a foundation on which every kind of liberty recognized by us might be reared.

This species of practicalness is characteristic of the English mind; but the comparative method would fail to trace it to race or climate or pursuits. It has been the characteristic of the religious mind of England; and an evolutionist who is not prejudiced against Christianity will naturally credit the prevalence of this note of our nationality to the dominant and pervasive influence of the English church as that church is defined in this paper.

It is no sufficient reply to this reasoning

that in the name of religion many good measures have been opposed and many bad measures enacted into law. We all know that inhuman crimes have been done in the name of Liberty. The application would be trite and wearisome. On the other hand we all know that from Alfred to John Bright the great commanding voices of English progress have been the voices of Christian men.

Let us glance at four decisive events.

(1) Students of English history fix their eyes upon a few great landmarks. The first of these is the Great Charter of 1215. The leader in the movement which wrested the Charter from King John was Stephen Langton, archbishop of Canterbury, who stands "first of the noble band who defied pope and king alike on behalf of the freedom of England"; and he had a united clergy behind him. Without this leadership no such movement would have been possible. And from the Great Charter all the great free institutions were evolved.

It is significant of the power of English Christianity that the prelacy and priesthood of the nation ranged themselves in that crisis on the side of the English people. A century and a half before William the Conqueror had imported a continental church hierarchy, papal, royalist, and worldly-minded. But the conditions which tended to give Christianity a free hand in its own development—isolation from continental influences and contact with a people soundly Christian through the instruction of a Saxon priesthood—bore the choice fruits of liberty. We may imagine some changes in the conditions attending the birth of the Charter; but we cannot dispense with Archbishop Langton and his clergy. Nor have we any right to forget that all these prelates and priests esteemed themselves good Catholics.

(2) Whatever view be taken of Henry VIII. and the merits of his quarrel with the pope, the separation from Rome in his reign is undoubtedly another great landmark of English liberty; and the fact that once more the English clergy moved in advance of the people—if less unanimously than under Langton yet practically as a great Christian

body—is hardly less significant than their union to secure the Charter three centuries before. It is common to say that in both of these decisive epochs, the clergy fought for its own rights and estates. It is too often overlooked that, in both cases, the English people followed their clergy with practical unanimity. We know it was not a priest-ridden people. Critics of our religion who dwell upon the sins, exactions, and recreancy of individual prelates or of bodies of the clergy, at critical periods of change, may be asked, in all reasonableness and sobriety, to lay their fingers upon the spot in the long march from 1215 to 1688 when the armies of liberty had not Christian leaders.

(3) The conflicts which cost Charles I. his head did find the higher forces of the state church on the wrong side. It was an almost fatal mistake of the church leaders; and the bitter fruits of that error remain to set on edge the teeth of their ecclesiastical descendants. Divisions in English Christianity were made permanent by the civil wars, and dissent clothed itself with a representative office as a guardian of personal freedom, and still wears these honors.

But none the less the movement had Christian leadership and its armies were more distinctly Christian than any others ever marshaled under the banners of liberty. Its soldiers, its legislators, its citizenship, still

formed a Christian church making straight again the paths of freedom. The divisions among Christians in that crisis are due of course, to errors on both sides—on one side to a high clergy looking to a despotic sovereign for protection and militant service against a large body of English Christians; on the other side to the unwise radicalism of the revolutionary party, an unwisdom which brought failure in the end, not to the sound principles of the Cromwellians, but to their ill-starred commonwealth. The principles triumphed finally in 1688.

(4) In this final triumph once more the nation is led by a united English Christianity. The schism in 1640 brought failure; the union in 1688 secured a lasting victory. In truth, the revolution of 1688 spreads over the whole period from the earliest struggles with the first Charles to the expulsion of the second James. English Christians during this half century of civil storm drew a new meaning out of their great Charter and learned that "we will oppress no man" must include freedom of Christian worship; and Oliver Cromwell, John Milton, and John Bunyan taught them this divine creed. Neither the people nor their teachers were pagan or atheist, nor did they profess any other than the Christian faith; and they remained Christians, and more devout Christians, after they established religious tolerance.

ASPECTS OF SOCIAL LIFE IN THE EAST END OF LONDON.*

BY MISS S. MOODY.

DOWN in the very heart of the East End of London lies Mile End New Town, one of the least known of the lower hamlets.

To the eye of a casual observer, there is nothing in its dingy streets and courts to attract attention, but to one who has spent, as I have, seven very happy years among the people, every street and lane is replete with interest.

I feel sure that really to know the people, one must live among them as I and my fellow-workers did.

Our home was the mission house, known to the people as the Church House, standing in the very midst of the parish, and with the door nearly always open so that the people had free access to us.

It certainly had a great charm, that happy homely life, with so many different meetings and classes to attend in the Church House

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

Hall, and such a variety of characters to study daily.

There was always a pleasant kind of wonder, as to what was going to happen next, and a gentle undercurrent of excitement constantly at work, that spread a glow of sunshine over one's daily toil.

One was always busy, there was always something going on, from Sunday, with its round of services, schools, and teachers' meetings, to Saturday, when one closed one's weekly record with a pleasing sense that

"Something accomplished, something done
Had earned a night's repose."

The Church House Hall was a bright cheery place, with plenty of books on the shelves and pictures on the walls, and when the evening lights were lit, and the fire burning, and the room filled with happy young faces, I don't think anyone could find a pleasanter spot in the East End.

One of the quaintest classes held there was the Babies' Band of Hope, which was great fun. The children were all under seven, but they understood quite well the object of joining a Band of Hope. I am afraid we used a good deal of bribery with these little ones, for we gave sweets to the good babies and none to the naughty. Consequently they were mostly good.

When the children had gone, the club girls would begin to drop in by twos and threes for their "recreation evening." These girls were all members of the Girls' Friendly Society. One of their greatest charms was their strong affection. Where they once bestowed their love, they gave it ungrudgingly, whole-heartedly, and many of them I know I may reckon on as firm friends for life. They worked in several different trades, but I think the majority were either book folders, feather curlers, fancy box makers, or envelope folders. As a rule, they were much more faithful as friends than they were as sweethearts. A broken matrimonial engagement was a thing of frequent occurrence, but to throw over one's "mate" seemed a much more serious affair.

The girls met every night of the week

except Saturday, and so did the men and boys in their club and institute, but the latter were the charge of the clergy, and we had very little to do with them, though they always treated us with the greatest kindness and consideration.

The terrible Whitechapel murders all took place within ten minutes' walk of our abode, and I think our nerves were somewhat shaken, though our common sense assured us we were safe. Never shall I forget the courage inspired in us by our workmen that winter.

"Don't you be afraid, sister," said a big rough man one night, to me. "You're as safe as though you were guarded by your own brothers."

Another man, a stevedore at the docks, told me that if I were obliged to go out late any night I was to "knock him up" and he would take care of me, wherever I might be going.

Late one night I was returning home, when I found my way blocked by a crowd in the street assembled to witness a fight. I hesitated a moment, wondering what to do, when a young drayman, seeing my perplexity, called out, "All right, sister, I'll take you through," and promptly elbowed and pushed a way for me through the dense mass of fellow-creatures.

I mention these instances to show that the genuine East Ender has a great deal of latent chivalry about him.

On Tuesdays we held our Band of Hope, from 7 to 8 p. m. This was the happiest hour of all. Our boys and girls were the brightest, most enthusiastic little creatures. They never spoke of "*The* Band of Hope," it was always "*Our* Band of Hope." As the boys grew older, they developed a protecting manner toward us which was very touching. The Jews, especially the younger ones, often annoyed us by their rudeness, and our own boys seemed bound in honor to constitute themselves our guardians and champions.

Once a Jewish boy, surrounded by a number of his compatriots, called "Sister of Misery" in an insulting manner as I passed by. Scarcely had the words been

uttered, than one of our little lads sent the small child of Israel sprawling on his back in the gutter, and then stood over him in the attitude of a young St. George trampling the Dragon under foot, while he exclaimed indignantly, "I'll have you to know that 's my sister!" And that is only one instance out of many, in which a brave little Band of Hope boy has shown his mettle.

They kept their temperance pledges valiantly, through many a temptation, and as they grew older and went out to work we had to start a Senior Band of Hope at a later hour.

This Guild of Hope, as the young people preferred its being called, met on Tuesday from 8:30 to 9:30. We always had one business meeting a quarter, elected new members and arranged the programs of all the meetings, one evening being for recreation, another for a devotional meeting, another for a debate, etc.

On Wednesday afternoon we held a second mothers' meeting, after which came a sewing class for little girls, then church, and then the elder girls' sewing class. A great many garments were made at these classes, and we also taught dress making and cutting. Millinery seemed to come naturally to our maidens, one only needed to improve their taste a little. Certainly the wonderful erections of flowers and feathers were rather appalling at first, but as years went on we could see a marked improvement in their headwear and style of dress generally.

On Thursdays the candidates for the Girls' Friendly Society met for an hour's recreation. We found kindergarten games and songs and dumb-bells a great attraction. After the children had gone the elder girls came for their singing class, which was much appreciated. They delighted in part-singing, and would occasionally get up little concerts, either to benefit the funds of our own branch or to assist some neighboring parish.

On Fridays, the very little girls came to needlework and afterwards their elders had a cookery, laundry, or ambulance class. Some of the girls learned to cook excellently, and the laundry class was very well attended.

The girls always seemed ready to take time and trouble to do a good turn to each other or to us.

Well do I remember, on one occasion when we had no servant, coming in, after a hard day's work in the district, to find two girls at work like good fairies in our little kitchen. One was polishing up the grate till it shone resplendent in the light, while the other was busily engaged in cleaning the windows till they rivaled the grate in brightness—and all this, "because they thought we would be tired, and would like to find our work done for us."

Most of our time in the day was taken up by house-to-house visiting, looking after the sick, trying to cheer up the old, and inviting newcomers to join classes.

As a rule, the people were merry, happy-go-lucky, unless the actual pinch of cold and hunger was telling on them. One of their chief failings was improvidence. They either would not or could not save and it seemed almost impossible to teach them to do so.

Of course, with some, the wages were so scanty that saving was an actual impossibility, as in the case of old Betsey Silver, the match-box maker, who lived in a queer tumble-down back court. Betsey's husband was an invalid, and she and her daughter worked hard to keep a roof over their heads. For eighteen hours would they sometimes slave, just leaving off to snatch a hasty and insufficient meal of bread and butter and tea. No time to cook, no time to clean the house, their lives one incessant round of making match-boxes and sanding them, and all for four and one half cents a gross, and "find your own paste." Think of it, a hundred and forty-four match-boxes made throughout for four and a half cents!

Betsey was an amusing old soul, and really wonderfully contented. She used very long words. I never could think where she had learned them. The first time I went to see her, she begged me to "excuse her humble domicile." She was very proud too, in her way. There she would sit, a mere bundle of rags and dirt, and say: "But I'm not one of the lower

classes, my dear, I wouldn't demean myself to associate with them. I would have you to know that I have very aristocratic blood in my veins. I can trace my descent from the Royal Stuarts of Scotland."

Poor old soul! I think she really believed she was a distant cousin of our beloved queen.

Silk weaving by hand was a trade that was slowly dying out, for no young people cared to learn it. The weavers were a gentle, quiet race of people, most of them still bearing traces of their Huguenot ancestry, and their old French names, Devilles, Gerards, Chabots, and the like.

Many of the old houses still had the long low windows, specially planned to throw light on the looms, wonderful old things they were, many of them dating back fully two hundred years. The bell of the neighboring church of Spitalfields still rang at six every morning "to wake the weavers to their work," I was informed, and still "the curfew tolled the knell of parting day," though I am afraid but few weavers put their work away so early.

I used to watch one old man at his work. His wife helped him; she was a silk-winder.

"But she will never make a weaver, my dear. No woman can ever weave."

"Why can't she, Mr. Chabot?" I ventured to ask.

The old man pushed his spectacles up on his forehead, looked at me with compassionate eyes, and shook his head solemnly. Then he said in an oracular manner, "It requires study, my dear, deep study. It's too difficult for the mind of any woman, and that's all about it."

I believe it was the weavers originally who introduced the habit of keeping pet birds in the East End. However that may be, it is now a universal custom, and there is scarcely a family in the neighborhood that does not boast its pet linnet or goldfinch. It seemed fruitless toil to speak of the cruelty of keeping small birds in cages. The only way was to induce the owners to treat the little creatures with kindness and consideration.

Sclater Street, which was close by our house, was a bird-haunted place, almost every house being a bird shop.

"Bird Fair," as the people called it, was held here every Sunday morning. One of the men told me that an auction took place, besides a great competition of singing birds, which was a fruitful source of betting and gambling. The little songsters themselves entered into this competition with such zest that occasionally one of them would fall down dead from exhaustion, having literally sung himself to death. A curious place indeed was Bird Fair, with its crowd of people, most of them apparently utter heathen; but here and there some earnest Christian soul, Churchman or Nonconformist, giving tracts away, or preaching at the street corner to a little group of half scornful listeners.

Sunday marketing was a great trial to all teachers of religion. All the morning certain market streets were thronged with eager buyers and sellers, while the sweet-stuff shops and the "hokey-pokey man" wiled the halfpence from the pockets of the little Sunday scholars; for, however great the poverty may be in the East End, somehow or other there always seems enough money to buy sweets, and, alas, enough money to spend on drink.

But our people, free-handed about money as regarded themselves, were also wonderfully ready to spend it on others. At one time we were much afraid that we should lose our Church House. The lease had run out, and unless we could buy the property at a cost of \$12,500 it would be entirely taken out of our hands. The way the people brought all they could, to help forward the purchase, was surprising and gratifying.

One man, a carpenter and father of a large family, worked over time and brought the proceeds to add to the fund. A poor old widow, living on parish pay, laid by two-pence a week till the required sum was completed. A small boy of seven came to see me one day, with a triumphant look on his bonny little face.

"It's money," he cried, putting a dirty

little cotton bag into my hand. "It 's all my own. I've been saving up since Christmas, to help to buy the Church House." And together we turned out the contents of the bag, and counted it up. Twenty-four farthings, all the little lad's savings, gladly given to help on the work!

Once in church a little girl sat next me, dirty and ragged, with no hat on her curly head, but grasping a farthing tightly in her hot little fingers. "Will they bring the bag round?" she whispered eagerly. "I wish they'd bring it *quick*!" When the offertory was collected, the little maid dropped her farthing into the almsbag, with a look that seemed to harmonize with the words then being read from the altar, "Not grudgingly, nor of necessity, for God loveth a cheerful giver."

A great fire one Friday night rendered a good many sufferers homeless. On Sunday morning there were several boys with collecting boxes out in the street, to obtain relief for those so suddenly brought to destitution. The gifts of the poor mounted up so quickly that many of the burnt-out families were soon better off than they ever had been before.

One poor widow and her child were taking a walk that Sunday. They were in terrible need, in fact I know they had not had sufficient food for some time. That very day their Sunday dinner—which is usually quite a little feast among the poor—had consisted only of a crust of bread and bit of cheese. Some kind-hearted neighbor had given the little Edith a penny, as she and her mother started for their walk. But, as soon as they caught sight of the collecting boxes, "Mother," exclaimed the child, "we have a home! The poor burnt-out people are worse off than we are." And so, without more ado, the penny went to help the homeless.

Indeed, when we saw deeds like this done so often, and so simply, we were reminded over and over again of the widow's mite, and we felt that careless, childish, impulsive, and improvident as our people were, there was a certain nobility and generosity in their character that showed they were really

capable of great things.

The love of flowers is a marked trait in our people. Many quaint little gardens they have in their back yards. One dear old soul, after a visit to the country, came back laden with plants of stinging nettle. "They do hurt one's hands a bit," she remarked, "but then they *are* such a beautiful green, it's a pleasure to see them," and she proceeded to plant them in her back yard, where they grow and flourish to this day.

We had a flower show one year, and a tall white lily took a prize. It had been grown in a very tiny garden, but no plant could have had more love and devotion lavished upon it. It was presented to the good bishop at the close of the day, and I believe is growing in his garden still.

"We do so love a bit of green," is heard over and over again, and one of the most popular Sunday services is the Flower Service, held once a year, when the little ones, accompanied by their elders, come to church each bearing a bunch of flowers. The flowers are collected at the close of the service and solemnly presented at the altar, after which they are carried out to cheer the sick and needy in the Whitechapel Workhouse.

Now that every church and chapel has its clubs, its concerts, its social evenings, and the like, there is far less danger of the people's seeking amusement in demoralizing sport than once there was. Amusement they *will* have, and I think it is for us to see that it is provided for them.

I think the great majority of the East Enders have a strong sense of loyalty and religion. Of course one occasionally met a few who spoke against the royal family, or scoffed at the truths of our faith. But they were distinctly in the minority, and were mostly great talkers on subjects of which they were profoundly ignorant.

As a rule, the people spoke in the most friendly, affectionate way of the queen and her family. They felt the deepest sympathy with the princess of Wales in her great sorrow, when she lost her eldest son, and I am sure they were ready to take Princess

May's dear little baby to their hearts at once.

The people were respectful, too, to the clergy and workers when they felt they could know and trust them. They were certainly somewhat slow in taking to strangers, but when one was no longer a stranger, then one indeed knew and felt the depths of loving kindness to be found in the heart of the East End.

We tried, throughout, to keep all our work on a distinctly religious basis. We

tried "to acknowledge God in all our ways," and I am sure that "He directed our paths." We were constantly cheered and encouraged by the simple faith of many of our people. I feel more and more convinced that philanthropy and civilization will effect very little unless they advance hand in hand with religion, but that as long as we give the first place in our work and our thoughts to God, His cause will prosper, and the poor in our great cities will be won for Him and His church.

THE RACE QUESTION IN AUSTRIA.

BY OTTO WITTELSHÖFER.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "PREUSSISCHE JAHRBÜCHER."

THE race question in Austria, its history, merits, and phases have been very often the subject of discussion. Yet in spite of all the essays and histories that have hitherto been written the real situation in the monarchy remains unrevealed to neighboring and foreign nations. The chief reason for this lack of information, or perhaps better the occasion for the obscurity which pervades the problem abroad, is the absence of any thorough exposition of the economic and social elements which really dominate the whole matter. Every one wrote at first about the political conditions only, and but recently have articles and treatises dealing with the fundamental questions appeared even in Austria itself.

It is a difficult thing not to discuss the subject from a partisan standpoint; for the race jealousies and rivalries are bound to affect the judgment of the most conscientious investigator. At the outset you are met with the great perplexing problem of the relations between the Germans and Czechs, and it is almost impossible to remain unbiased in the presence of this absorbing struggle for the mastery.

Ever since the revolutionary movement of 1848 the stir of nations has agitated all Cisleithan Austria¹ and has at last reached a climax which could not have been antici-

pated. The measures adopted by the Taaffe² ministry, during its administration of fourteen years, are to be considered partly as unlucky attempts to smooth over the whole matter and partly as an intentional effort to do away with the balance of power among the races. Yet it must be confessed that the favoring of the Slavic element, which was begun at this time, has gradually drawn that element away from its position of passive contemplation, and has laid a burden on subsequent administrations which they cannot reject.

The solution of the relations of the nationalities in Austria is different from what it would be in other lands, for the reason that there is here a distinct tendency toward race mingling, which is going on in the country districts as well as in urban communities. It would be a difficult matter to find families belonging to the upper classes of the great cities who could not point to a race-mixture among their parents or grandparents. In the lower classes this fact is more evident in certain conditions of life, and less general than with their betters, yet the introduction of obligatory army service, the transfer of conscripts from their native localities to more or less distant ones, and the mingling of workmen of different races in the great undertakings of the government, such as the building of railroads, have all powerfully influenced national feeling.

Descent and nationality, however, refuse to be concealed and we find to-day that certain names are linked with certain parties, to which in their derivation they are diametrically opposed. For instance, among the German leaders of Bohemia are seen such names as Schmeykal, Chlumecky, and Kozeppek, and among the protagonists⁸ of the Czechs the genuine German patronymics of Rieger, Krumbholz, and Purghart. The most prominent parliamentary opponent of the Italians is a Croat, boasting of the sonorous Italian name of Bianchi. No Hungarian will doubt the thoroughly national enthusiasm of the premier, Wekerle, though this word points unmistakably to a non-Magyar line of descent, as did MacMahon to a non-French parentage. At the head of the Czech movement have been for a long time members of the Frankish race of Schwarzenberg, while at the same time other scions of this house are distinguished as Germans. So we find that many old families of the Bohemian nobility are divided by the race question of that country, and can point to representatives in the different opposing camps, and the same is occasionally true of the trades classes—as at present in the Austrian Parliament, where two brothers sit, the one as a representative of the Germans, the other of the Poles.

The political relations are also no criterion of nationality. At the present day the nationality of the Poles is still in existence, although their country has been divided among three foreign states for a hundred years. On the other hand Swiss nationality is formed by the aggregation of the members of three races and tongues. In Austria there has never been a serious attempt to derive nationality from political conditions, and make one nation of the various peoples which serve under the Hapsburg⁴ banner. As has been said by the leader of the Poles in the Austrian Parliament, "Austria is not inhabited by Austrians." Yet no one would dare to say, on the same principle, regarding Hungary, that Hungary is not inhabited by Hungarians. There the political relationship makes nationality.

But the civilization of the different peo-

ples in Austria reveals quite important differences, though these differences are to be attributed to geographical and historical influences rather than to national peculiarities. The civilizing influence of the central states has not pressed to the north and south so strongly as in other lands. That Slavs live in the regions less advanced is not to be taken as a proof that the Austrian Slavs are not to be considered as a civilizing element. The Czech Slav who has lived in the same mental atmosphere as the German dweller of Bohemia has raised himself to a notable intellectual station. For centuries Czechs and Germans possessed a university together. Both races learned each other's language and industries, and the Czech population shared in the German civilization. A Czech peasantry arose which early recognized the importance of the beet-sugar industry, clubbed together to build factories for its manufacture, and established besides a national system of benevolent and saving associations. The Czech peasantry supports most vigorously the modern public school system, and by its defense of its schools has aided strongly in the Young Czech⁵ political movement.

Nor can the different tongues in Austria avail by themselves in making out nationalities beyond mistaking. Not only Switzerland with its many languages and one nationality, but other lands of various vernaculars and one government, like the United States and Belgium, show that different races can be fused into one people. On the other hand we find large communities using but one tongue which are possessed by different nationalities, as England and Ireland most significantly prove. But in Austria it almost seems as though language (with the exception of the Servians and Croats in Dalmatia) would really found that difference, which not only separates peoples, but also summons them to the combat against one another.

In Austria there are numerous languages and dialects. Chief among them are the German, Czech (Moravian and Slovak), Polish, Ruthenian, Slovenian, Italian, Serbo-Croat, and Roumanian. The laws of the

realm are published in these eight idioms.⁶ In reality there is no regular official language, though in the fifties the government tried hard to make the German language the authorized one. In 1880 this question was brought forward in Parliament, but the majority opposed the sanction of German only. It was recognized that in Austria German enjoyed a certain privilege, but that this privilege arose from practical considerations, and was confined to those cases where a common tongue was necessary in order to make different nationalities understand one another. Yet when all the parties to the discussion were non-German it was found that the speech of one of these was chosen as the vehicle of communication, and not the German tongue.

The position of the various languages seems to be as follows: In the first class German only is used, as in Austria proper; in the second class, the language in possession of the particular country, as the Polish in Galicia and Italian in South Tyrol, Triest, and Dalmatia; in the third class, the local dialect and idiom.

When we speak of language in the public life of Austria, we have to distinguish only the language of business and the local idioms. The censuses of 1880 and 1890 were based on this distinction. The census officials were required to ascertain what particular speech was in household use in the various parts of the kingdom, and separate it from the speech which might be found in the marts of trade or employed by the local newspapers. The first general statistics regarding the nationalities in Austria proper—so far as they were disclosed by the speech—were tabulated in 1851. With them a comparison was made by statistics collected toward 1869. In 1851 the population of Austria—not including Hungary—was found to be 17,702,795. Of that number the Germans comprised 36.72 per cent, the Czechs 22.53 per cent, the Poles, 11.33, the Ruthenians 13.71, the Slovenians 6.05, the Serbo-Croats 3.03, the Italians 3, the Roumanians 1.04, the Jews 2.53, the Magyars .03, and all others .03. In 1869 the population of the same territory had risen to 20,394,800 and

the respective peoples numbered as follows: Germans 35.52 per cent, Czechs 24.14 per cent, Poles 11.54, Ruthenians 12.58, and the others about the same as in 1851, excepting the Jews, who had risen to 3.51 per cent.

The results of this tabulation were only approximate, for the methods in vogue both in 1851 and 1869 were but crude at the best, and are not to be considered as reliable. Yet strange to say they agree fairly well with the figures obtained by the more scientific enumerations of the years 1880 and 1890, so far as the two leading languages are concerned. But they show considerable discrepancy in the case of the two peoples next on the list, as will appear from the following figures. It will be noticed, however, that the Jews are not given as a separate class but are enrolled in their nationalities, a change which has increased the proportion of Germans and Poles, to whom the Jews almost without exception belong. Also in North Bohemia the Czech employees of German manufacturers have listed themselves as Germans, in order to profit by the German administration and German schools.

In 1880, then, the population of Austria proper was 21,794,231. Of these 36.75 per cent was German, 23.77 per cent Czech, 14.86 Poles, 12.80 Ruthenian, 5.23 Slovenian, 3.07 Italian, 2.59 Serbo-Croat, .88 Roumanian, .05 Magyar. In 1890 there were enumerated 23,473,056 inhabitants, of whom 36.05 per cent were Germans, 23.32 Czech, 15.84 Poles, 13.22 Ruthenians, and the remainder in about the same proportion as in 1880, although in the Magyar element there was an absolute decrease of nearly one sixth in the ten years. The Serbo-Croats on the other hand had made an absolute gain of about one seventh, or nearly as large a relative increase as the Poles, and somewhat larger than the proportional increase of the Ruthenians. The Roumanians also had made a relative gain of nearly one tenth.

Looking at these results from the standpoint of German influence, it will be seen that Austria is naturally divided into three groups. In the first, the eastern, is Galicia, almost wholly Polish, in the second—Ger-

man, German-Slav, and German-Italian—are the provinces, Austria, Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, and in the third—the South Slav-Italian—Dalmatia and its surrounding territory. The second group is where the German population predominates, though not overwhelmingly, and in the ten years from 1880 to 1890 it gained from 53.22 to 53.64 per cent of the whole. The Slav population fell from 44.21 per cent to 43.94 per cent of the whole, and the other nationalities decreased absolutely as well as relatively.

So far as Bohemia is concerned, where the strife of nationalities is gathering such great headway and is threatening almost the peace and perhaps the unity of the monarchy, it is seen that the Germans have numerically increased. This is brought about by the development of manufacturing in the northern part of that country, and the attractions thus offered to ambitious Germans, as well as the transfer of large bodies of the Czech community to that region, where they, for reasons to their present advantage, enroll themselves as Germans. It is a question, however, whether this addition will be a permanent one. For it has been noticed that once gathered into a community the Czechs feel the influence of the strife between nationalities, and revive their patriotism with their increasing numbers. So after all it may be that the present profit of the German population will turn to their future disadvantage, and that when the manufacturing towns of Bohemia have grown to respectable dimensions they will become hotbeds of Czech race enthusiasm. In that case the net result will have been to extend the limits of Czech territory.

In this connection the census of Vienna in 1890 is instructive. Of the 1,364,548 inhabitants it contained at that time, 610,062 were born in the city, 155,379 in lower Austria, 378,076 in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, 83,313 in other territories of the monarchy, and 137,718 in foreign lands, including Hungary. Now of the 378,076 from Bohemia and the north probably 133,490 were German speaking, while 244,586 spoke the Czech tongue. A comparison of figures shows a steady increase of the natives

of the three northern provinces in lower Austria since 1869. But as only a portion of that immigration gives Czech as its speech, it seems quite certain that the Bohemian Czechs are generally Germanized by the influence of their surroundings.

But if we go to Czech territory itself, figures show a decrease in German population. Prague for instance, which in 1869 was supposed to have 62.32 per cent of its inhabitants speaking Czech, in 1880 had 79.27 per cent, and in 1890, 83.55, while the Germans between 1880 and 1890 had made an absolute decrease, from 32,657 to 29,504.

So in the south the ascendancy of the Slav seems imminent. The Italians of Dalmatia formed in 1880 nearly 6 per cent of the population, in 1890 only about 3 per cent. We may perhaps thank Taaffe's ministry for a part of this change. Yet that cannot have been the only influence, since in Spalato the Italians fell from 9.58 to 2.79 per cent, in Lesina from 31.46 to 2.75 per cent, while the Croats increased from 89.81 to 96.91 per cent, and from 68.44 to 97.17 per cent.

It must be the growing feeling of nationality which has produced such great transfers of race allegiance as these, inclining the rising generation more and more to cast in its lot with the fortunes of the stronger race, numerically speaking. If this is the case, then it would look as though the supremacy of the Slav in Austria is only a question of time, and of but a short time at that. In Bohemia this law of attraction—always excepting the manufacturing district in the northern portion of that province—is in favor of the Czechs. All the larger towns in which both German and Czech are spoken are becoming steadily non-German, though the relative changes are not yet sufficient to deprive the German element of its former advantages. Vienna is still strong enough to Germanize the Slav elements of its immigration. And in Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia we find that the Germans held their own exactly between the years 1880 and 1890, while the Czechs decreased slightly to the profit of the Poles, or from 62.10 per cent of the whole to 61.96 per cent.

The conflict over the language is an old

one in Austria. It is an error to assume that the German was formerly paramount there. In the south, Italian was the language of the courts. In Galicia and Hungary the decrees were given in Latin so late as the first half of this century. The attempt made by Joseph II. in the year 1784 to establish the German language as the official vernacular of schools and business did not meet with complete success. The movement of 1848 unchained the national desires, and in a decree of April 8, of that year, Bohemian and German were each accorded equal authority in court and school. In the same month every nation in the kingdom was granted free and unimpaired the use of its own tongue. Then the reaction came, and the question of nationality was submerged for a while in the enthusiasm for centralization. But the constitution of 1867, following on the lessons learned in the war with Prussia, recognized again the principle of separate race and tongue. And in 1880, shortly after the beginning of the Taaffe ministry, appeared a decree regulating the languages to be used before the officials of the government, and in the law courts, in Bohemia and Moravia.

It may perhaps be interesting to cite the fundamental decrees of 1867:

"All races in the state have the same rights and each race has an inalienable right to the protection and fostering of its nationality and speech. The equality of all idioms of the monarchy in school, government office and public life is recognized by the state. In the territories where several races dwell the public schools shall be arranged, so that, without the employment of any compulsion in learning a second idiom, each of the races shall receive the requisite means for an education in its own tongue."

Should we sum up what has been said, it appears that the conception of nationality in Austria is no abiding one and that in the majority of cases the language used is considered the most prominent sign or characteristic of nationality. And yet it is to be noticed that it is not the ancestral speech

which is thus regarded, but rather that tongue which the citizen in question, or persons speaking for him, has acknowledged to be his. We have to do then, with *elected* nationalities, which naturally exclude the sharp distinctions that those nationalities recognize, which are based on descent, civilization, and development. The obliteration of national boundaries is increased thereby, in that transference from one nationality to another is not only allowable, but also is not connected with any formality. Religious belief is also dependent on the will of the individual, to be sure, but a change in creed demands formal renunciation and acceptance. It therefore holds its adherents in a stronger grasp than do the ties of nationality in Austria. Therefore, through the absence of abiding national standards, and through the violent fluctuations which are constantly occurring, the principles of nationality are bound to lose their strength, unless different political and economic influences are constantly contributed to their replenishment.

The solution of the question must then be looked for from other quarters than what are generally supposed to influence this great problem. The difficulties lie in the indistinct conception of nationality, and in persistent life of regions having mixed speech. Restricted territories using but one idiom could easily be brought under one national rule. But in Austria, the existence of so many localities, where two or more vernaculars are in the enjoyment of equal rights, brings up that question, most difficult to solve, of what the majority owes to the minority. How many national rights shall be granted to the minority? How shall these rights be protected against the majority?

The answers to these demands are necessarily many and tentative. But there is one thing which seems assured. And this is that such a condition of division in the same community cannot last long. One national feeling is bound to crowd out the other. And in the case of Austria it hardly seems probable that the evolution can end other than in the self-Germanization of the country.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[January 6.]

FOR ages the idea has prevailed that to attain the highest goodness, or the "kingdom of heaven," one must necessarily live poorly, while the "wicked" live on the best.

On the contrary, in the future, the best people, those who through their ever-growing spiritual power have "drawn nearer to God," or the Source of Infinite Good, will through such power attract to themselves and enjoy the very best of every good thing.

When we live up to the fuller application of the law, life will become a continual succession of good things, to use and enjoy, but not to hoard; for it is a law working in all nature, through plant, insect, animal, and man, that in order to have and enjoy the new, we must first rid ourselves of the old.

If the tree held stingily on to last year's fruit and leaves, and refused to drop them, would not the vents for next year's fruit and leaves be choked up? If the bird from dislike of parting with old possessions, could at its moulting season hold on to its old plumage, would there come the newer and fresher plumage? These are not farfetched illustrations in evidence of the great spiritual law, that the old *must* be cast off ere the new can come; for in all of nature's workings, from the seed to the human soul, there is a wonderful and beautiful correspondence and analogy. The same law governs the growth and fruitage of a tree as of your spirit, only as regards your spirit it is infinitely more varied and complicated in its workings.

As with the tree and the bird, if you would the quicker enjoy the new clothes, the new house, the newer and better surroundings of every sort, that you long for, cease in mind to cling and hang on to *all* things you have no use for in the present or soon coming future. If you so hold on to the inferior you will keep from you the superior. **D-Jan.**

If you will keep company with people who after all only tire you and bore you, who ridicule your ideas if you express them, and are utterly profitless to you, you keep the better people from you. If you cling to the old worn-out suit of clothes or seedy bonnet, and out of stinginess hate to give it away, and expend any amount of your force in haggling and dickering to sell it for a dime, you will not near as soon have the better clothing, for every thought put in the old represents just so much force, which could as well have been put on a plan to bring you hundreds of dollars instead of dimes.

If you have more things about you than you want for immediate use and enjoyment, they prove not only an annoyance, but that annoyance prevents you from gaining the newer and better. If out of desire of getting your money's worth you eat enough for three dinners in one, you make too large a contract for the stomach to fill, and defeat the purpose for which you put food into your body. If you have a horse in your stables you have no use for, it is more profitable to sell or give him away before he "eats his head off." If you have a garret full of old chests and chairs and furniture, or drawers full of half-worn clothing and shreds and rags and patches, all of which you keep simply from love of keeping them, or from the idea that you may need these things some time or other, it is far more profitable to sell them or give them away. Because these old and unused things do keep newer and better things from you, by being a care, a load on your mind.

[January 13.]

ONE secret of the kings of finance is that they know when to rid themselves of possessions on seeing how those possessions can be of no further use to them. In so doing they work by a spiritual method. **Far-**

sighted men are at this moment "unloading" themselves of properties which they see have no immediate money in them, and near-sighted men are at this moment buying those properties, which will for years lay on their hands a care without recompense, and an incumbrance and obstacle to more immediate gain. The real cost of keeping things is the amount of thought you put in their keeping. If you will keep an old bedstead or bureau, or anything else you never have any use for, and pack it about with you at every house-moving, and put study and calculation as to the place it shall occupy, and worry then because it takes room which you need for everyday purposes, you are putting from time to time force enough on a (to you) useless article which, if properly directed, would buy a hundred new bureaus. In this way does this, the blind desire of mere keeping and hoarding, keep many people poor, and even makes paupers.

Mere hoarding is not business. If every one put away money as he gained it, and lived on as little as possible, and continually decreased his expenses, the world's business would soon stop, not so much from lack of money, lying useless in chests and old stockings, but because there would soon be little left for people to do to gain money. It is large outlays, expensive and luxurious styles of living, the making of the costliest articles, the erection of magnificent buildings, and not hovels, the demand for the very best of everything, that keeps the laborer, the mechanic, the artist in any department, at work, and keeps the stream of wages pouring into their pockets.

Families doing no business, and living entirely on the interest derived from hoarded wealth gained by their ancestors, last but a few generations. They die out, because their spiritual activities and forces become inert and sluggish, from lack of exercise. They live the lives of drones, and as one generation succeeds another their minds grow feebler. They become unable even to hold their possessions against the rising and more active forces about them.

In point of wealth, where are the families that existed in this country a century ago?

In most cases out of sight, impoverished, and superseded by those now so prominent in the world of business and finance—the new men, poor materially at the start, but having minds richer in force. They have exercised that force and achieved their partial successes, and their grandchildren or great grandchildren may become paupers, if content merely to exist on incomes, and give no play to their forces. Even in England it becomes difficult to keep wealth in families as handed down by entail from father to eldest son, for even when sons are supplied they often prove unable to keep the property left them, and even the bequeathed title and possessions of a duke or earl may not prevent that duke or earl from being very low in the scale of intellect.

But the life using this present body is the merest fragment of our real existence. There is an inevitable penalty to be surely paid by the hoarder of money or other possessions, on losing his body. He has not "passed away," he has only passed from physical sight. He has the same desire as ever to control his property and handle his money. He cannot of it lift a farthing in material substance. But he knows that the money he once called his own exists, and where it is. He knows as well as ever the people still having material bodies he once dealt with, while he to them is a blank—nothing. Though he may have "willed" his millions to others, he cannot will the desire for their possession out of his mind. If such desire for mere keeping without using existed during the life of the body, it will be just as strong after the death of the body. Your mental characteristics, your temper, your inclinations, your passions, your appetites, are no more changed immediately on the death of your body than they are changed to-day, when you cut off a part of that body, say an arm or a leg.

[January 20.]

If at the death of your body you are a mere hoarder of things, you will be tied to those things by bonds or chains which, though invisible, are as real as chains of iron. If during the body's life your thought

is put entirely on the gold or bankbills in the safe or vault, if nine tenths of your time is occupied in planning to add to that hoarded and useless store, you are making in the element of thought chains or filaments tying you to the gold, or bills, or house, or lands once yours and now controlled by others, and yours will be the pain of seeing all these things used as others please, while you can neither get away from nor cease to claim them as your own.

It is this law of being and of attraction that has forced people, after losing their bodies, to remain long periods of time at or near places where, when in visible form; they buried treasures, or in houses they formerly owned or occupied, which they do literally "haunt" and are sometimes seen by a physical eye, temporarily clairvoyant, or through the disembodied person's being able to act for a time through or by some physical agency.

"Ghost stories," so called, have prevailed in every age, in every nation, among people widely separated from each other, and have been told ever since human history was given, either in writing or tradition. They are based on truth and reality.

You do not "pass away" from earth at all on losing your body, nor do you "come back" in the sense of coming from some far-off place. You are here still, though unseen, among your friends, if you have any, at your desk, your store, your workshop, where, possibly a few hours previous, your body dropped lifeless, because your spirit had no longer strength to carry it; and if while using the body your heart, soul, and mind were ever bent, wrapped up and directed only to that one place or occupation, and you had little or no interest in anything else—to no art, to the bringing out of no other talent within you save that of mere money-getting and property-hoarding, then to that one place will you be bound by these invisible ties, nor can you break them and get elsewhere until you learn to cultivate your other powers; in other words, to throw the current of your thought on other interests and pursuits. In so doing you create a literal magnet of thought element as you

center yourself more and more in such pursuit; and as this, aided by your earnest desire, grows stronger and stronger, it will attract you more and more from the old center or place to which you are tied, and at last break such tie altogether.

If you do not cultivate your other and latent resources, yours will be the misery of being so bound to that house, place, or pursuit, though it be carried on in a manner against your inclination, though old acquaintances drop out and strangers take their places, though your family mansion passes into unknown hands,—and to-day many a person without a visible organization lingers in misery in and about the house he once owned, tied to it, because he can center no interest in anything else, a stranger in the place he tries to call home; and if he approach his own fireside it is only to be repelled or annoyed by the thought atmosphere of the new people about it.

"It is easier for the camel to pass through the needle's eye than for a rich man to enter the kingdom of heaven," one may quote against us. The "kingdom of heaven" is located in no particular place in space, and can be and will be wherever mind grows wise enough and strong enough to make it, be it on the earth stratum of life or elsewhere. The "rich man" who cannot enter is really the poor man who loads himself down with things he cannot use or allow others to use,—a human dog in the manger, spending all his force in standing guard and snarling over what he cannot use and will not allow others to use, and is at last killed by the continual generation within himself of the poisonous thought of snarling and covetousness. But the rich mind and the rich man, who, knowing the law, has the secret and power of attracting the world's best of everything to him, not only that he himself may use and enjoy, but contribute to the good and happiness of all, lives, in so doing, in the kingdom of heaven. He becomes, as his power and wisdom increase as a growing river, ever bearing from the mountain tops both water and soil to fertilize the plains; but if the river hoarded soil and water, what would be the result?

[January 27.]

NEITHER "moth and rust nor thieves" can affect possessions which are used but not hoarded. The plant appropriates and uses only what it needs for the hour, of air, water, sunshine, and earth element. If more is supplied the plant than is necessary for its present needs, thereby is caused blight and disease. When man, through his artificial and unnatural methods of cultivation, overstimulates vegetable growth by excess of fertilizing material, an insect life is bred of the plant. That insect is destructive to that plant, because there has been an oversupply and a hoarding of some element in undue quantity. Element in any form of life must be used, not hoarded, if real profit and pleasure are desired from it. Moths on plants and moths and rust in anything are themselves provisions and methods from the Source of Infinite Good to prevent hoarding. Neither moth nor rust really destroy. They take elements to pieces useless in their present form and scatter and distribute them, that they may enter into new forms of combination and serve new uses.

If you owned this whole earth, in the worldly sense, you could only use and enjoy such portion of its air, sunshine, water, foods, and forces as would satisfy your needs for the hour and the day. The keeping of the rest would ultimately destroy your body. Your ownership would be a farce. You have no control over the planet's revolutions, over the tides, the seasons, or the river's flow to the seas. You have no power over earthquake or storm. You cannot keep your body on the land you think you own, when the time comes that your overburdened spirit loses the power to hold itself to that body. You lose your body, and what then? You are a miserable prisoner, tied to numberless tracts of land, houses, and all other physical properties, unable to control them, to use them, to enjoy them, and worse still, to free yourself from the delusion that still you do own them. You are really insane. You have then "gained the whole world and lost your own soul." That is, you have not yet found

your soul; or, in other words, the power latent in you to increase ever your thought force so as to draw all things to you, to use and enjoy and then rid yourself of, so as to gain the newer and better.

But following the law common to all life, that of throwing off the old in order to receive the new, exactly as your body throws off what it cannot assimilate and convert into bone, muscle, and blood, will give your spirit more and more power. You are then going forward on the road to complete command over all material things. You will then eventually have power to heal your body of any ailment, to make it ever more perfect, strong, and healthy, to be at last beyond the reach of all disease, and as a consummation, to be able to put on or take off that body as you would a garment. So freed from it, your real self is independent of all ordinary means of locomotion. You visit other lands and while there make a body for transient use. These things have been done in past ages. They have been realized in later days to an extent among certain oriental races. They are certain possibilities for the future.

The basis for attracting the best of all the world can give to you, is first to surround, own, and live in these things in mind, or what is falsely called imagination. All so-called imaginings are realities and forces of an unseen element. Live in mind in a palace, and gradually palatial surroundings will gravitate to you. But so living in is *not* pining, or longing, or complainingly wishing. It is when you are "down in the world," calmly and persistently seeing yourself as up. It is when you are now compelled to eat from a tin plate, regarding that tin plate as only the certain step to one of silver. It is *not* envying and growling at other people who have silver plate. That growling is just so much capital stock taken from the bank account of mental force.

But when you have no present use for your palace, give others the use of it, or it will become your poorhouse. If you store it away, you store with it so much weight on your mind, so much thought to be expended in storage, so much spiritual force which

might otherwise have been put in the cultivation of a talent. If you have five talents or ten talents it is your necessity to cultivate them all at times, and you want for such cultivation all your power unshackled. You are an institution, and if you do not cultivate every department of that institution, every taste and power you feel within you, you will suffer. The whole man is merchant, mechanic, physician, actor, painter, sculptor, all and everything longed for by his ambition

and inspiration. Eternity has time enough for all these, as recreations. You cannot reduce such a man to beggary. Beggary is not in him. Destroy every material thing to-day he possesses, and to-morrow his force will be attracting more. Men are living to-day who *partly* illustrate this law. Others are to come who are to make the illustration far more perfect, and live lives which will fill the world with wonder and admiration.

—*Prentice Mulford.*

COUNT MOLTKE, FIELD MARSHAL.

BY SIDNEY WHITMAN.

FIRST ARTICLE.

DURING the last years of his life, when not at his country seat in Silesia, the late Count Moltke lived in Berlin in the huge general staff building (Generalstabsgebäude) just opposite the column of Victory in the Thiergarten.¹ His nephew, Major von Moltke, with his family lived with him and presided over the household. It was there that I made the acquaintance of the illustrious soldier.

The personality of the famous "battle-thinker" had gained such a weird hold on my imagination, that I can still remember being taken back at the prospect of meeting him face to face; and in following Major von Moltke along the vast corridors, I instinctively asked him what I could possibly say to the great general. It seemed easy to understand Heine, the poet, who, on being presented to Goethe at Weimar, found nothing better to say to the "master" than that the cherry trees were in full bloom on the road to Jena.

Count Moltke met me at the door of an enormous *salon*, in one of the corners of which stood a little writing table. He led the way to it and, still standing, motioned me to take a seat. He wore the undress uniform of a Prussian general; and, had it not been for his thin voice and the thousands of minute wrinkles in his face, there would have been little to denote a difference

between a man of sixty and one not far from ninety. It is true he stooped slightly, but that could easily have passed for an outward sign of kindly complaisance of manner in receiving a stranger. The steel-blue eyes had a hard cold glitter, clear and piercing, undimmed by age; something uncanny like that of an eagle or falcon, now and then, as if warmed by a ray of benevolence and spiritual culture. You could readily imagine the tremor that terrible countenance might cause in the breast of a subordinate. Seen at a distance, attired in a plain half-threadbare overcoat and a black billy-cock hat²—Moltke's favorite disguise when traveling—it might have been possible to fancy the schoolmaster; but that illusion was soon dispelled when you came to peer closely into those adamantine features.

Like all Prussian officers of high rank, Count Moltke's manner was marked by extreme, almost courtier-like, urbanity. But, contrary to expectation raised by his reputation for exceptional taciturnity, I found him full of conversation on a variety of topics. He was pleased to ask me where I had gained my information on matters connected with the German army; and, to my reply that I had picked it up here and there in intercourse with friends in the army, and from reading, he shook his head and, smiling, said that my explanation was insufficient and that my knowledge was

a mystery to him. The field marshal evidently gave me credit for a fuller acquaintance with the subject in general than I possessed, for he at once entered into a disquisition of the principles which underlie the organization of the German general staff, the connection of politics with the leadership of the army, etc. He emphasized the importance of the organization and supreme command of the army being kept entirely independent of the daily currents of party politics—the advantages of stability, only to be obtained in the hands of permanent authority, etc. He touched upon the difficulties which the military administration had to contend with in countries such as Spain, France, and even England, owing to political causes. He even referred in kindly words to a personality who, he assumed, might be called to supreme command in England in case of need. I did not dare to tell him that the person in question was not accepted as a strategist at all in England; that he was better known as a popular lecturer and, above all, as a popular author—a latter-day historian, who had supplanted antiquated Macaulay in popular favor.

Moltke was evidently a believer in the directing power of one man in military matters; but he did not seem to allow for the difficulty of discovering a *man*, in times when public opinion is prone to admire "popular generals."

The subject of Russia seemed to be much in his thoughts; in fact, on this and subsequent occasions I gained the impression that the old warrior would not have been averse to tackle the Russians and push the Northern Colossus^a a few pegs back toward Asia. It is well known that he believed the conflict sooner or later to be inevitable, and that the present offered more favorable chances than the future was likely to afford. In this he was in direct antagonism to Prince Bismarck, who has always held that there is no need, and that it is not to the interest of Germany, to quarrel seriously with Russia.

"It is a great pity," he said, "that the Swedes do not possess a strong military organization; for then, in case of a general

war, they might retake Finland*—the civilization of which is Scandinavian and not Russian."

The enormous growing power of Russia evidently caused the old man anxiety. Nor could it be merely the overanxious fears of old age; for in his earlier writings, at a time when the popular phrase was current of the "Northern Giant with the clay feet," Moltke had pointed out that Russia possessed among her myriad races a greater nucleus of one homogeneous race (the Great Russian) than any other civilized military power and that this fact constituted a strong guarantee for the stability and political power of Russia in time to come.

He expressed his views, as was to be expected, without the least bias or tinge of national feeling. He seemed to think the antagonism of the Russians toward the Germans perfectly natural. "The fact is," he said, "the Russians are Asiatics and hitherto have owed whatever civilization they possessed, in a large measure, to the German element in their midst. They are gradually wakening up to a national life and thought of their own, and are naturally jealous of and inclined to throw off the mental tutelage they have been under for so long."

Throughout this *exposé* I noticed the chivalrous trait—so typical of high-class Prussians—and which is so refreshing in contrast to the eternally petty views of everyday mankind—the impartiality, the tone of high respect in which they refer to a possible antagonist. For your true typical military Prussian, hard and cold though he be, despite all his culture, has *au fond*^a a far more kindly feeling for the soldier of an inimical country than for the "pékin"^b of his own. But then his conception of the term *soldier* is unique. It is scarcely credible, but it is a fact nevertheless, that to many of this type of man the late Emperor Frederick, for all his chivalrous heroism, was never accepted as a typical Prussian soldier.

This my first interview with Moltke ended

* Finland has been in the possession of Russia only since 1809.

by his presenting me with two volumes of his writings, on the title-page of which he inscribed his name and a dedication. Calm and methodical in all he did, it was a curious sight to see him take the old-fashioned sand, instead of blotting paper, and, after sprinkling the sand over the wet writing, carefully pour it back, so that not a single grain was spilt.

Among the eminent men who contributed to the creation of a United Germany, Count Moltke may be said to have occupied an exceptional position, inasmuch as he was never assailed by those angry political passions which did not spare even an Emperor William. He was revered to the last as the modest, unassuming, mathematical, problem-solving, national hero,—a type this, peculiarly affinitive and dear to the German reflective mind; although, taken all round, Bismarck's character is in reality far more representatively nationally German than that of Moltke.

Yet, strange to say, amid this *unisono** of appreciation, the true key-note of Moltke's character and genius seems rarely to have been struck. Some of the more gushing admirers of the modest, cultured old gentleman would have been somewhat startled if it had fallen within his functions to deal in an inimical spirit with some of their fads and fancies. His vice-like grip would have bid them squirm and long for other and gentler methods—perhaps even for those of the “man of blood and iron.”

Moltke's was a hard Prussian nature. But it was not the hardness of one constitutionally impervious to the more gentle influences of this world—art, nature, and love. But his kindness and indulgence were the result of the momentary intellectual unbending of a naturally stern and, above all, sensitively proud temperament. His exquisite perceptions, his delicacy in dealing with persons and problems, were purely conventional or intellectual, and showed themselves only within strictly defined limitations. Once these passed, the unbending Cæsarian nature shone forth, and one look of those terrible features was usually sufficient to reveal the man of steel. Allowing for the difference

of time and circumstance, there was something of Augustus Cæsar in the composition of this northern Mecklenberg *junker*.¹ He might have mercilessly decreed the execution of his political opponents; but he would certainly have patronized letters and the fine arts as well.

A deal of claptrap has gone the round of publicity with regard to Moltke's excessive modesty, an explanation for which may perhaps be found in the temper of our times in which the old type of the “gentleman” is rapidly dying out. Thus the world can find no other label for a sensitively reticent, simple but proud nature, who scorns the trickery of self-advertisement, than that of “modesty.” But even this explanation is hardly sufficient to account for German opinion, bearing in mind that no lesser authority than Goethe tells us :

*Nur die Lumpe sind bescheiden,
Brave freuen sich der That.**

Germans might well bear this in mind. No, in reality, Moltke was a proud self-contained, constitutionally temperate and sober-minded man. Above all, he was plain and simple, like most truly distinguished men; but not more so than one endowed with a far more fertile imagination—Bismarck. The Emperor William was really a modest man, in the only sense the attribute is consistent with true dignity, largely in the sense in which all truly great characters are modest and simple. Moltke was far too self-reliant—too decisively certain of his power of intellect—and will ever be fairly classed among those whose modesty deserves to pass as a leading feature of their character.

A “modest” man who directs the movements of a million fighting men, and is ready to bleed an enemy to death—as Moltke proposed to deal with France—who instantly sends home the doughtiest leaders in disgrace for the slightest breach of discipline—who peremptorily refuses commands to reigning princes, yes, even to faithful old personal friends of his own sovereign who pleads for them—to call such a man modest is a misnomer. Besides, the

* “Only worthless minds are modest,
Honest men rejoice in deeds.”

very decided views Moltke held with regard to philosophy, political economy and politics in general were anything else but evidences of abnormal modesty—a quality which would have been impossible in one who could not help taking a fair measure of himself, unless he were blind to a sense of proportion in things. But the idea of Moltke's modesty offered scope for one of the most deplorable German traits of character: their love of vilifying their great men; and thus it served its purpose and became popular: the purpose of minimizing the greatness of Bismarck by opposing to him the modesty of Moltke. *Unsinn, Du siegst* (Nonsense, thou art victorious), as Schiller bids the doughty earl of Shrewsbury exclaim.

One distinguishing feature of Moltke's character may account in part for his reputation for modesty: viz., his total indifference to popularity; in which, however, he was in no wise exceptional among the great men who founded the German Empire. Their work had been absolutely impossible during the arduous years of parliamentary struggles, had they been popularity hunters,—the Roons,⁸ the Bismarcks, the Williams. But fortunately they were all of them born and bred among traditions which did not tend to make a man see the sun of human greatness reflected by endless popularity. Moltke was already a boy of about fifteen when the Russian Count Rostopchin was governor of Paris. The count was told one morning that he was immensely popular with the good Parisians. "Good gracious," he exclaimed, "what *bêtise*⁹ can I have possibly committed!" In a kindred but silent contempt for the ebullitions of a transient popularity, we may find much to explain Moltke's reputation for exceptional modesty.

An instinctive reverence for constituted authority—particularly authority handed down by historical traditions and represented by outward worldly pomp—was part of Moltke's nature. Thus when visiting in England many years ago he was immensely impressed by the wealth and influence of the English aristocracy; whereas Bismarck on his visits to England was more amused

than impressed, and often, in his peculiar, caustic manner, gave utterance to his conviction that the English aristocracy for all its wealth was no longer what it used to be—that it was decaying and had ceased to produce types of ruling men. "They no longer understand the art of governing," I have heard him say.

Moltke regretted to Bernhardt that Luther had gone too far in separating himself from the Roman Catholic church and thus diminishing unduly the sphere of its authority. Bismarck never took kindly to priests of any denomination—Catholic or Protestant. Moltke, even in his old age, after he had written on religious matters in a tone to suggest that his views were not far removed from those of an agnostic, still cherished great respect for a powerful Catholic prelate. He would immediately return the call of a Prince Bishop Kopp, whereas he might have taken little social account of a Protestant superintendent.

Moltke was a staunch monarchist by conviction. The divine ordainment of kingship was an article of faith with him. Thus the king was his "Herr," his lord and master. He had a deal of the courtier in his composition; but it stopped short of servility; for he could show his ill humor by icy silence, and sulk for days together, even with his most gracious lord and king. Glorious old William knew this by personal experience and put up with it. Great-hearted as he was, he bore no malice, for a deep sense of gratitude was a keynote of his lofty character. Thus on the day of the proclamation of the German Empire, when all the "Great of the Crown" were assembled in the palace of Versailles, and Moltke arrived—a little late, as was his wont on festive occasions—the king went up to him and, grasping both his hands, added to his thanks for all Moltke's achievements the expression of his gratitude to the great soldier for having borne so patiently with all his "ways" and "humors."

Yes, Moltke's loyalty left his self-respect intact. But he was ever extremely sensitive, and could feel a slight, even if it came from royalty itself. Thus, when the present

emperor superseded the successor Moltke himself had designated (Count Waldersee) and appointed Count Schlieffen (the present chief of the German staff) to replace him without consulting Moltke, the latter is said to have felt it. But he only said, "His Majesty wishes to show us that he is capable of choosing his own instruments."*

But if Moltke bowed before his own sovereign, there was little of bowing or of the velvet touch in his dealings with outside "Highnesses" and "Serenities." In true Prussian fashion, he could be arch-plain-spoken (*ersdeutlich*). When the late Duke Ernest of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha impetuously clamored for an independent command at the beginning of the war of 1870, and turned rusty when it was refused him by Moltke, the latter became very plain-spoken (*deutlich*), very "distinct" indeed. He had no time to lose with "tomfooleries," he muttered. Also, during the campaign, in the midst of battle, he would give his horse the spurs and quietly ride away, to avoid the pestering questions of battle-loafing "Serenities" about the course of things.

But if Moltke had no time to lose with "tomfooleries" in 1870, he seems to have

* King William had left all important appointments in time of war entirely to the discretion of his trusted commander.

had ample time at his disposal for other purposes.

I happened to ask one who was always near him during that war, whether "the field marshal" (Moltke was always referred to thus in conversation) had not been weighed down by anxiety and hard work during that eventful period. "Oh, no, not at all," he replied. "Just after Gravelotte,¹⁰ there were a few days during which he was in doubt as to the movements of MacMahon's army. While these lasted, the field marshal was decidedly worried and grumpy. But afterwards, with the exception of a very few important episodes, things went on as smoothly as possible, and he used to play his 'rubber' regularly every evening, and even found time for reading novels. Of course there were anxious moments before Paris; but mostly with regard to things in the south. He was naturally kept informed of everything that was going on from hour to hour, but, as a rule, even during the severe engagements before Paris, he had rarely anything to say with regard to their course, or cause to interfere in any way."

As is well-known, the wide independent initiative allowed to the commander of an army corps is one of the distinctive features of the German military system.

THE WORLD'S DEBT TO CHEMISTRY.†

BY PROFESSOR H. B. CORNWALL, PH.D.

OF PRINCETON COLLEGE.

AS CHEMISTRY is the science which deals with the smallest conceivable particles of matter, the atoms, so too is it a science of an exceedingly complex nature, and requiring infinite study to master its minute and numberless details. The last of the natural sciences to attain a comprehensive, coherent system, such as that of the modern chemistry of to-day, it was in early days one of the most widely studied and practiced, and notwithstanding the false notions and preconceived ideas of the alchemists,¹ whose chief aims seem to have been

the search for the philosopher's stone, which should change the baser into the nobler metals, and for the elixir of life, we must yet acknowledge to them our debt for many a valuable discovery. Sulphuric acid, nitric acid, phosphorus, and many another valuable compound or element, have been made known to us through their researches. But of chemistry as it is to-day they had not the remotest idea, nor could they have given an explanation of even the simplest of many reactions which to the tyro² in chemistry to-day are as familiar as his alphabet.

Qualitative³ reactions alone were appar-

† Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

ently known to them and it was not until the latter half of the eighteenth century that the discoveries of Priestley, Cavendish, and Scheele, and the researches of Wenzel began to give to students any true principles of chemistry. About that time Wenzel taught the true doctrine of definite chemical combinations and Richter proved the law of definite proportions, as shown by the fact that definite quantities of acids required definite quantities of bases to neutralize them. In 1804 Dalton found that in olefiant gas one part of hydrogen was always combined with six parts by weight of carbon, while in marsh gas it was combined with three parts of carbon. Finding similar fixed and definite ratios of the elements to exist in other compounds he was led to propose his atomic theory, which was that combinations occur between indivisible atoms, having definite weights. This theory was really the basis of quantitative chemical analysis and gave a great impetus to chemical research. Ber-ze/li-us, especially, led in this direction.

In the meantime, in 1774, Priestley had discovered oxygen; in 1781 Cavendish showed that water is a compound of hydrogen and oxygen, and thus overthrew the old metaphysical classification of water as an element, together with fire, air, and earth. Rigorous quantitative analysis began to give correct ideas of the nature of many hitherto little understood reactions, and the discoveries already alluded to, together with the discovery by Davy in 1807, that the hitherto undecomposable caustic alkalis, potash and soda, were really compounds of oxides of metals (potassium and sodium) with water, or could be produced by such a combination, opened the way for more systematic study.

In 1808 Gay Lussac announced the law that the combining volumes of gases as well as the sums of these volumes, bear a simple relation to the volume of the resulting compound. In 1811 Å-vo-gä'dro announced his hypothesis, that equal volumes of gases contain equal numbers of molecules, being led thereto by a consideration of the relations between the specific gravity and the atomic weights of the elements in the state of gas

or vapor. These laws and theories, with the aid of certain other principles, notably the law of Dulong and Petit [peh'-tee], announced in 1819 that the atoms of all elements have the same capacity for heat, or in other words, that the quantities of heat necessary to elevate to the same temperature a given weight of the different elements vary according to their atomic weights, furnished a basis for definitely determining the relative atomic weights of the elements, and tended greatly toward establishing uniformity among the leading chemists in this important respect.

Inorganic chemistry soon began to assume a definite shape, but the organic chemistry (by which may be understood the chemistry of vegetable and animal products, or the bodies which are directly or indirectly the result of vital processes) was a much more complex and difficult subject. For many years it was believed that such bodies as alcohol, the organic acids, tartaric, oxalic, citric, etc., could never be made directly from their elements, or even indirectly from inorganic compounds; but in 1828 Wöhler transformed ammonium cyanate into urea, and this was but the first of a number of organic compounds which have been made in the laboratory. Kolbe, for instance, made acetic acid. Bertholet [ber'-to-lä] discovered the formation of a-cet'y-lene, a compound of carbon and hydrogen, by direct combination of its elements under the electric arc, and from acetylene alcohol is easily produced. Oxalic, tartaric, and sal-i-cyl'-ic acid are also among organic compounds thus artificially produced.

As a result the study of organic chemistry was more systematically followed; types of important classes were established; the principles were developed which govern the substitution of certain groups of elements for others, and of single elements for elements or groups of elements, by means of which well established series of compounds were transformed into other series, and gradually a key was obtained to the hitherto mysterious nature of these bodies. In this pursuit of knowledge at times the stimulus came from the commercial side, when it was found that there was a possibility of pro-

ducing by chemical operations valuable colors, drugs, or substances of technical importance, but in the majority of cases the germ of the most valuable discoveries has been found out in the course of some patient and laborious investigation, undertaken for the love of scientific truth alone. In attempting to show the world's debt to chemistry this idea will be kept in mind, while we attempt to select from the bewildering number of examples, apparently equally worthy of our attention, a few that have led step by step to the establishment of some of the world's greatest industries.

Sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol, is in chemical operations akin to the steam engine in the mechanical industries. Without this powerful agent our chemical industries would be reduced almost to a standstill, since by no other means can we so readily and cheaply break up even very stable compounds and prepare their constituents for new combinations. Modern chemistry cannot claim the discovery of sulphuric acid, because, whether known to the ancients or not, it was certainly well known to the alchemists as early as the eighth century. Obtained, however, only in comparatively small quantities by expelling it at a high temperature from already existing sulphates, especially alum and copperas (sulphate of iron), it could never have been the foundation of the thousands of operations now depending on its use.

In 1749 Roebuck, in Scotland, greatly improved the method of making the acid from a mixture of sulphur and nitre burning in air, by substituting lead chambers for glass vessels to collect the gases formed. In 1793 Clément and Desormes [da-sorm], in France, discovered that the oxidation of the sulphur by the oxygen of the air was possible in the presence of small quantities of nitric peroxide and thereby greatly reduced the cost; but not until early in this century was the modern method introduced, of continuous combustion of sulphur in air with admission of nitric peroxide and steam, fully to oxidize the sulphurous oxide and to furnish the liquid sulphuric acid; together with the use of absorption towers to recover the

spent nitric oxide for reuse. On a working basis, commensurate with the demands for it, sulphuric acid is therefore the product of this century.

Until within thirty years the world's supply of soda depended on the sulphuric acid industry, and on soda has depended for nearly a century the world's main supply of soap. Truly styled by Liebig the measure of the civilization of a nation, the use of soap is to us so necessary that it is hard to realize that even in the middle ages soap was a luxury, although it was in fact known to the ancients. The lack of cleanliness was concealed by fine clothes and by perfumes.

But two causes combined to stimulate chemical invention, toward the close of the last century. At that time the soda used in soap boiling was obtained almost exclusively from seaweed or from plants rich in soda compounds, grown for the purpose on the coast of Spain or in the Levant. The ashes of seaweed, known as *kelp* in Scotland, and as *varec* in Normandy, and the *barilla* ash from Spain, consisted of impure carbonate of soda, and were largely used in France, England, and Germany. This supply was altogether insufficient to meet the greatly increased demand for soap in the growing cotton fabric industry, and besides that, France during the French Revolution could get no *barilla* from Spain, and all the available potash was needed to make nitrate of potash (nitre) for gunpowder. Her industries were at a standstill and the National Convention appealed to the chemists of France to devise a method for making soda from common salt, chloride of sodium, which had been shown by Duhamel, in 1736, to contain the same base (the metal sodium was still unknown) as soda. In 1775 Scheele had found that caustic soda could be made from salt by the action of lead oxide, but it was reserved for Leblanc triumphantly to solve this problem and open to the world one of its grandest industries.

His process, essentially as now followed, was to treat the chloride of sodium with sulphuric acid, forming thus hydrochloric acid and sulphate of soda; the latter was fused with powdered limestone and coal,

forming a mixture of sulphide of calcium and carbonate of soda, and from which the latter was dissolved out with cold water, and then the water was evaporated off and the residue ignited, yielding crude carbonate of soda, or the "soda ash," of commerce. Adopted at once in France, the method was but slowly introduced in England, on account of the enormous import duty on salt, and only when this was removed, nearly a quarter of a century later, did the soda manufacture find a footing in England, which later led the whole world in this industry. Leblanc was forced by the French government to give up a patent on his process for the benefit of the nation, and although a paltry sum was offered him in return, he was so disheartened by the treatment that he shot himself, and his heirs never even received the petty sum awarded him. (Thorpe, "Dictionary of Applied Chemistry.")

The Leblanc soda process yields as a by-product hydrochloric (muriatic) acid. This acid became so cheap that it was often not worth saving and it was allowed to escape into the air, to the great detriment of surrounding vegetation. So great was the evil that finally the English government compelled the soda works to condense the acid and keep it out of the air. As a result of the cheapness of hydrochloric acid another industry has been very widely developed, the bleaching industry.

Formerly linen and other vegetable fabrics were bleached by a costly, tedious method. They were boiled, washed, and exposed to the air on bleaching grounds, and these operations were repeated again and again. Months were consumed in the operation; labor, rent of ground, and loss by bad weather increased the cost of bleaching to an extent that would go far toward covering the present cost of the fabrics themselves. In this natural bleaching process the active agent was chiefly the ozone of the air.

Chemistry soon came to the aid of the bleacher. In 1774 Scheele discovered the element chlorine, a body forming with sodium, common salt, which contains sixty per cent of chlorine. It is at ordinary temperatures a gas, very active in its chemical affin-

ities and a most powerful bleaching agent. Berthollet recommended it for bleaching purposes in 1785, and its solution in water was so used for a time. Chlorine, however, is a very injurious gas when inhaled, and chlorine water, which readily gives off the gas, was therefore not a convenient bleaching agent to use, besides being difficult to preserve. By passing chlorine gas into solutions of carbonate of potash or carbonate of soda, compounds were obtained which yielded chlorine under the action of very dilute acids, or even of the carbonic acid gas of the atmosphere, in so regular a way as to be under better control. These were, however, expensive and finally, in 1799, Tennant, in England, proposed the use of lime in place of the excessively dear alkalis. At first he passed chlorine gas into a thin mixture of slaked lime and water (milk of lime), but later he devised the process of passing the chlorine gas over slightly moist slaked lime, producing the now well known bleaching powder, or so-called "chloride of lime."

But the industry had not yet reached the development of to-day. Besides hydrochloric acid it is necessary to employ some agent to decompose this acid in order to obtain chlorine from it, and the best agent is one of the higher oxides of manganese, the very best (because it yields the most chlorine) being the binoxide of manganese, found native as the mineral *pyro-lu'site*. Hydrochloric acid, either used as such, or set free during the operation by the action of sulphuric acid on chloride of sodium, dissolves the binoxide of manganese, forming manganous chloride and also setting free a portion of the original chlorine of the acid or of the salt.

Until about thirty years ago nearly all of this manganous chloride was wasted and as the demand for the higher manganese oxide increased it became very desirable to reclaim the spent manganese. As early as 1842 Laming had proposed to precipitate insoluble carbonate of manganese from the manganous chloride solution and use the carbonate to purify illuminating gas, and Dunlop showed that by proper treatment the manganese car-

bonate could be oxidized so as to yield an oxide containing five atoms of oxygen for three of manganese; but no profitable results followed until, in 1866, Weldon devised the process now named after him, which has added greatly to the world's resources in the chlorine industry.

Weldon found that by adding milk of lime to the manganous chloride solution and forcing air through the mixture a compound, the so-called manganite of lime, could be formed, which was chemically equivalent, so far as the manganese was concerned, to manganese dioxide, and with which by the action of hydrochloric acid chlorine could again be obtained, while the new waste product, calcium chloride, was far less valuable than the manganous chloride. When Tennant first made bleaching powder it was worth nearly \$700 a ton; in 1886 its value in England was less than \$30. In 1885 England exported more than 75,000 tons, worth upward of 500,000 pounds sterling.

While the old process of soap making by saponifying⁴ the fats with boiling alkali solutions has not undergone any radical changes there have been, in connection with the fat industries, some very important improvements and discoveries. I have not space for more than the briefest mention of one of the most important. Ordinary fats contain the radicles of certain fatty acids and of an alcohol (differing widely in most of its physical properties, especially, from common alcohol). When fats are saponified by an alkali we obtain soap, consisting of the fatty acid salts of the alkali, and this alcohol, which is the well-known glycerine. Scheele discovered it during the last century, but for a long time it was an object of scientific interest only, and even forty years ago was of secondary importance as an ingredient of soaps, cosmetics, perfumery, and in medical practice.

In 1854 Tilghman [til'man] heated tallow and water under pressure and decomposed the fat, so that it was an easy matter to separate the dilute glycerine solution from the insoluble fatty acids. In this operation the water played the same part as the alkali in soap boiling, but it was always a difficult

matter to separate the glycerine from the soap. Numerous improvements have been made in this and similar processes for separating glycerine from fats under the stimulus of the nitro-glycerine industry, and whereas in former times most of it was left in the soap, where it was almost useless, or allowed to run off with the waste liquids, 25,000 tons are produced annually in Europe, besides large quantities in this country. The steps that have led to this result can be but briefly recounted.

Nitric acid is a strong oxidizing agent. Combined with potash as nitrate, in the shape of saltpeter, it furnishes the oxygen necessary for the explosive combustion of the other ingredients of gunpowder, the sulphur and charcoal. In 1813 Braconnet discovered that nitric acid converted linen, sawdust, and often vegetable fibers (cellulose) into explosive compounds, and in 1847 Schönbein patented a process for making the perfectly similar gun-cotton, a form of nitrocellulose. In these compounds a radicle containing oxygen and nitrogen takes the place of part of the hydrogen which, in connection with carbon and oxygen, constitutes cellulose, and it is to the nitrous radicle that the gun-cotton owes its explosive nature. Step by step the manufacture and use of gun-cotton were perfected, until at last it became very valuable for blasting purposes, especially for submarine work.

Meanwhile, in 1847, Sobrero discovered that by the action of nitric acid, especially in presence of sulphuric acid, glycerine could be converted into a similar compound, nitroglycerine, but not until Nobel's discovery that it could be exploded by the detonation of fulminating⁵ mercury, and by his safe method of making it only from the purest materials, as well as by his invention of dynamite in 1867 (a mechanical mixture of the liquid nitroglycerine with a solid material, such as infusorial earth) was the use of nitroglycerine finally established on a safe basis, furnishing an agent without which many of the greatest engineering feats of our times would have seemed almost hopeless undertakings. In 1882 there was sold from those factories only with which Nobel

was connected, 9,500 tons of dynamite.

In the great industries already considered we have been dealing mostly with the achievements of inorganic chemistry and it remains to consider two not less important, and in at least one case, from a scientific standpoint, far more interesting results in the realm of organic chemistry, which presents much more complicated problems to the chemist; problems which but for the thoroughness and precision with which the science has been studied and systematized could never have been solved.

Little more than a century ago William Murdoch began experimenting in Redruth, England, with a view to obtaining illuminating gas from coal, peat, or wood, and in a few years so far perfected his process as to light successfully the great works of Boulton and Watt at Soho⁶; in 1812 the streets of London were lighted with gas. Other bodies besides coal have been used to supply gas, among them fats and oils, and in 1825 Faraday, while investigating the liquid condensed from fatty oils which had been decomposed by heating in iron pipes for making gas, discovered the hydrocarbon now known as benzene. He described its properties, but it was produced in very small quantities and no one dreamed that it was to be the germ of one of the most valuable of modern industries. Hofmann found it later in the coal tar of the gas works, and some twenty years after its first discovery Mansfield succeeded in obtaining considerable quantities from this source, but it was used then only for illuminating purposes and as a solvent in the rubber manufacture.

Meanwhile, in 1826, Unverdorben found among the products of the dry distillation of indigo a hydrocarbon compound now known as aniline, which is a derivative of benzene. In 1836 Runge found aniline in coal tar, but although it was early known to yield beautiful colors under certain conditions, aniline lay unused until 1856. During all these years chemists, led by the spirit of scientific discovery, had been studying the reactions of these different compounds. Thus, in 1834, Mitscherlich

obtained nitrobenzene by the action of nitric acid on benzene; in 1840 Zinin obtained aniline by the action of sulphureted hydrogen on nitrobenzene, and later it was found that other reducing agents could be used. Finally, in 1856, Perkins, in England, by the action of oxidizing agents on aniline obtained mauvéine [mōv'ēn], the base of the first artificial organic dye, mauve, and succeeded in fixing the color and adapting it for dyeing. The long chain was completed, the success of Perkins at once attracted the attention of chemists as well as dyers, discovery rapidly succeeded discovery, and in a very few years a succession of brilliant and useful dyes was prepared from the aniline which once lay unknown and for a long time unused in the black, ill-smelling, and nearly worthless coal tar.

In this connection, one reads with interest the remarks published forty years ago in Muspratt's "Chemistry Applied to the Arts," about the various compounds of aniline known up to 1853. He says that they are in a scientific point of view "highly interesting, but are too numerous and complicated to warrant description. Many of those already noticed seem very unlikely to be of service in dyeing, and yet the same opinion was formerly held respecting the yellow salts produced by the combination of chromic acid with lead, while the advantage taken of this fact has completely revolutionized the tinctorial art." Another and greater revolution was at that very time imminent and so rapid was its progress that value of the artificial coal tar dyes produced in 1882 fell little short of \$23,000,000; Germany, which soon stood at the head of the newly created industry, furnishing two thirds of the whole amount.

In all the history of chemistry nothing has given a greater impetus to scientific research of the most exact nature than the discovery of the aniline dyes. Scores of chemists have been employed by a single establishment in Germany, engaged in the production of these colors; working systematically and producing new combinations in accordance with now well established principles of organic chemistry. Blind experi-

ments lead to few results in dealing with such complex compounds.

A few years later a more startling triumph of chemistry, and one commercially of equal importance, was to result from the stimulus thus imparted. In 1832 Laurent and Dumas discovered in the oils from coal tar a white, crystalline hydrocarbon, now known by the name of anthracene. Its properties were studied and fully described, but no one then knew or suspected the value it was one day to attain.

Until about twenty-four years ago one of the most valuable of vegetable dyes, used in producing the well known and very fast Turkey red, was made extensively from madder root, a plant of various species of *Rubia*, brought to Europe from Central Asia in the sixteenth century and exclusively grown in France, Spain, Holland, and Russia, for the use of dyers. More than \$10,000,000 worth of madder was annually produced and nearly one half of this amount was bought for use in English works. In 1826 Robiquet and Colin obtained from madder a hydrocarbon known as a-liz'a-rine, and in 1848 Schunck showed that this was the most useful part of the madder dye. With no idea of the results of their labors in this regard, but studying for study's sake, chemists were patiently working in the laboratories of the universities and gradually unfolding the intricacies of the difficult science of organic chemistry. The relations of the atoms of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen were becoming better known, the laws governing the replacement of one element by another, of one group of atoms by another group, were gradually developed, and the chemists were able in many cases to foresee synthetic results.^a

It is difficult to explain at all in few words the nature of the reactions which led to the utilization of anthracene in dyeing, but the attempt may be made. Benzene contains six atoms of carbon combined with six atoms of hydrogen and is represented by the formula $C_6 H_6$; the formula of anthracene is $C_{14} H_{10}$. Among the many classes of organic compounds related to benzene and its homologues, that were then under-

going study, is a class called qui'nes, which contain in place of two of the hydrogen atoms of the benzene, or homologous hydrocarbon, two oxygen atoms linked together; thus benzoquinone has the formula $C_6 H_4 (O_2)$. By careful study Graebe was led to the conclusion that alizarine belonged to the quinone series and, in connection with Liebermann, he found that by the action of zinc dust on alizarine vapor (a reaction suggested by the previous work of Baeyer) the hydrocarbon anthracene could be formed. If the reverse process could be carried out then alizarine could be made from anthracene. The two chemists were on the threshold of a momentous discovery and addressed themselves to their problem with remarkable ingenuity.

The work of other chemists had taught them to produce from anthracene by oxidizing agents a compound having the composition $C_{14} H_8 O_2$, which they now recognized as an-thra-qui'none. Following chemical methods they heated this with bromine, obtaining di-bro-man-thra-qui'none, $C_{14} H_6 Br_2 O_2$, two atoms of bromine being thus introduced in place of two atoms of hydrogen in the anthraquinone. To obtain alizarine it was necessary to introduce the hypothetical radicle hydroxyl (OH) in place of the bromine. This they accomplished by melting the dibromanthraquinone with caustic potash, which yielded them a compound corresponding to potassium alizarate, $C_{14} H_6 (OK)_2 O_2$, and this decomposed by hydrochloric acid gave them the compound $C_{14} H_6 (OH)_2 O_2$. It was the alizarine they had been laboring to obtain, identical in every way with alizarine obtained from madder. The problem was solved and they had artificially produced a vegetable coloring matter.

Cheaper methods soon obviated the necessity of using the costly bromine, and the world was made richer by a new source of a valuable dye, while organic chemistry received a greater stimulus than it had known in many years.

As with aniline colors, so it was with alizarine. Germany produces seven eighths of all the artificial alizarine used and in

1893 exported nearly \$3,000,000 worth, while her exported coal tar dyes were worth nearly \$15,000,000, besides the value of all she used in her own dyeing establishments.

According to Sadler ("Industrial Organic Chemistry") the saving to the world by the use of artificial alizarine for the year 1880, was \$20,000,000; more than enough in one year to equip and endow all the laboratories of organic chemistry in the leading universities of the world.

Space fails us for even a passing mention of many great industries originated or greatly extended by the march of chemical improvement. The Solvay ammonia process for making soda ash, depending on the now abundant supply of ammonium salts from gas works and other establishments where coal is converted into coke, has been placed on a commercial basis only within the last forty years by the intelligent work of Solvay, and yet it has almost revolutionized the soda industry. In 1877 the production of soda ash by this process in England was 6,000 tons; in 1889 the works of the Solvay Company in various parts of the world produced 430,000 tons; largely, it is true, at the expense of the Leblanc process, but with the result of greatly lessening the cost of soda ash. The Solvay process is of great interest to our own country on account of its connection with our salt springs.

The starch sugar industry also immediately concerns ourselves, since by it 50,000 bushels

of corn are in this country daily converted into sugar, with an annual product of 225,000 tons, worth \$10,500,000.

Wood pulp, aluminium, matches, superphosphates and the whole list of artificial manures, spectrum analysis, and the art of photography are but a few of the most important examples of the progress of applied chemistry. Agricultural chemistry, as shown by the large number of well equipped and carefully conducted experiment stations in many of our states and generally in England and on the continent of Europe, is contributing yearly more and more to the material wealth of the world. Under its guidance the manufacture and use of fertilizers, superphosphates, ammoniated fertilizers, potash salts and nitrates are extending. The labors of Liebig, Boussingault [boo-san-gō], Ville, Knop, Lawes, Gilbert, and many others in Europe, and Johnson in this country, have established on a firm basis this branch of the science and shown the farmer how to enrich the soil.

Public health, too, is receiving aid from the chemists. Food and water analysis, the nature and use of disinfectants, the remedy of river pollution, the suppression of manufacturing nuisances, ventilation, physiological chemistry, pharmacy, are among the many subjects which to-day are being investigated by the chemist, and often under the wise and almost indispensable assistance of the state.

SCOTT'S "MONASTERY."

A ROMANCE OF THE EARLY REFORMATION.

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IN English history the religious struggle called the Reformation, and the political struggle known *par excellence*¹ as the revolution, are one and the same movement. Substantially the same parties are opposed, and substantially the same principles are at stake; only the English race has always cared more about religion than any other element of life, and risen most promptly

to religious war-cries. This long drawn agitation was the transition from medieval to modern government, from force to voluntarism. The Reformation appeared at the time to be a conflict between Catholics and Protestants. But the modern Catholic, while still contending for authority, understands a voluntary submission to the yoke of tradition, and he, no less than his Protestant neighbor,

believes men's opinions cannot be changed by force. On the other hand Protestantism, at its first appearance, was only an attempt to purify tradition, and sought to impose the reformed mode on the unwilling by civil force. When by slow stages the modern conception of religious freedom was coming to be grasped, the general struggle had extended to secular life, and on that stage gradually developed the modern idea of liberty, by which nations, whether they lean to monarchical or republican government, recognize no secure basis of civil authority but the consent of the people.

This extended revolution falls into three well-marked periods. The earlier Reformation was a domestic struggle, and culminated in the common sense *régime*³ of Elizabeth, by which an attempt was made to secure religious uniformity, but in reality followers of the old worship and of the new were left pretty much to their own devices, provided only they did not make a public disturbance.

When under such circumstances England had, in the main, settled down to Protestantism, it found itself in advance of other nations; and the later Reformation is an external struggle with Spain as the grand head of the Catholic powers of Europe. The collapse of the Spanish Armada³ settled forever the independence of Britain, and the country was free to fight its own battles in the political field. The new Puritanism made no distinction between religious and civil life; and after hard fighting this Puritanism triumphed under the commonwealth to such a degree as to produce a reaction, and under the restored monarchy the problems of authority and liberty were by bloodless struggles carried to their modern solution.

To trace the course of such a movement is the task of the historian. Fiction has a different province: to flash a light on to a single point of time, to enable us to live in imagination at that exact period, and see how life looks from such a point of observation. Sir Walter Scott's "Monastery" illuminates in this way the earlier Reformation; Charles Kingsley's "Westward-Ho!" is an epic of the struggle with Spain; while the political rev-

olution has inspired such romances as "John Inglesant" and "Woodstock."

A foremost point, then, in a historical romance is the exact choice of subject. Nothing could be happier than the choice Scott has made for his "Monastery." It is a story of the earlier Reformation located in the halidome⁴ of a Border monastery. This is sufficient to give us throughout a most interesting series of contrasts. To begin with, the Border situation affords opportunity for a glimpse of the two countries and their governments. Sir John Foster, representing the English queen, is appropriately pictured as devoid of any principle to guide him in a tangle of affairs except a vehement desire to hush up matters; and he shows further a nervous apprehension whether the best arrangement that can be devised may not draw down upon him a storm of scolding from his arbitrary mistress.

Murray and his party embody the political situation of Scotland, as a Protestant regency, acting in the place of the queen, who has been the rallying point of Scotch Catholicism. Again, it is an age of controversy; and we find two finished controversialists to represent the two churches—the sub-prior as a polemic⁵ Catholic, and Henry Warden the reformed preacher, traveling on foot and reproving sinners and making converts wherever chance throws him. The two have been college friends in their youth; in their age they meet as judge and prisoner, alternately clasping hands in affection, and hurling taunts of bitter feud and eager scholarship. This Father Eustace rises from sub-prior to be abbot, and thereby makes another contrast with his predecessor; the one accepting office in the moment of danger, ready to lead his brethren to a martyr's death; the other, the good-humored, easy-going ecclesiastic of the middle ages, who pays a pastoral visit with his kitchener⁶ and full commissariat⁷ attending him; "a considerate lord abbot, and weel he likes a saft seat," as Tibb says.

Another contrast must not be overlooked. Contending parties have to take responsibility for their extreme wings; and in every struggle between the old and the new the rep-

representatives of peace and order, exhibiting an outward beauty of life bought at the cost of ignoring life's problems, will certainly be found upon the one side; while the other side will with equal certainty be taken by the restless spirits who look to disturbance as the best condition for serving personal ends. Accordingly in this story it is the church domain that gives the picture of orderly and settled life, while in contrast we get glimpses of lay barons like Julian Avenel, with his too faithful henchman Christie of the Clinthill,—whose stolen stronghold is little better than a robbers' den, who carries Protestant freedom to the extent of dispensing with the marriage tie, and turns Catholic when he is rebuked by a preacher.

Some lesser contrasts may just be mentioned. We see two Protestants developed by the silent agency of the Bible in the vulgar tongue; but with a difference. Lady Avenel would have been shocked to hear herself called Protestant; to the end she is unconscious of schism, and dies with the last rites of the church. None the less she has fought out in her heart the questions of faith, and marked her Bible for her daughter. But Mary Avenel has the controversy thrust upon her, being wounded by its feud in her tenderest relations; in her trouble she meditates upon her mother's Bible, and the reformed preacher comes by providential mission to complete her conscious conversion.

Again, the conflict is between all that is old and all that is new; the old feudal rank is represented in Lady Avenel, and the middle class—the power of the future—by Dame Elspeth Glendinning with whom Lady Avenel takes refuge. The contact strikes sparks, at least so far as the dependants of the noble house are concerned:

"*Tibb.* But ye maun ken the great ancient families canna be just served wi' the ordinary saunts, (praise to them!) . . . that come and gang at every sinner's bidding, but they hae a sort of saunts or angels, or what not, to themsells; and as for the White Maiden of Avenel, she is kend over the haill country.

"*Dame Elspeth.* Aweel, Aweel, Tibb, these are great privileges of your grand folk. But our Lady and Saunt Paul are good enough saunts for me."

This same residence of Lady Avenel with the Glendinnings gives yet another pretty contrast—that between the high-born beauty, Mary Avenel, and the low-born, but not less beautiful, Mysie of the Mill. Scott is always at home with people of rank; but in portraits of a different kind he has done nothing more happy than the pretty simplicity, spirit, and delicacy in an equivocal situation, of the miller's lass dazzled by Sir Piercie Shafton.

But all these are subordinate to another contrast, which is developed by Scott at full length and constitutes the main thread of the story. Our romance has two heroes instead of one—the two brothers Glendinning. As brothers they necessarily start from the same point in life; they are moreover developed by the same influence, the love of Mary Avenel; but with the dividing tendencies of their age they move in sundry directions, until as the story closes they face one another from opposite points, as a Protestant knight and a Catholic priest. Of course, there must have been in the two characters the difference of fundamental bias which divided almost every family in Britain. We have a suggestion of this in the first glimpse we get of the children, as the newly-widowed mother holds them in her hands to receive the English raiding party. Honest Stawarth Bolton is attracted by the bonny pair of boys, the black-eyed rogue and the fair-haired darling; he puts his embroidered red cross—a pledge against further attack—into the loop of Halbert's bonnet.

"The little fellow, his veins swelling, and his eyes shooting fire through tears, snatched the bonnet from his head, and, ere his mother could interfere, skimmed it into the brook. The other boy ran instantly to fish it out again, threw it back to his brother, first taking out the cross, which, with great veneration, he kissed and put into his bosom. The Englishman was half diverted, half surprised with the scene.

"'What mean ye by throwing away Saint George's red cross?' said he to the elder boy, in a tone betwixt jest and earnest.

"'Because Saint George is a southern saint,' said the child, sulkily.

"'Good,' said Stawarth Bolton, 'And what did you mean by taking it out of the brook again, my little fellow?' he demanded of the younger.

"'Because the priest says it is the common sign of salvation to all good Christians.'"

The English sergeant is pleased, and laughingly asks which of the boys will go with him.

"'I will not go with you,' said Halbert boldly, 'for you are a false-hearted Southern; and the South-erns killed my father; and I will war on you to the death, when I can draw my father's sword.' . . .

"'And you, my fine white-head, will you not go with me, to ride a cock-horse?'

"'No,' said Edward, demurely, 'for you are a heretic.'"

Already we see the germs of the active and the contemplative disposition. When Mary Avenel comes to live in the cottage, and the three children do lessons together under the supervision of the monk, Edward naturally shows to advantage, and Halbert grows jealous. In a moment of boyish passion he has had recourse to the mysterious White Lady, and from her has received the secret token which—not knowing what it means—he shows to Sir Piercie, and finds himself suddenly involved in a duel. By the mischievous providence of this same White Lady, Halbert believes himself a murderer; in solitude, and uttering agonized cries for help before his victim bleeds to death, he hears a distant hail, and thus dramatically is brought into contact with the wandering preacher. A new force has come into Halbert's life: afraid to return home, he is driven to experience of the outer world, with the brave Protestant for companion; he sees the unarmed heretic defy the rage of the lawless baron rather than let sin go unrebuked in his presence. There is more of wandering, the great world is seen in action, and Halbert's bias toward activity, not less than admiration of Warden, lands him on the progressive side of his country's politics.

Meanwhile circumstances have added to original bias in Edward's case also. When, amid the cross purposes of the mysterious duel incident, the household of the Glendinnings came to suppose Halbert to have been murdered by the English knight, Edward showed himself a transformed character; the pale student became an avenger thirsting for blood, the recluse led the whole

garrison in the feud against the contemptuous Sir Piercie, till all were amazed at the change. The mystery cleared, and Halbert proved safe, an explanation comes in Edward's confession to the priest; he tells the story of life-long jealousy, kept down with difficulty while he saw Mary's secret preference for the active Halbert; he confesses with horror that a feeling of irresistible gladness seized him at the tidings of his brother's murder, and his bloodthirsty plans of vengeance were the atonement he had sought to make for his secret sin. Now the successful lover is alive again Edward knows no refuge from this unnatural rivalry but the cloister; though the monk counsels waiting the youth insists that there are actions which must be done at once or never. So the contrasted development of the brothers is worked out to its climax, and the mysterious voice has been fulfilled:

"The Dead Alive is gone and fled—

Go thou, and join the Living Dead!"

The working out of contrasts like these, which spring so naturally out of the author's choice of subject, make the staple of the story. But Scott has introduced into the "Monastery" two elements of an unusual kind, which have drawn upon it more criticism than upon any other of the Waverley Novels. One is the courtier who talks "euphuism;" the other is the supernatural "White Lady." But these special elements are in strict harmony with the rest of the story: for they represent the extravagances of the two ages which were then in conflict.

The New Religion and New Government had associated with them a New Thought: there was a renaissance of the higher intellectual powers in Europe when the classical literatures were restored to the West. It has been well said that no one knows his own language until he knows some other language to evoke his faculty of comparison. So while Europe was drinking in the finished beauty of Greek and Latin it began to feel the capacities of modern tongues for artistic expression; like an epidemic a delight in niceties of speech spread through the nations, and the fine

style became a fashion and an affectation. England took the disease vigorously, and for a generation its cultured world talked the magnificent slang called euphuism: piled up illustrations, multiplied antitheses, interminable parallel clauses, fancies and metaphors run mad. Sir Piercie Shafton—the runaway knight whose presence in the North brings about the movement of the story—is in the fashion.

"Ah, that I had with me my Anatomy of Wit—that all-to-be-unparalleled volume—that quintessence of human wit—that treasury of quaint invention—that exquisitely-pleasant-to-be-read, and inevitably-necessary-to-be-remembered manual, of all that is worthy to be known—which indoctrinates the rude in civility, the dull in intellectuality, the heavy in jocosity, the blunt in gentility, the vulgar in nobility, and all of them in that unutterable perfection of human utterance, that eloquence which no other eloquence is sufficient to praise, that art which, when we call it by its own name of Euphuism, we bestow on it its richest panegyric."

In this matter a censure is usually passed upon Scott which seems to me altogether misplaced. It is said that the affected language put into the mouth of this knight in the "Monastery" is no fair representation of the euphuistic style as it appears in the books of the age. Of course Sir Piercie Shafton's talk is a caricature of euphuism, because Sir Piercie himself is a caricature of the English courtier of the time. "Style is the man": and is it to be supposed that a coxcomb like Shafton—whose dominant sentiments are shame of his tailor origin and tailor-like worship of his wardrobe—would talk the same language as the delicate-souled Sidney¹⁰ or earnest John Lyly?¹¹ May every weak minded but sound hearted imitator of fashions he has not depth enough to understand find no worse fate than coming to marry Mysie of the Mill!

But the era that was passing away, as well as the era that was coming, had its extravagances. The Middle Ages had been a period of vigorous imagination,—imagination unfettered by reason or analysis; alike poetic creation and popular tradition filled the universe with existences not dreamed of in philosophy. Now Scott, like Shakespeare, puts into his picture of an age all that that age believes in; and the

White Lady of Avenel is simply one of the universally recognized astral beings, with the local coloring of the Scotch "Good Neighbors." The whimsical yet purposeful demeanor of this mysterious personality make it, like that of Ariel,¹² a classic of fairy literature. But in one point Scott has a constructive problem that might have daunted the greatest master of literary art;—the necessities of his story required him to make a Protestant fairy! He has hit upon a book as a link between the two incompatible things; Protestantism was the religion of a book where Catholicism rested on the authority of the church, and on the other hand a book endowed with supernatural powers is a commonplace of magic.

Accordingly the action of the White Lady in the novel is found to center around the "black book with the silver clasps"—that is, the Bible in the vulgar tongue which has found its way into the halidome of this monastery. The fairy's existence is bound up with that of the Avenel family, and now the fortunes of the family are involved in the preservation of this precious volume; there is a function for the White Lady to watch over the mystic thing, bringing it back when stolen, whether with mischievous enjoyment of the sacristan's terror at her presence, or with respectful violence when she has to deal with the bold sub-prior.

Of course she has no personal concern in the contents of this Bible, for she is one of the "middle spirits" of medieval speculation:

"Something betwixt heaven and hell;
Something that neither stood nor fell."

But, like a faithful dog fetching and carrying to his master the letter it cannot read, the fairy can be an agent in bringing the book to its fated owner. And finally, when the true owners are indifferent, the sacred volume finds for itself a protection from the elements in the gorgeous grotto.

"Many a fathom, dark and deep,
I have laid the book to sleep;
Ethereal fires around it glowing—
Ethereal music ever flowing—
The sacred pledge of Heav'n
All things revere,
Each in his sphere,
Save man for whom 'twas giv'n."

GREAT CITY RAILROADS.

BY ROBERT I. SLOAN, C.E.

MEMBER OF THE AMERICAN SOCIETY OF CIVIL ENGINEERS AND FORMERLY CHIEF ENGINEER OF THE METROPOLITAN ELEVATED RAILROAD, NEW YORK, AND THE SOUTH SIDE RAPID TRANSIT RAILROAD, CHICAGO.

STREET car lines with cars drawn by horses were the first improvement over cabs, stages, etc., in city transportation; next came the cable lines, then the electric trolley system, subways, and elevated railways; the latter becoming necessary to accommodate the increasing traffic on the streets of large cities, where a high rate of speed for the surface cars was not permissible.

In London the underground road is used for rapid transit; in large American cities, the elevated railway, and in Berlin both the elevated road and the viaduct.

The cable system was first adopted in San Francisco, Chicago street railway companies being next to change from horse to cable power. Philadelphia and New York followed Chicago in adopting the cable power on the main thoroughfares. Improvements have been made from time to time, with grips, brakes, power plants, etc., enabling the roads to be operated very economically and successfully, so that the securities have become valuable and much sought after.

The electric trolley system has become very popular, and is now taking the place of all other means of surface transit, there being no longer the same objection to the overhead wires, poles, and trolleys.

For twenty years the people in New York City felt the pressing need of more speedy communication between the upper and lower ends of the city than was afforded by the horse railroads; the necessity became every year more pressing until it was found that rapid transit in some form was indispensable to the city's growth and prosperity. Commodore Vanderbilt obtained a charter for an underground road from 42d Street to the City Hall, but the road was not built.

After that, the attention of capitalists and friends of rapid transit was directed to the

building of elevated roads as the only possible means of solving the problem. There were many schemes and more schemers. In 1866 a commission was created by the state Senate, to report on routes and plans for quick transportation of passengers, from upper to lower portions of the city. They advertised for plans in this and foreign countries and recommended a plan devised by Mr. C. P. Harvey, C.E. One half mile of Harvey's plan was constructed in 1868, in the southern part of Greenwich Street; this was finally extended from the Battery to 30th Street. The form of structure was an elevated railway, on a single row of iron columns, the cars propelled by the endless cable plan, operated by several stationary engines, placed at intervals along the line, but situated below the surface of the street. The first car over the railway was run in May, 1868. Many adverse opinions were given by engineers and mechanics as to the working of the mechanical structure and appliances, and the idea of supporting the railway on a single row of columns was considered chimerical.

The use of endless wire cable for propulsion was not new. W. M. Gillespie, professor of civil engineering in Union College, recommended it in 1847, as the most convenient method of relaxing the rush of travel through Broadway. In his book published in 1866, he said, "The only feasible arrangement seems to be a row of columns and endless chain system for rapid transit in New York City."

In 1870 the cable system was abandoned and a dummy steam locomotive, pulling three passenger coaches, was substituted. In 1872 this road was operated as far as 34th Street. At that time they carried about 776 passengers daily, increasing every year until 1877, when the average per day was 9,500 passen-

gers, or about 1,952,000 per year. After this road had been opened to the public, it was demonstrated that the oscillation of the track and structure by the moving trains was hardly noticed, and the horses frequenting Greenwich Street soon became accustomed to the passage of the cars and paid little attention to them.

It was not thought at the time that an underground road like that in London was adapted to the wants of New York City, the population being so much more concentrated in the latter city along the line.

In London stations were required only at long distances, and heavy trains were used. To accommodate the public in New York, stations must be numerous and trains run at short intervals, and should therefore be light,—such as could be easily controlled and quickly stopped and started. It was thought an elevated road properly constructed would carry more passengers with safety than an underground road, and it would be free from dampness.

The feasibility of an elevated railroad having been demonstrated on a rude and simple plan, the same principles were soon applied on a larger scale to a more sightly structure, and strong enough to carry trains of greater weight and admitting of higher speed. The present system of rapid transit was originally designed by Dr. Rufus H. Gilbert, of New York City. He had been the surgeon of the Duryea Zouaves during the war, a regiment that went out from New York City. He first invented a pneumatic tube system, but that was abandoned as impracticable; he then designed the first general plan of an elevated railway, and obtained a charter for a road through Sixth and Second Avenues; his patent covered a steel structure, having the form of a Gothic arch spanning the street from curb to curb, upon which local and through trains were to run upon independent tracks. Capitalists were afraid to put the money into the scheme, and it was several years before the work was begun.

There was much opposition to the proposed building of this elevated road; it was said people would not ride or walk

on an avenue occupied by a rapid transit road, and that custom would be diverted from the stores, and rents would in consequence decline. This came from a few property owners along the proposed rapid transit routes, but more from the horse car companies. But the necessity of rapid transit to the progress of the great city, and to the prosperity and happiness of the people was paramount; a few might suffer, but a million people would be benefited, and it would increase the value of more acres of real estate than it would depreciate the same number of feet.

After many modifications of the Gilbert structure had been made by practical engineers, the work on Sixth Avenue was begun and rapidly carried forward, and May 1, 1878, the first car was run, and on June 5, 1878, the road was opened to the public from Trinity Church to 59th Street. The name was then changed from the Gilbert Elevated Road to the Metropolitan Elevated Road. The same year the Third Avenue Elevated was built on the East Side to the Harlem River and the next year the Elevated Road on Second Avenue was built.

The increase in real estate values in twenty-four wards for four years prior to the opening of the elevated road was \$28,665,000. The increase for the same for four years subsequent to the opening of the roads was \$135,700,000.

The *Railroad Gazette* gives the following as to passenger traffic:

"Passengers carried by the New York Elevated Road in 1892 were ten times as many as the New York Central carried in the same year. For the half square mile of territory between the Post Office and the Battery, 130,000 people were brought down and carried back at night. From the Post Office north a mile, mostly business blocks and equal to about one and a half square miles, 65,000 persons were brought down in the morning and taken back at night. In the retail district north of this, 65,000 persons are brought down and taken back in a day. About 280,000 persons are gathered up daily north of 42d Street, brought down to their daily work and taken back at night."

The cost of the New York elevated roads, which were built by a construction company (including the real estate and equipment), was about \$35,000,000. A

hundred thousand tons of iron were used in the construction and there are about 8,500 foundation piers under ground. Owing to the underground constructions these piers cost about \$375 each.

The engines used on the elevated roads are called the Forney engines; this type has proven more satisfactory than any other for such service. On the Third Avenue line alone in New York there are 63 five-car trains in operation at one time during the morning and evening hours. They run at very close intervals and are under perfect control; they have a seating capacity of 48 and there is room for 40 more.

The engines weigh about 23 tons, 15 tons of which are carried by the drivers and are effective for tractive power. The speed is 15 miles an hour; the engines are worked hard. Three times in every mile they start a weight of 105 tons from a dead rest, and raise it to a speed of nearly 20 miles an hour, run it a short distance at that speed, overcoming the inertia, climb up the grade and then suddenly stop the train. This is done in one and one half minutes. The work of the engine is seven times greater than required on a level grade.

The length of double track elevated roads in New York is about 36 miles; they have in service 334 engines and 1,047 cars, and carry about 222,000,000 passengers during the year, with a train mileage of 7,613,000; they consume over 180,000 tons of coal during the year and employ about 5,200 men.

The Rapid Transit law of 1875, allowing the construction of elevated railways along the principal streets, was very general—and after the road had been in operation a few months, many suits were brought for damages, on account of deprivation of light and air and thousands of dollars were paid the abutting property owners. This was relieved by late decisions of the Court of Appeals, that the peculiar benefits accruing to the abutting property must be considered in determining to what extent property was damaged by the construction and operation of the road.

In Brooklyn the roads are built over the

streets, the same as in New York; there are about 26½ miles of elevated roads in Brooklyn and they carry 57,000,000 passengers per year, and have about 1,700 employees. The street railways carry about 103,000,000 passengers.

There are no elevated roads in Philadelphia. The surface street railways carry about 170,000,000 of the people every year.

In Boston there are yet no elevated roads. The 245 miles of single track surface roads in the city and suburbs are mostly equipped electrically with overhead wires and trolleys.

Over 125,000,000 passengers are carried by these lines. On account of the congestion of travel in the business districts, many plans have been prepared, for better rapid transit, such as tunnels, subways, and elevated roads. The latest proposition is the Meigs' elevated system, on a single row of iron columns.

In Chicago street railways carry about 207,000,000 persons yearly and the elevated about 20,000,000 in ordinary times. Chicago has at present two elevated roads in operation and a third in process of construction. The first one built was the South Side Rapid Transit Road, from Congress Street to the World's Fair grounds, 8½ miles long. It is constructed mostly upon the company's own right of way. The longitudinal girders are carried directly over the columns without the additional weight of heavy cross girders required to span the roadway when the route is in a public thoroughfare. The right of way is obtained under the law of eminent domain; an ordinance is then obtained from the city; the company goes into court and files petitions for the length of line, describing all the property over which it desires to pass. The owner of the property named in the petition can then only sell subject to condemnation proceedings. The law works hardship in many cases by exclusion of such property from market through delays consequent upon completion of condemnation proceedings.

This Chicago road was completed May 1, 1893, and during the six months of the Columbian Exposition carried 22,000,000 peo-

ple without an accident from fault of operation. Four cylinder compound engines are used as motors; otherwise the equipment is similar to the New York roads. They weigh 28 tons; weight on drivers 20 tons; the minimum radius of curvature is 90 feet. The grades are light; hard coal is used for fuel,—the amount used per mile is much less than on the New York roads on account of the light grades, but the cost per ton is double; the engines hauled seven loaded cars at times during the World's Fair; stations are built on the ground immediately beneath the structure, with waiting rooms, news stands, and toilet rooms; and stairways in the rear conduct the passengers to the platforms, where they enter the train. The road is equipped with a good system of automatic block signals, which are set to danger by a lever actuated by the wheels of a passing train. This road cost, not including discount on bonds, about \$900,000 a mile, right of way, \$360,000 a mile included.

The Intramural Elevated road at the World's Fair was an interesting exhibit. It was the first practical experiment of substituting electric for steam locomotives on elevated roads in this country. It was three miles long, double track, and trains were pulled by a motor car; the train consisted of a motor car and three trailers; the cars were open and seated sixty people. Seats ran across the car; cross aisles were closed by sliding doors, a lever at the end of the car opened and closed them all at the same time. The electric motors were geared to the axle of the motor car, and the current was supplied by a large generator. Oil was used for fuel.

The road carried about 6,000,000 passengers during the six months of the fair. The lighting at the stations and of the cars was perfect. The current was taken from steel rails, laid on the cross ties and spiked down on one side of the track and through the medium of a sliding shoe was transferred to the motors. Steel feeder rails, 56 pounds to the yard, were also laid from the power house for about three fourths the length of the road and were connected to the regular current supply rail at frequent intervals. The

return current was carried through the traffic rails and the iron girders of the structure. The train weighed about 105 tons and between stations it would attain a speed of 20 miles an hour.

The Liverpool Overhead Electric Railway was opened in February, 1893. It was the first elevated railway anywhere operated by electricity. It is about six miles in length and cost about \$425,000 per mile. The next one to be operated by electricity, on an extensive scale, was the City and South London Electric Underground, which cost about \$1,150,000 per mile. There is also in process of construction the Central London Electric Subway.

To enter the trains on the City and South London Electric Subway Railroad the passengers go down from the street in elevators or hoists; the shafts are about 25 feet in diameter and vary in depth from 43 to 67 feet. The cages or cars in the elevators are about 11 feet high; they are hydraulic hoists and are worked by pumping engines from one station, water being conveyed to them under a pressure of 70 atmospheres through pipes. Passengers pass through turn-stiles to the elevators. The headway of the train is about six minutes. This road carries about 6,500,000 passengers yearly. The fare is four cents.

London has also the Metropolitan and the District Underground roads, operated by steam locomotives; the Metropolitan Underground was opened in 1862 and the District Underground in 1870; the Metropolitan road cost \$3,660,000 per mile and the District \$4,500,000.

The yearly passenger traffic in London is divided as follows: 453,000,000 by underground roads and omnibuses; by suburban steam railways 535,000,000, total about 988,000,000, or about 186 trips for each person of the city population.

Paris had in 1892 a population of 2,200,000; it has now 2,400,000. Most of the city passenger travel is by the Central Railway, tramway cars, omnibuses, cabs, and river steamers. By all means of travel in the city, 130 trips were made for each person of the population.

Berlin has tramway or horse car lines, running radially from the center of the city to the suburbs; it also has $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles of viaduct, built of stone and iron, at a cost of about \$16,000,000. These systems carry over 120,000,000 passengers annually. It is also proposed to build subways under many of the main thoroughfares for railroad traffic.

From the *Street Railway Journal* mileage statistics of cities and towns in the United States and Canada the miles operated are as follows :

By horses	5,443
" steam motors	1,918
" electricity	3,009
" cable	660

The costs approximate \$350,000 a mile for the cable system complete, while it costs about \$60,000 a mile, double track, for a first-class overhead conductor electric system in the city streets. The average cost per mile for the roads in the United States is about as follows :

Horse railways equipped per mile..	\$71,387
Electric trolleys equipped per mile..	\$46,697
Cable railways	\$350,000
Elevated railways	\$500,000 to \$800,000.

Electricians have been engaged for some time by the cable road companies, perfecting plans for carrying the electric current in the underground cable conduit, and connecting with the motors on the cars. Heretofore this plan has not been a success, on account of loss of current, from various causes, such as grounding, induction, etc.

It is now thought to be perfectly practicable and feasible, and the electric companies claim that the cable cars can be operated with as much economy, as the present cable is moved through the same conduit.

Because of the success attending the Intramural Elevated Railway, which was operated by electricity in the World's Fair grounds, it has been decided to equip the Metropolitan Elevated system, now building in Chicago, with electrical appliances for motive power. The absence of smoke, cinders, gases, etc., will be desirable; the running expenses, it is anticipated, will be diminished to some extent by the use of electricity. From ten to fourteen hours each day while the steam locomotive is lying idle it is consuming fuel; but when the electric locomotive is not in service, no power or what represents power (coal), is consumed. It may have an advantage in saving fuel on the rapid transit roads, during these hours. Compressed air for motive power for the operation of the city railways is being studied.

A tramway will soon be opened in Paris to be operated by compressed air; motors are now building in Rome, New York, to be tried on some street railway to be operated by compressed air. The company that has been organized to build these motors claim that that form of motive power will be more economical than either steam or electricity.

(End of Required Reading for January.)



EVELYN MOORE'S POET.*

BY GRANT ALLEN.

(*Concluded.*)

CHAPTER IV.

THE next five days were for Evelyn a time of unalloyed happiness. She spent the greater part of them in exploring Venice, side by side with her poet. He lent them his own gondola for the purpose with two romantic yellow-girdled attendants. Her mother went with them in the back seat for the most part, to be sure; but what did that matter? Mrs. Moore disliked getting in and out at the steps so much that she was content on the whole to take her Venice passively leaning back on the padded black cushions in the luxurious sunlight. The Grand Canal, the palaces, the life, the bustle, the movement, were quite enough for her, she said; at her time of life she didn't want to go climbing up steps and campaniles. So she lounged outside on the leather-covered seats while Evelyn and Mr. Sperling explored the churches, the palazzi, the galleries. And, to do them justice, they took their time about it. Evelyn was in no hurry to tear herself away from the Frari or the Redentore, with such a guide as her poet to explain it all at full length to her. "You love Italy," she said once to him as he stepped, half reluctantly, with eyes still loitering, away from the carved capitals of the Doge's Palace.

"Yes, I love it," her new friend said earnestly with that strange grave air she so often noticed. "The scene of half my plays is laid somewhere or other in Italy:—Venice, Padua, Verona, Rome, Syracuse, Naples. I prefer my Italian plays to all others I have written. They're more real, more vivid. The passion of the South seems to inspire me as I write them." He paused one second, then he added musingly, "Yes, yes, I love Italy, almost as much as I love *you*, Evelyn."

Evelyn's heart gave a fierce bound. 'Twas the very first time he had called her by her

Christian name, the very first time he had openly avowed his growing love for her. "Then you love me?" she cried trembling, and tingling at his words. "You really love me?"

The poet leaned over toward her as earnestly as he dared on the open Riva. "Why, of course I love you, Evelyn," he said, gazing tenderly down at her. "You must have known it long since; you must surely have felt it."

"I think I guessed it," Evelyn answered very low. Then her wonder and joy found vent in words. "But, Oh, Mr. Sperling," she cried turning round toward him suddenly, "what on earth can you have seen in me to make you love me?"

She said it quite seriously, earnestly, doubtfully. She felt him in many ways so far above her level. The verses he had recited to her were so beautiful and so true. She was sure in her own soul he was a very great poet.

But her lover, flushing rosy red in that handsome face of his, made answer at once with a charming smile, "What have I found in you to make me love you? Why, Evelyn, sympathy."

They were alone on the Piazza steps. He beckoned his gondoliers. "To the Gindecca!" he cried. "We can talk better here under the covering, Evelyn."

Then he spoke with burning energy. "I wanted to tell you so," he went on in a quivering voice, as they sank behind the cabin. "I wanted to tell you why it is. You're so different in every way from all the others. Other women, when I talk to them, may like me very well; they may be polite to my verses; they may admire them and praise them, and say kind things of them; but they laugh at *me*, myself; I can see at a glance they don't believe in me. Now, *you* believe in me. I could tell from the very first mo-

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ment you really believed in me. That made me love you; for love, you know, is in essence sympathy." He leaned across to her, under cover of the great black *felze*. "Love has always something egotistic in it," he went on, fixing her with his blue eyes; "I admit that freely; I've never pretended for one moment to ignore it. That you appreciate me, that I appreciate you, is to each of us half the reason for loving one another. But *you* must have enjoyed that luxury, Evelyn, 'tis a pretty woman's right. To *me*, on the contrary, it's a new sensation. Never till I met you, my own dear child, have I found one woman to believe in me."

He took her hand as he spoke. He smoothed it tenderly. Evelyn's heart leaped up at the pressure, and throbbed high in her breast. She didn't attempt to prevent him. She returned his caress; she leaned over to him eagerly. "But, Oh, Mr. Sperling," she cried, in a choking voice, "I can't understand that. You're so great, so sweet, so true and deep a poet."

"Yes, they all allow *that*," he answered, with a sad, low cadence; "as to the verses themselves, they all allow it. But as to *me* ah, no; that's quite another thing. You're the very first woman that has ever believed in me."

He broke off suddenly, and began to repeat at once, in soft musical tones, a sonnet of his own making. "I wrote it last night," he said, still smoothing her hand with his own. "I think you can guess whose face it was that inspired it."

Evelyn listened, too proud and delighted for words. It was like a dream to her to think she should have given the impulse to such noble poetry. One line in particular burnt itself at once into her heart and brain:

"Swift as a shadow, short as any dream."

She felt instinctively that was a master's handicraft. And she told him so in broken words, so pleased and happy was she.

Her poet drew back, and gazed at her tenderly. "You remind me of two lines I once wrote in a book," he said, with the simple self-confidence of a great soul:

"Things base and vile, holding no quantity
Love can transpose to form and dignity:

Love looks not with the eyes, but with the mind;
And therefore is winged Cupid painted blind."

"That's the case with you, I'm afraid, dear Evelyn. You love me, and therefore you think all I do and all I write perfection." He toyed for a moment with the rings on her finger, unproved. "And yet," he went on slowly, "that's far better than the rest. 'Tis nobler to see me through those deceptive eyes of purblind Cupid's, than to laugh at me, as the others do, and misread me altogether."

"I can't think how anybody could ever possibly laugh at you," Evelyn said, looking up into the calm grave face, whose lips almost touched her. "You seem to me too high, too noble to laugh at."

"But I haven't told you all yet," her poet answered with a tremulous cadence. "I must *know* you love me first before I tell you my secret. Say you will be mine, Evelyn; say you will be mine, in spite of everything. Don't think me too hasty."

"Nay, trust me, lady, I will prove more true
Than those that have more cunning to be strange."

Evelyn let her eyes drop. "I will be yours," she murmured with a thrill of ecstasy. Their lips met in the gondola. For a moment, those two were supremely happy.

CHAPTER V.

THAT evening as Evelyn played on the piano in the *salon*, the poet leaned over her and listened enraptured. "I've made up some lines as you sat there," he whispered in her ear; "I mean to put them into the new Italian play I'm writing:—

"What you do,
Still betters what is done. When you speak, sweet,
I'd have you do it ever; when you sing
I'd have you buy and sell so; so give alms;
Pray so; and, for the ordering your affairs,
To sing them too."

Evelyn's face glowed with unaffected transport. How wonderful that she, a simple solicitor's daughter from Clapham, should fire a true poet's soul with such beautiful verses! She thought so in her own heart. And she said so to him frankly.

Her lover smiled a quiet self-restrained smile. "And I too," he said, "sometimes think to myself, seeing how rare and pre-

cious a thing it is to be a poet—why should I of all men, just chance to be born one? But, Evelyn, you're more a thousand times than that; you are already all that poets feign; you are more than a poet, seeing that you must needs draw poetry from whoever sees you."

Evelyn went to bed that night very, very happy. Though her poet would not tell her by what name he was known to the outer world she had no doubts on that score; you had only to talk with him to feel his greatness.

Next day, Mrs. Moore stopped at home with a bad cold. Without being unfilial, Evelyn thought it most opportune. She had all that long day to herself and Willie. He made her call him Willie now, and it seemed quite natural. When she said so, he smiled. "Why, of course," he exclaimed, "love is natural to humanity. You may bury your Miranda in an enchanted isle; yet, trust me, when her Ferdinand once drifts ashore, she will take to him as naturally as Eve took to Adam."

Evelyn felt he was right; this new love that had sprung up so suddenly within her was yet so deep-rooted, so native, so instinctive, that she somehow felt as if she had always belonged to him.

In the course of that day, the poet took her on foot to many unvisited strange nooks of Venice. He dived down short courts and under darkling doorways. Evelyn liked that even better than gliding in a gondola along the Grand Canal or by the narrow waterways that intersect the city. Her lover led her through a labyrinth of intricate lanes or sunless *calli*, paved with slabs of worn stone, and shut in on either hand by high walls of houses.

Quaint little bridges, single arched, iron-railed, carried them every here and there across some tiny *rio*, where brown-faced women with big gold earrings sat washing soiled clothes in still dirtier water. Dusky barge-men floated by with cigarettes in mouth, and chaffed the girls good-humoredly in their soft Venetian dialect. Now and again the poet emerged for a moment on the paved little *campo* of some sequestered

church, whose florid façade and tall brick campanile gave picturesque dignity to their squalid surroundings. Red petticoats hung drying from mysterious balconies. Children played bare-footed in the sun-smitten squares; girls drew water from carved spouts at the marble fountains, into hammered copper pails; men lounged, and talked, and gesticulated fiercely, and discussed the flaring electoral posters displayed in red and green on the bare walls of the dead monasteries.

It was quite another Venice of the tourists who lolled back at their ease in the cushioned gondolas, yet none the less replete with light and life and color for all that. The clear notes of church bells floated vaguely overhead; beneath, came the low splash of unseen oars in the waterway. Musical cries of "*Stali!*" "*Premè!*" rang round darkling corners from invisible boatmen. All else was silent, save for the hurry of frequent feet upon the narrow pavement. A stillness as of death seemed to pervade the city.

The poet led her on through strange ways and back alleys, where, alone, she would hardly have dared to penetrate. He plunged down lonely lanes through the heart of the native town, past Santa Maria Formosa, and the Ponte del Paradiso, by whose quay flat boats laden with firewood were discharging their cargo into arcaded magazines. On and on they went through queer alleys which smelt of dried fish and sour wine and garlic. From church portals as they passed, came close fumes of incense. Here and there the poet paused for a moment in his headlong course to point out some Gothic arch, some Romanesque pillar, some Renaissance doorway. By endless small bridges and strange zigzag *détours*, past courtyards and *campi*, across stagnant canals, he led her, unresisting, toward the quarter of the Ghetto. At last they reached a fantastic little red-washed square, far from the center of life, where one broader channel debouched full front in a sort of small harbor upon the open lagoon.

So queer a little square Evelyn never had seen during her long life of eight days in Venice. 'Twas a deserted *campo*. The

buildings around it were plastered with orange and pink distemper; many of them had balconies of old white marble balustrades in the last crumbling stage of decay and delapidation. Medallions stood encrusted in the palazzo walls; oval windows with dusty grating opened out on the canal; the stucco, peeling off, revealed underneath a mouldering substratum of water-worn brickwork. All was picturesque and antique and untidy. The very flags were untrodden, save for two or three yellow-haired Venetian children, and a woman in a flaming vermilion shawl, by the porch of the great house, who was performing her toilet most innocently *al fresco*. At the far end by the lagoon a funny red church rose high in the air, with a Byzantine dome and a great square belfry. The poet turned to Evelyn with an undercurrent of proprietary pride in his voice. "This is untouched Venice," he said with a wave of his hand toward the tumble down Romanesque doorway; "Venice as it was before the tourists and the steamboats spoiled it."

"It's very picturesque," Evelyn said half shrinking. 'Twas the most she could honestly say, for to her English eye the whole place sadly needed repairs and whitewash.

The poet gazed up at the squat square tower with paternal affection. "I consider this campanile as good as my own," he said smiling. "I give the man who takes care of it ten francs a week to let me go up there whenever I choose and write verses on the summit. I've written the best part of my new Italian play there. Its scenes are laid in Venice—and you know its heroine. I can't compose it in a dingy, stingy, close-walled room; I need the open air, the expanse, the broad horizon. You must come up to the top and see the view from my study, as I call it. Nobody knows it but me—and yet it's the finest picture to be found in Venice."

Evelyn drew back, half alarmed, as he opened the rusty door. "The stairs look so shaky," she said, shrinking; "do you think they'll bear me?"

Her lover laughed lightly. "Bear you!" he cried, much amused. "What, a feather

weight like you! Why you're light as gossamer. 'Twould bear a round hundred of such Ariels easily. The steps are solid stone; there isn't a stabler or firmer set square old tower to-day in Venice."

At the sound of his musical voice, the old custodian in the sacristy sallied forth to greet him with Italian suavity. "Good morning, Signor," he cried, rubbing his withered hands; "and good morning, Signora. The view to-day is magnificent, superb, delicious, inexpressible. You take the Signora to the top to see it? You are lucky in such a day; not for a week have I seen the snow mountains so beautiful."

The poet nodded and smiled, and dropped a piece of twenty francs in good yellow gold into the wrinkled and expectant hand stretched forth to him. Evelyn was far too truly and purely in love to harbor for a moment one mercenary thought of him. Yet she noted half unconsciously, as she had noted before, that her Willie was both rich and lavishly generous. He gave to all who asked with reckless profusion; and his rooms, where she had gone with her mother to tea, were furnished with taste and with reputed Donatellos.

The poet gave her his hand up the dark and tortuous staircase. When she reached the top step, she felt at once he had not exaggerated the beauty of the prospect. The tower looked down sheer into the green water below; beneath lay the little church with the Byzantine dome, the quaint pink square, the crowded houses of the Ghetto. On one side stood the city, steeped and turreted from end to end; on the other side the lagoon, the broad plain, the distant white mountains. The poet pointed with one delicate white hand toward a range of purple heights in the middle distance. "Do you know what those are?" he asked eagerly. "They're the Enganean hills, the divinely touched Enganeans. You remember them in Shelley,

"Mid the mountains Enganean
I stood listening to the pæan
With which the legioned rooks did hail
The sun's uprising majestic."

"And at their foot, you know, lies Padua,

which you've read about of course, in 'The Merchant of Venice.'"

"Oh, yes, I remember," Evelyn put in with spirit, overjoyed to bear her part in this literary conversation. "It was Portia who lived there."

The poet drew her to a seat; then for the first time she noticed that the platform of the tower was fitted up in rude state as an outdoor study. It had springy metal chairs, and a long garden seat, and a painted iron table, with pens and ink bottle. A tiled canopy overhead just protected them from the weather. The poet threw himself on the bench and drew Evelyn down beside him. "Now that was just the very thing I wanted to speak to you about," he said earnestly, "I brought you here on purpose." His face of a sudden grew most grave and anxious. "Before we go any farther, Evelyn," he went on, "I want us to understand one another clearly about this matter. I want now, in short,—to tell you my secret."

Evelyn trembled violently. She couldn't conceal from herself the fact that she longed to learn it. And yet, she dreaded it. "Whatever it may be, dear," she faltered leaning across to him tenderly, and seizing his hand in hers with a woman's impulse, "I shall love you all the same; I shall always be true to you."

He looked at her doubtfully. "I wish I could think so," he said, with a deep drawn sigh; "I only wish I could think so! But where none of the rest will believe me, how can I hope that you will? They all fall away as soon as ever they learn it."

Evelyn gazed into those clear blue eyes, in which no guile lurked unseen, and felt sure, whatever it might be, she could really trust him. "Oh, no," she cried, pressing his hand in return. "Not with *me*, dear Willie. I love you; I trust you; I shall always believe in you."

He paused for a moment, as though he hardly knew how he should begin to break it to her. Then he went on with quiet dignity. "In the first place," he said, bracing himself up, as it were, against a possible disappointment, "I want to ask you seriously one thing. Have you ever heard, or read,

or seen in a book any of my lines before? Did they sound at all familiar to you?"

"Well, I've fancied at times," Evelyn answered with truth, "I must certainly have read or heard them somewhere."

"Yes, yes, but did they recall any name to you distinctly?"

"No, nothing distinctly. I've only a vague impression in the background of my mind that I must have known them before, sometime, somewhere."

The poet's face fell. He must try another tack. So far, it was clear, she hadn't yet discovered or even doubted his identity.

"Well, I must begin all over again," he continued, passing his hand across his brow with a weary gesture. "Those sonnets that I read to you at the Britannia one night—you had never before seen them?"

"No, never," Evelyn answered, too honest to say yes, yet sorry to disappoint him. "We live so very little in the world of letters, you see! But I'm sure, at any rate, they were exquisite poetry."

"Oh, yes, everybody says *that*," he answered with such evident chagrin that it quite took away from the seeming conceit of so open an avowal. "I don't mind about *that*; it's the question of the authorship alone that troubles me."

"Why, what about the authorship?" Evelyn asked, astonished. Who that heard him could doubt 'twas he indeed that wrote them?

Her lover drew himself up with a very embarrassed air, and leaned one arm carelessly on the moldering red parapet. "Well, I'm rich," he said slowly, "I have lots of money. My father was a wealthy manufacturer in Birmingham. He left me everything. When a man's rich, he has always relations by the score, who'll move heaven and earth to get his estate away from him. And when a man passes under an assumed name or publishes under a pseudonym, it's always difficult for him to reclaim his own work when he will—especially if he's let many years elapse before he makes the reclamation. Those two things, you see, have been sadly against me."

"But under what name did you publish?" Evelyn asked, all eagerness.

The poet leaned forward with his clasped hands clenched and his earnest eyes fixed hard on her. "Evelyn, my darling," he cried excitedly, with trembling lips, "my own heart's darling,—my queen, my empress,—forgive me if in one thing I have wittingly deceived you. The name under which I publish is my own real name. It's the one I gave you, which alone is an assumed one."

Evelyn drew back in alarm. "Then why did you give me it?" she exclaimed, taken back at his excitement.

"I had every excuse," her lover answered penitently. "It's the name I go by—have always gone by it in the world. I can't do otherwise. If I assumed my own, don't you see, my relations would be down upon me, and would seize my fortune."

"But your plays?" Evelyn cried. "They're acted and published in your own right name, I suppose? At least, so you told me."

"Oh, yes,—and that's just why nobody will believe I wrote them."

"And your real name is?" She trembled like an aspen leaf.

"Can't you guess?"

"No, I can't."

"What! a writer of famous plays, the scenes of many of them in Italy?"

Evelyn shook her head still in a maze. This mystification puzzled her.

The poet turned round to her with a great glow on his face. He was transformed—transfigured. The tall white brow, the straw colored beard, the clear blue eyes, the expressive mouth, all were lighted up now with the intensest emotion. "My name," he said solemnly, "is,—William Shakespeare."

"And your plays?" Evelyn gasped hardly daring to ask it.

"*'The Merchant of Venice,' 'Othello,' 'Romeo and Juliet,' 'The Tempest,'* all those are Italian. On northern themes, *'King Lear,' 'Macbeth,' 'Hamlet,' 'Cymbeline.'*"

CHAPTER VI.

THERE was a long deep pause for several seconds. And during that pause each lived over and un-lived again the whole previous acquaintance.

Evelyn grasped at one glance the whole horror of the situation. Her poet, her lover, her king was a monomaniac. Cultivated, learned, able, intelligent, literary,—but still a monomaniac. The lines he had written to her, the passages he had quoted to her, were not one of them his own, but every word of them Shakespeare's.

Yet he was a poet still, a born poet in fiber; a man of culture, a man of fancy, a thinker, a phrase-maker. He was the cleverest talker, the widest reader, the best informed scholar, she had ever yet come across. His conversation itself was brilliant and wise and eloquent; no wonder she had thought him capable of writing, as he had said he did, those Shakespearian gems he was constantly showering upon her. She had loved him before, and she loved him still; yet the bitterest element in all this terrible disillusion was the painful thought that her own ignorance alone had made him fall in love with her. A better read woman would have detected at once the truth that the lines he recited were simply Shakespeare's, and would have laughed at him, as he said, for his mad claim to their authorship. He had fallen in love with her because she failed to detect their source; because she thought they were his; because, as he put it himself, she gave him her sympathy.

And yet at the same time Evelyn couldn't help feeling in her heart of hearts the whole pitiful pathos of it. He longed to be loved; but must only be loved as William Shakespeare. And as such in effect for eight days she had loved him. The face, the voice, the straw-colored beard, each counted for something; but 'twas the poet himself, the singer of sweet songs, that most of all had attracted her. And now she knew the poet was dead for three centuries, and the verses she fancied he had written to herself, were common property in every house in England!

As for her lover, he watched her face all this time with intensest interest. As each thought passed across it, he read it like a woman. He was tremulous for the result of that appalling disclosure—the disclosure that had already cost him so many valued

friendships. At last he spoke, but 'twas in a saddened voice. "Well, you don't believe me," he said slowly, as if with a knife in his throat. "You think it isn't so! You're just like the other ones!"

Evelyn leaned forward on the table with hands clasped and bloodless. Even then she was true to him. The disillusion had stunned her, but had not shaken her trust. She knew he was a madman; she knew she was alone with him on that lonely tower; but she wasn't afraid of him. Mad or sane, she felt at once he was a gentleman—too gentle a creature to do willing harm to her or to anyone.

"Willie," she cried, looking across at him with real pathos in her eyes, "I believe in you still! I love you dearly!"

But her poet drew back as she approached, and held his left hand in front of him, palm outward, as if to forbid her touching him till she had answered his next question. "That's not enough," he said hoarsely. "You must tell me more than that. Do you or don't you believe I wrote 'Macbeth,' 'Othello,' 'Hamlet'?"

Evelyn's lips trembled hard. 'Twas a terrible position. But still, even so, she would be true to herself, and true to her poet: "I can't believe it," she answered, with an ashen face. "Dear Willie, I believe you're everything on earth that's great and good and beautiful. You *could* have written them if you liked. You could write what you would. But you didn't write them."

The unhappy man turned away from her with a wild gesture of despair. "They're all the same!" he cried bitterly. "They're all the same, at a pinch. They'll give me everything else,—except the one thing I want from them—sympathy!"

Evelyn seized his hand once more, "Oh, sympathy you shall have, dear!" she cried. "As much as ever man's soul can want of sympathy. I know how this has happened." She paused a moment, for she realized to the full how this hungry human heart, cut off by its monomania from all intercourse with its kind on what touched it nearest, yearned and longed for companionship. "I see how it's come about. You are a poet

yourself, with a poet's nature; and you've read and drunk in your Shakespeare so long, you've understood it so well, you've felt it out so completely, that you've come at last to believe you wrote it all—as indeed you might have done."

The young man rose and gazed at her fixedly. "You have said the word," he answered with a solemn gesture. "They all say it sooner or later—either mocking me or pitying me. But I will not be mocked, and I will not be pitied. I am far above either. I am myself, a great poet, the greatest dramatist in the world. I want a woman to love me, to sympathize with me, to believe in me. Unless she will marry me as William Shakespeare, before the eyes of the whole world, and so proclaim her faith in me, and give me my due, I can never, never marry her. I thought I had found in *you* the one woman who could do it. I see I was mistaken. This disappointment crushes me."

He spoke with such earnestness, such dignity, such real feeling that Evelyn couldn't choose but love and respect him. There was so much to love and to admire in him, after all, in spite of his monomania! For a second she paused, counting the cost with herself. It was a terrible thing wittingly to marry a madman. Yet she loved him, she pitied him, she admired him so much, that even in the first full flush of that terrible disillusion, she was prepared for the sacrifice. She felt the whole hopelessness of it; yet she was prepared to face it. With a womanly impulse, she stretched out her arms to him. "Willie, Willie," she cried, melting, "take me! take me! I am yours. Under what name you will, I am ready now to marry you!"

Her poet stood forward again half a pace at her words. "No, no," he said, waving one hand with a deprecatory snap; "that won't do. That's not enough. That's not at all what I want. I want you to marry me under my own true name as William Shakespeare, and to tell me from your heart you know I am he—the author of 'Macbeth' of 'The Tempest,' of 'Hamlet'!"

There was no way out of it. Evelyn drew back in alarm and burst suddenly into a

hopeless storm of sobs and tears. "I can't," she cried inarticulately. "I know it isn't true. But I'll marry you for yourself, for the man I know you are, and try to win you back from this dreadful delusion."

The poet caught at the word, and strange fire flashed in his eyes.

"You call it a delusion! And *you*, the one woman I believed in on earth; the one woman I thought capable of understanding me and sympathizing with me!" He leapt to the moldering parapet of the little red tower. "This is the end of all!" he cried aloud, waving one hand above his head in frantic emotion. "Farewell to life, farewell to Rome, to Venice! 'Farewell, a long farewell, to all my greatness. The jaws of darkness do devour me up. I will take arms

against a sea of troubles, . . . And, by opposing, end them.'" He waved his hand wildly once more. Then he kissed it to Evelyn. "My best tragedy!" he said with bitter emphasis. "By William Shakespeare!"

Evelyn hid her face in her palms, and dared not look at him as he stood there. The custodian of the church, alarmed at the noise, had rushed out from his siesta. He saw the Signor Inglese standing aloft on the parapet of the old red tower, very tall and erect, kissing his hand to somebody. But before the old man had time to cry, "Take care! take care! This wall is so treacherous!" the Signor Inglese had plunged and all was silence. A splash in the lagoon, a black eddy on the surface, and no more was seen on earth of Evelyn Moore's poet.

FAMOUS REVIVALISTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

BY S. PARKES CADMAN.

AMONG revivalists Mr. Moody holds the first place by right and by common consent. He was

born where he now resides, at Northfield, Mass., February 5, 1837. His ancestry was of the best—good Puritan stock on both sides—and he was early taught to exercise his native sturdiness and force on one of those rocky New England farms concerning which some one remarks, "there are sufficient stones to build four fences to the acre."

While Dwight Lyman was a mere boy his father died, leaving him with eight brothers and sisters. The eldest of these boys ran away. The broken-hearted widow, doubly bereft as she was, began one of those unaccredited but heroic struggles against un-

relenting poverty which are too common, but in which she proved the winner. Her little son Dwight was a faithful lad.

He grew up with a very unpromising retinue of circumstances, and an education of enforced scantiness. But the fight for bread and raiment developed that innate sagacity, shrewdness of insight, pungency of wit, and pithiness of statement which are the characteristics of the genuine Yankee.

These traits, with the fecundity of illustration which illuminates his whole process of argument, make Moody the modern Hugh Latimer. They go a long way toward accounting for his phenomenal success in Great Britain, whether among the canny Scots of Edinboro' town, the hard-

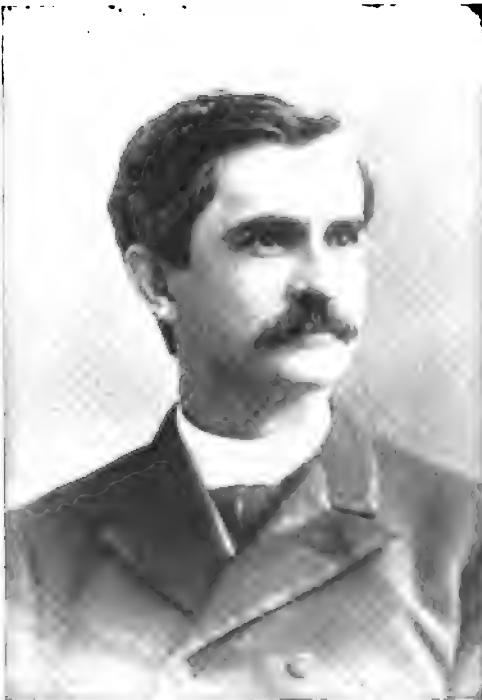


DWIGHT L. MOODY.
By permission of Wharton and Barron.

headed cotton-operatives of Lancashire, or the most difficult of all types to religiously impress and convince, the veritable London cockney.

Professor Agar Beet, of Richmond Wesleyan College, London, a great commentator, and claimed by many authorities as among the first of living exegetes and scholars, used to say to his students that this simple, unadorned son of Massachusetts had made the whole of Christendom his debtor because of his faithful devotion to Holy Scripture.

Mr. Moody has the gift of treating the Bible as a living book, eminently capable, in fact, supremely so, of application to present needs. He knows the volume with a sympathetic intuitive knowledge which serves him better than the mere scholasticism of the grammarian could serve him. Its historic characters are his personal friends or enemies, as the case demands. They are no longer misty outlines of legendary lore. He touches them and they live, move, and meet you face to face. The grace and art of oratory is not so effectual for Mr. Moody's work. A choice and extensive vocabulary may be a



A. C. DIXON.



S. V. ROBINSON.

hindrance unless carefully guarded. Did not some critic keenly remark that Bishop Boyd Carpenter would be a better preacher were he not so fluent a speaker? Besides Mr. Moody's leading gift is an extremely rare one, and he possesses it as does no other man on the religious platform to-day. He has heard the voice St. Augustine heard: that clear monitory voice: "*Tolle, lege*"—"Take up and read,"—and if, as Henry Rogers imagined in the dream of the Blank Bible in the "*Eclipse of Faith*," all copies of the sacred book were to disappear and all its words wherever they occur in other books to be blotted out, no individual could do more to restore its precious truths than could Dwight Lyman Moody.

I am not speaking now of intellectual but of spiritual study: of a sympathetic chord of communion which must exist between the reader and every book one really masters, and which gives the book a place in our inmost heart, and its teachings a vibration in our every pulse-beat. The pre-eminence of this communion has made Mr. Moody as much of an adept in Biblical exposition and expansion of its truth as Stopford Brooke is in

interpreting Tennyson, and this unity of the teacher and the Book is a noteworthy feature in all leaders of modern revivalism. I have been struck with the fact that many such men, to whom critical study of the Scriptures from the scholar's standpoint is impossible, and if not impossible, undesirable, have yet acquired a great spiritual grasp upon them and through them upon large numbers of men.

Take, for instance, that intensely dramatic and eloquent southerner, Dr. Amazi Clarence Dixon. His associate pastor in Brooklyn writes me to say that chief among his impressions of Dr. Dixon is "the loving reverence he has for the Bible, and his delight in studying its pages."

A. C. Dixon is the son of a frontier preacher in North Carolina. He was converted when eleven years of age, began to preach at nineteen, witnessed the confession of two hundred and fifty converts in three months' ministry on his first charge, and has been "at the front with the music of the guns" ever since. His ministry in Baltimore led him on naturally enough to the city of churches, and today Hanson Place Baptist Church, Brooklyn, of which he is pastor, is the banner church of its association for the number of baptisms during the past year.

Dr. Dixon is a man of imposing physique. I was preaching one Sunday afternoon in Niblo's Theater, New York City, when I saw him for the first time. He was in the midst of a great crusade which began in his own church, moved the city of Brooklyn as it had not been moved for thirty years, and extended to the adjacent metropolis. As I watched him approach the stage I thought of Mr. Surgeon's comment on his appear-

ance. They had met in London, the stout thickset Englishman, and the tall loose-jointed American. The great preacher's glance moved from Dixon's feet to his face, a distance, by the way, of over six feet, as he slowly remarked, "you carry things in America to a great length." He has carried other things besides his physical build to a great length, and he and his younger brother Thomas are among the aggressive exponents of Christianity from the puritanical basis, applied to the whole domain of life and action.

His "fidus Achates" in toil is the Rev. S. V. Robinson, the associate pastor of his church. This man's tact, organizing skill, and unflagging zeal are beyond all praise. During the recent winter's mission in Brooklyn and New York City, the ubiquitous Robinson was in evidence at every needed emergency. He arranged the lists of preachers, secured the halls, and dissipated the lethargy of the daily press.

His ministry has been eminently successful at home and abroad, especially among young people. His work as an author recently matured in a booklet, "A Physician's Notes on Apostolic Times," a study in

the Acts of the Apostles.

Charles H. Yatman is known as a born leader of children's religious services, and a special missionary of first rank. Dining with him a few days ago I chanced to take up his private copy of the Bible. The marks of constant and careful study were on every annotated page. I saw at once that in the bases of their methods Mr. Moody and Mr. Yatman are exactly alike; both do indeed search the Scriptures.

The fame of Mr. Yatman's juvenile services at Ocean Grove has gone to all quar-



B. FAY MILLS.



CHARLES H. YATMAN.

ters of the globe, and his friends are urging him to undertake a tour to the principal cities of the world, proclaiming the Gospel.

He was born at Tredon, Sussex County, N. J., and is now forty-one years old. After receiving a common school education he entered upon a business career, but through the influence of a Christian employer was led into the church and the ministry. He became the pastor of the Dashiell Church, Newark, N. J., when twenty-seven years of age. This was followed by six years of secretaryship in the Y. M. C. A. and later by his association with Ocean Grove's annual gatherings. Now his reputation is so widespread that last spring he received urgent calls to preach in every city of importance on the Pacific slope.

Mr. Yatman has always aimed to present the truth in a terse and vigorous style, and with a magnetic charm which causes his audiences, old and young alike, to bend to his wishes. After witnessing a series of great gatherings in New York, with a declared list of fifty thousand converts, he went to San Francisco to conduct the massed forces of the

Methodist churches of that city. The Rev. Drs. Dille, W. W. Case, A. C. Hirst, and A. McClish, together with Bishop Goodsell, supported this project, and it was crowned with unexpected results.

When the church is not so anxious to preserve useless doctrinal and sectarian distinctions, when she gives more attention to creating the forces needed for present true life and the solution of present problems, and less to the attempt to conserve a dead traditionalism, she will succeed in capturing our urban centers, and not until then. The masses have no schism with true Christianity, *per se*, but many strongly doubt the church's correct representations of Christianity, hence our difficulties. Such a subject is indissolubly connected with the names and work of these ministers of whom I speak, but it cannot be discussed here at any length. Doubtless the Rev. George C. Needham could afford wise counsel upon it, for this genial Irishman hailing from near the beautiful Killarney Lakes has enjoyed a diversified experience in successful ministrations of the Gospel.

When Mr. Needham was a boy nine years old, his mother died, leaving her children the white memory of her blameless life, and



GEORGE C. NEEDHAM.



THOMAS NEEDHAM.

a fervent invocation of heaven's blessing upon them, which has been answered in more than one of the nine brothers and sisters who stood at her bedside to receive their dying mother's farewell. This was thirty-eight years ago.

After an uncompromising strife with early hindrances Mr. Needham entered upon his life work when twenty years old. His strength and widening sphere brought him under Mr. Spurgeon's favorable notice. In 1867 the young man landed in this country at Boston, and invitations to preach began immediately to pour in upon him. He formed a friendship with Mr. Moody, and, like him, Mr. Needham emphasizes, elucidates, and preaches the Word. He shrinks from great and popular assemblies, and is, as he himself once declared, "a plain man, telling a plain story, in a plain manner."

His three younger brothers are in the ministry and the career of one of them, Thomas, would afford the material for a great book, a book to delight boys for present and future generations. Robert Louis Stevenson's imagination could perhaps picture what Thomas Needham, one of our modern revivalists, has actually experienced.

When Mr. Needham was a boy of ten

years, he was sent to sea on board an English ship bound for South America. The brutal captain and his equally brutal crew tortured the little fellow with almost fiendish ferocity. They beat him, tied him to the mast, and ended by tattooing his arms and body. When the voyage to South America was completed, these monsters took the boy ashore and left him in the forests on the beach of a desolate country where he would have perished from hunger save that after a few days he was found by a band of Patagonian Indians. They determined to fatten him, an attention he certainly stood in need of, but as the tender mercies of the wicked are cruel, so little Thomas was only to be fed that he might adorn a future Patagonian state banquet. The feast time drew near, and the trembling little fellow was stripped for slaughter, but no Indian would lift his hand against him, for there, among the emblems pricked into his skin by the sailors was the sacred symbol of the Cross. Some missionaries had mellowed the fierce hearts of the heathen by preaching the Cross, and Needham's life was spared. But he was closely guarded. After weary months of captivity he at last escaped and with endless adventures too lengthy for relation here, reached the precincts of civiliza-



LEONARD WEAVER.

tion once more. He became the advocate of the Cross, the Cross which had saved his life for both worlds.

With his brothers George C., B. C., and William E., Thomas forms a quartet of honest, earnest, and forcible preachers. He is as one might expect, well versed in the Scriptures, ready of speech, abounding in illustrations and has the keen sense of proportion and variety in speech which has made so many Irishmen most captivating orators.

Observers well qualified to judge pronounce the Rev. B. Fay Mills the coming man upon the platform of revivalism. Mr. Mills was born in New Jersey, about five miles from Elizabeth. He is the son of Dr. Thornton A. Mills, of the Presbyterian church, and has the honor of being the first graduate from Lake Forest University. In 1884 he was called to a small church at Rutland, Vt., and from Rutland manifold voices have continued to call him to larger fields until now Mr. Mills is known to thousands who have been urged into loyalty and obedience to the claims of Christ through his efficacious ministry.

While he is earnest and sympathetic in his relation to the audience, Mr. Mills disregards the merely emotional element as much as, if not more than any man engaged in this peculiar work. He floods his hearers with what Lord Bacon termed "the dry light of reason." Deep seriousness is induced by his calm, logical, persuasive utterances and this enviable gift enchains the masculine mind, so that his meetings for men are amazing in their results. He is a standing contradiction of the frequent assertion that success in revivals is procured by the suppression of intellectual gifts.

The popular interest in the leading men of this article is better understood when the reader learns that many of them are engaged years ahead. Dr. J. W. Chapman, who is ranked next to Mr. Moody by his admirers, recently replied to an invitation from one of our largest cities that he was fully occupied until the end of 1896. The doctor has won golden opinions from all quarters, and has won them the more, because he never desired them. He appeals to his hearers with irresistible force, and during his missions the whole town in which he was preaching has felt the grip of a powerful hand until even the saloon, that Malakoff of evil, has disgorged its victims and closed its doors.



RODNEY ("GIPSY") SMITH.

Major Whittle still gives his time and means to the work he has been so long engaged in and the names of Ira D. Sankey and of George C. Stebbins are familiar to all lovers of the school of Christian song produced by modern revivalism. This school of song may lack the strength, grace, and literary art of older hymnology, but to those who believe in evolutionary methods it has an important place, and the generation that to-day sings the rudimentary will see its children voicing the historic odes and hymns of the great Church of Christ. Nor should it be forgotten that had these rescued ones never heard the melodies of Bliss, Sankey, and McGranahan, their children and possibly they themselves would not have known the magnificent productions of Wesley, Watts, and chiefly the psalms and anthems of the Scriptures and the early church.

The portrait of Mr. Rodney Smith, familiarly known as Gipsy Smith, is inserted here, and it is easy to discern in it the dark

eyes and the handsome face of a genuine "Romany." For Mr. Smith is a gipsy and was born in a gipsy tent. He is endorsed by Dr. Joseph Parker of London and Chancellor Day of Syracuse University. His work in Manchester, Eng., also along our own Hudson Valley and in New York City is characterized by Chancellor Day as "the counsel and help of a wise, modest, earnest, spiritual man and brother, *the pastor's brother*, who widens and intensifies the work you had before he came to you, and leaves you enlarged by new possibilities and tuned to sweeter songs."

Another English evangelist who is becoming a welcome friend in Canada and the United States is Leonard W.

Weaver. He was born in Leominster and began to address public meetings when fourteen years of age. The people heard him gladly and clamored for more of his impassioned effective speech. He has frequently preached to seven thousand people from the rear of his "Gospel-chariot," a van in which he lived and traveled. After preaching he distributed Bibles, about a million of

them in nine years. For four years Mr. Weaver has been a resident here, and is well known in eastern cities. At his mission in Elizabethtown, N. Y., five thousand gathered to hear him. During the summer of '94 he addressed the gatherings at Prohibition Park, Staten Island.

Dr. L. W. Munhall, the soldier, the medical doctor, the author, and the evangelist, has held meetings in nearly every large city of the Union, has traveled extensively in many foreign lands, and has witnessed the conversion of one hundred and fifty thousand people, one third of them young men, during his career, a career which stands now at its zenith, and shows no symptom of decline.

Leander W. Munhall was born at Zanesville, Ind., in 1843. He was summoned to his father's death chamber in early life and there solemnly commended to the protection and blessing of God. While seated at a saloon table engaged with his reckless companions he heard the bells of a church near by ring out a melody which stirred the better memories, and in the midst of their wasail and laughter young Munhall sprang to his feet and announced his determination to be a Christian. Three months later he was among the million of "thinking bayonets" in the colossal armies of the North. He was mustered into the Twenty-fifth Corps and served first under Buell and afterwards under

Howard, the Havelock of the North, as Stonewall Jackson was the Cromwell of the South.

Dr. Munhall fought in twenty-five battles, and rose to the rank of adjutant. On one occasion he was among a storming party of one hundred and nineteen and one hundred and nine fell in ten minutes; yet he escaped unhurt.

Such a military record has given Dr. Munhall a wide knowledge of affairs, and a developed wisdom in handling men. He became state secretary to the Indiana Y. M. C. A. and from that office went all over the far West, and nearer home, in the eastern states, capturing these non-homogenous conglomerations of population in bloodless conflicts for the Lord Christ.

When the great revival already mentioned commenced in Brooklyn last winter, the Rev. R. G. Pearson of Asheville, N. C., preached the opening sermons. The first of these discourses produced a large number of conversions publicly confessed. Mr. Pearson is a sweet saintly soul, a man to whom intimate communion with God is not an empty meaningless phrase. Like Arnold of Rugby, he has "personal friend-



L. W. MUNHALL.



R. G. PEARSON.

ship" with the Lord. He lives to love men, and he shows the depth and tenderness of his affection in both his spirit and his ministry. Mr. Pearson's friends, who know him best, will more than justify the passing tribute paid here.

Mrs. Wittenmeyer, Mrs. Van Cott, and some other women evangelists have been effective for good in a large degree, and though the limits of the article hurry one forward, their names will be welcome to those who have met them and heard their pleadings in the great cause.

The last name to be mentioned is that of Thomas Harrison, the "boy preacher," so called because of his youth and small stature when he first appeared on the platform. He was born in Dorchester District, Boston, Mass., Dec. 25, 1854. He owes much to a pious mother, whose longing desires were answered in his early conversion and subsequent call to the evangelistic ministry. In personal appearance Mr. Harrison is slight of figure, under medium height, of unassuming and attractive bearing. His gray eyes twinkle with fun and his addresses, though they would be distasteful to some, are very effective.

His work in Baltimore, Washington, Philadelphia, Brooklyn, New York City, Meriden, Conn., Indianapolis, Cincinnati, and San Francisco is abundantly known. It has procured the endorsement of many of America's leading divines.

In concluding these brief sketches, I am aware that many worthy people look with a measure of disfavor upon revivalists and their methods, nor could all revivalists and all methods be successfully defended. It is not the purpose of any sane person to justify that reprehension of the intellectual which some evangelists continually avow, and the logical deduction of which would make an imbecile the peculiar and more capacious instrument of God's grace to men. But the men and women whose names are mentioned here have helped to teach the Church of Christ a great and needed lesson concerning her relation to those of our home heathen, and they are many, who are as sheep having no shepherd.

The emotional tendency is in revivals of religious fervor because it has a really large place in man, and the heart still continues



THOMAS HARRISON.

to rule despite the chafing of our intellectual nature. There are those who sneer at religious excitement and have no appreciation too generous for a favorite candidate in politics or the whirl of a national fête and celebration. Such a sneer may be the dark shadow cast by unspirituality, and men should not be too ready to take credit to themselves for mental vigor because they have only distaste and denunciation for these peculiar religious phases which have helped thousands, yea, millions, to attain a better life.

Such a prejudice is a sign of limitation,

not of strength; an involuntary confession that the owner of it is yet lacking as a philosopher, since whatever affects his race should affect him. Mr. Darwin could not appreciate poetry but he was not a great scientist because he could not appreciate poetry, rather in spite of it.

There is buffoonery everywhere, and so it is in modern "revivalism." But when the Christian pastorate returns to its first apostolical function of preaching, preaching with lively voice and manner, this will cease to be and every pastor will become what he should be, a revivalist.

THE TRIUMPH OF JAPAN.

BY SIR EDWIN ARNOLD.*

JAPAN has just crowned the brilliant series of her victories by the capture of Port Arthur, the principal naval station of China. This extraordinary achievement, whether or not it will conclude the campaign, and perhaps even the war, places China, in a military and naval sense, at the feet of the conquering nation, and is the last of a succession of warlike movements planned with the utmost skill and carried out with wonderful sagacity, energy, and valor. The result may well seem astounding to those who did not know the true Japan, and who took their notions of the temper of it from superficial observers. Accomplished as this series of triumphs has been within less than four months, it is well calculated to satisfy, if not to surprise, those who best understood the spirit and resources of the mikado's country, and the high intelligence with which the Japanese govern-

ment and the people had prepared themselves for such a crisis in the national history.

I shall endeavor in this paper to furnish some reasons why the present outcome of the conflict was to be surely foreseen by well-informed eyes from the commencement; and I may do this with a better grace because when the war was breaking out I ventured to write in a magazine article that the troops and ships of China would not be able to stand before those of Japan anywhere, or at any time, in anything like equal numbers and strength. That was in the hour when almost all western critics of the war were saying that whatever slight successes Japan might at first obtain the "somber strength" of China would eventually overwhelm her, and even Mr. Curzon did not fear to affirm that the war was being entered upon chiefly to please the Parliamentary Opposition.

The fact is that until recently the western mind generally cherished an entirely erroneous idea about Japan and the Japanese. Their conception was derived from such sources as M. Pierre Loti's clever but superficial "Madame Chrysanthème," and from various similar publications by "globe-trotters" who had seen and understood no more of the country than *flâneurs* or curio-hunters can get at. Mr. Gilbert and Sir Arthur Sul-

* Sir Edwin Arnold, best known as the author of the poem "The Light of Asia," is the noted English writer of several books of both prose and verse, and a journalist of wide reputation. Among his many works are "Griselda," "The Poets of Greece," "The Indian Song of Songs," "The Light of the World," "Japonica," "Seas and Lands." He was born in 1832, graduated from Oxford University in 1854, and then accepted the principalship of the Government Sanskrit College at Poonah, India, and became Fellow of the University of Bombay, remaining in India during the Sepoy mutiny. Since then he has been a world-wide traveler and has gained fame as a popular lecturer. He has spent much time during later years in Japan, making a special study of the land, its government and its people. Hence an article from his pen is high authority on the triumph of Japan. G-Jan.

livan have also something to answer for by reason of their lively misrepresentation of Japan in the comic opera entitled "The Mikado." Yum-Yum and Pitti Sing were accepted as types of the Japanese female, and it is one example out of many of the errors which pervaded the amusing piece that the *kimono* of those young ladies were crossed over their bosoms from right to left. Never by any chance is the graceful robe in question thus worn, except at death, when it is the custom to fold the garment for the first time in that way, it being arranged during life always from left to right. The mikado himself, together with Pooh-Bah, the ministers, and the *mise-en-scène* generally, were all of them equally ridiculous to a Japanese eye, and the piece could not be produced in Japan partly on this account, and partly because of the gross disrespect offered in it to the growing empire and its sovereign.

Signs of the same mistaken notions have been everywhere visible in the English press, whether serious or comic. *Mr. Punch*, at the first great victory of Ping-Yang, had a cartoon representing "Jap, the Giant Killer," proudly trampling upon a colossal Chinaman; and everywhere might be read expressions of wonder, and occasionally of disappointment, that "little" Japan should make such headway against the prodigious Middle Kingdom. But Japan is not little, measured by any just standard. Even *Whitaker's Almanack* might have informed these public instructors that the empire—which comprises no less than 4,200 islands, nearly 150,000 square miles in area—has a population of over forty-one million souls—more than the number of those dwelling either in the British realm or in France. This population is as homogeneous as a sack of rice. A native of Hakodate or Sendai talks with the same tongue as one of Kioto or Nagasaki, wears the same clothes, and cherishes the same loyalty to his "heaven-born" sovereign and the same patriotism toward Dai Nippon. Only one thirteenth part of the empire, however, is under cultivation, the rest consisting of mountainous ground, either barren, or forbidding tillage

and the keeping of flocks and herds, because of a prickly bamboo-grass which grows everywhere and spoils the pasture. Being at heart a Buddhist country, flesh-meat in any case has never become popular in Japan, although it has been found that for the army and navy beef and mutton are needed to correct the exclusive fish and rice diet of the land. For myself I think that, if the hill-sides were steadily burnt off, grass might be produced, and oxen and sheep be some day seen all over Japan. At present the latter familiar animal is so rare in the islands that I have paid a *sen* at a village show to see a sheep in a cage, exhibited as a great novelty.

In a word, Japan is no globe-trotter's playground of undersized frivolous people, living a life like that depicted upon tea-trays and screens; but a great, a serious, and a most intelligent nation having a history extending over two thousand five hundred years, obeying an unbroken dynasty dating its origin only a hundred years short of the time of the foundation of Rome, and deriving from its isolated position in the North Pacific a solidity and unity possible only to island empires. Japan has borrowed from China many important elements in her religion, her arts and her customs, but it is the greatest mistake to speak of the two countries in the ordinary style as if their character and type were at all identical. Japanese features give evidence, no doubt, of a large Mongolian element in the blood, but that blood has been subtly tempered by nature with a considerable admixture of the Malay and the Kanaka, the resulting blend being one producing special gifts and extraordinary qualities. The pure Japanese language has nothing in common with Chinese; from which, however, it takes to-day, for colloquial and literary purposes, a large proportion of words and phrases. Yet no Chinese vocable ever steals into Japanese poetry, which appears, therefore, musical and graceful beyond the reach of the celestial tongue.

The first point to have in mind while contemplating the otherwise amazing social, civil, and militant advance of Japan is her ancient and strictly indigenous civilization,

during the vast prolongation of which the Japanese, unseen and unknown by the outer world, developed certain entirely special national qualities and national arts, the former of which render them one of the strongest peoples in the world potentially, while the latter place them absolutely at the head of mankind for several valuable traits and social superiorities.

The revolution of 1868, so radical and thorough-going that the Japanese themselves style it *O Jishin* ("the honorable earthquake"), must not by any means be taken as the starting-point of the modern empire, although it forms the beginning of the present era of Meiji, and marks the moment when Japan entered into the western system. It must be clearly understood that, like a skillful gardener who grafts a new rose or a new apple upon a healthy and well-established stock, so did Japan adapt the scientific and civil achievements of the West to an eastern root, full of vigorous life and latent forces.

The "globe-trotters" who write their light appreciations without even speaking the language or seeing more than what a guide can show them, forget to speak of the extensive public services established, in the network of railways, the perfect postal arrangements, the telegraph, electric lighting, educational, medical, and sanitary departments; and they did not and could not know, as closer students knew, how the Japanese—earnest, exact, and artistic in all things—had carried into the organization of their army and their navy that same conscientious craftsmanship and minute fidelity as to details which you see all over the land wherever a carpenter fits a plank or an artist carves an ivory *netsuke*, or a Japanese lady ties up a present for her friend, with the inevitable red and white string, and the *nochi*.

My own eyes were opened when I was out, by the emperor's gracious invitation, with the imperial troops in 1890 during their three days' military maneuvers in and around Nagoya. A civilian must not pretend, of course, to judge of soldiers, but one who has seen many other armies, European and Asiatic, could at least form reasonable conclu-

sions, and mine, after that experience, were very firmly fixed as to the reality of the fighting strength of Japan. The sturdiness, cheerful spirit, and willing obedience of the regiments would have struck the most careless eye. The emperor, who loves his army to a degree that sometimes almost made the navy jealous, was in the midst of us, soldiering in earnest like the rest, nothing to distinguish him in the smoke and bustle, except the embroidered cloth of purple silk with gold chrysanthemums laid upon an ammunition-box for his lunch, and the golden scabbard of his Masamune sword. In marching, the soldiers laid aside their barrack boots to slip their feet into the *waraji*—those sandals of cord worn everywhere through the country, in which they can walk all day long. I will be bound that the path of the army through Corea and Manchuria is at this day marked by scores of thousands of such discarded foot-gear, which the Japan pedestrian flings aside when worn out, or throws into a tree as an offering to the God of Travelers.

The spirit of the men was admirable. I saw the wheel of a heavy field-gun crush an artilleryman's foot; but the gunner did not utter a word nor leave his post until an officer, perceiving the blood running from his sandal, and finding the man's foot crushed, sent him to the rear. In the march homeward from those beautiful hills covered with lilac azalea blossom, where the mimic battle had raged, the gentle and cheerful demeanor of "Kintaro"—the Japanese "Tommy Atkins"—was most remarkable. He was polite and friendly with everybody in the towns and villages, sober, orderly, contented, and evidently loved his duty. Like the Turkish troops, those of Japan live upon what would seem to us next to nothing. Cold boiled rice and pickled slices of the gigantic white radish called *daikon* suffice them, at any rate until they can get to a bit of fried fish; and the delicate cup of weak tea—the universal beverage of the land—satisfies their simple taste as completely as it does that of the rudest laborer of this strangely refined race.

In Japan, unlike China, it is held noble to be a soldier, and indeed a great number of His Majesty's marines are the sons of *samurai*

—what we should call here “esquires.” The police of the capital and the Imperial Guard are in like manner largely recruited from the upper classes of Japan, dispossessed of their feudal privileges by the revolution. In consequence, these Japanese regiments are not only well recruited but splendidly led by officers educated in warlike science; and the contrast is strong indeed between such fearless lieutenants, captains, and colonels, who rejoice in getting back to their old chivalric life, and the Chinese generals, with spectacles and long silver finger nail guards, carried into the field in sedan chairs with opium pipes in hand instead of swords.

As for the Japanese navy, it has “made its proofs” in a style which renders praise superfluous. With her extensive coasts and universal habit of fish diet, Japan had early come to be encircled with a hardy breed of fishermen and sailors from whom any government could pick a superb *personnel* for warships. An old law used to forbid the building of any boats or junks beyond a certain tonnage, which was meant to keep the people to themselves. But all that exclusiveness became frankly abandoned at the beginning of Meiji, and when the present war commenced the emperor had a splendid, though unfinished, navy at command, together with a whole fleet of passenger steamers owned by Japanese companies, which he could put into requisition. In the society of my friend Captain Ingles, who was chief adviser for many years to the Imperial Japanese navy, I saw and heard many a proof of its efficiency. There was a warship—I think it was the *Naniwa*—came to moorings at Kobe, during the naval maneuvers there. No sooner was she fast than an order was conveyed to her to put to sea again immediately, to take part in certain evolutions. From the time when she took up her berth until she cast off again and steamed seaward, the interval elapsing was so brief and the smartness shown so perfect that my professional friend observed, “We could not beat that in the British navy!”

As an example of the thorough way in which Japan went to work to create this fleet—the dimensions of which she intends

to double in the next ten years—it may be mentioned that, when commencing its establishment, she engaged an entire British ship’s company, from the commander to the cabin-boys, in order to “coach” every grade of her officers, cadets, and companies in their respective duties. Rank by rank the Japanese thus molded their own blue jackets upon our British type, while they so studied and mastered the arts of musketry and gunnery that perhaps the best rifle now carried by any troops is that invented by Col. Murata for the army of His Imperial Majesty, and the sanguinary record of the Yaloo River has amply proved that they know how to profit by the warlike productions of Elswick and of Krupp.

As for the quarrel between Japan and China, it is historically an old one, and, twice at least before now, the *hi no maru*, the “sun-flag” of Nippon, has been carried to victory over the hills of Chosen. The Empress Jingo Ko-go successfully invaded that peninsula about the date when our Saxons first landed in Britain; and Hideyoshi, the dwarfish, six-fingered, but famous Taikun, subdued and would have annexed the land but for his sudden demise. In 1269 A. D., after a first disastrous attempt to plunder the Japan coasts, that renowned warrior, Prince Kublai Khan, made a descent upon them with many hundreds of ships and scores of thousands of fighting men.

The memorable event is the Armada story of Japanese history—and the land has never forgotten its perils or its glories at that epoch. Aided by a mighty typhoon, the islanders managed to shatter and disperse the argosy of the Chinese conqueror, and cut off thousands of the invaders’ heads, after the barbarous fashion toward prisoners then prevailing, which China would still follow, though Japan has long ago adopted the Geneva Cross, and astonishes her pig-tailed enemies by tenderness and humanity toward the wounded and captives. A nobleman of ancient lineage brought to me, when in Japan during 1889, a very curious painting of Kublai Khan’s invasion and defeat, which had been executed some two or three generations after the battle. It was done

with much skill and spirit upon thin leather, and extended, when unrolled, to a length of many yards, while attached to it was a faded silk flag of the Tartars, and a wisp of horse-tail from a Tartar banner. I might have bought the relic, and indeed greatly wished to become its possessor, for nothing was more interesting than thus to behold faithfully depicted the soldiers of "Xanadu," and the battalions of the early Japanese emperors in "their manner as they lived." But I perceived it was a veritable Bayeux tapestry for Japan, and therefore sent the owner with it to the palace, where I believe His Imperial Majesty was pleased to purchase the antique scroll for his own archives at a very gracious price indeed.

I have alluded, however, to Hideyoshi, Kublai Khan, and the Empress Jingo, not to go into the annals of Corea, but merely to indicate that this international feud between Japan and China is one of very long standing, and that Corea has been oftentimes before a bone of contention. There are ignorant observers of the present extraordinary Asiatic episode who talk and write as if Japan, in her new strength, had looked about for a likely enemy and for a plausible dispute; and had found them quite by accident in the Chinese court and the Korean question. The proclamation of the Chinese emperor at the outbreak of the war, when he called his enemies "vermin" *Wojin*, and commanded, a little too lightly, their "extirpation," should teach a better insight. It was an old and inevitable quarrel.

War is a terrible evil, and I myself am just as sorry for those who have suffered on the Chinese as on the Japanese side. But very little pity is due to the mandarins, the officials, and the worthless court of the unwieldy Middle Kingdom. Statesmen naturally desire to see some sort of government survive at Peking, and reasonably dread the chaos which may follow if the Manchu dynasty should collapse, and three hundred and fifty millions of mankind be temporarily without an authoritative head.

But the utter feebleness and failure which China has exhibited—the disgraceful incompetence of her officers, and the cowardice

of her soldiers and sailors, is the condemnation written large of the miserable central government first of all, and then of a civil and social system which, if it does disappear, did not deserve to survive. Under the cruel, corrupt, and barbarously opportunist *régime* of Peking, founded as it has been upon the immoral moralities of Confucius, patriotism and honor, faith and loyalty, with almost all the manly virtues, have been crushed out of the hearts and souls of the ingenious, industrious, patient, and obedient people of China.

In the fortunes of the present war the world beholds—if it will look deeper than to what satisfies shallow critics—the immense significance of leading national ideas. We have suddenly found ourselves gazing upon a prodigious collision between powers founded on Confucianism and Buddhism respectively—since behind the disgraceful defeat of the troops and ships of Peking are the unspirituality, narrowness, and selfishness of the old agnostic's philosophy, while behind the successes of Japan are the glad and lofty tenets of a modified Buddhist metaphysic, which has mingled with Shintoism to breed reverence for the past, to inculcate and to produce patriotism, loyalty, fearlessness of death, with happiness in life, and above all self-respect. It is this last quality which is the central characteristic of the Japanese men and women, and round about which grow up what those who do not love the gentle and gallant race called "vanity," and many other foibles and faults. Self-respect, which Buddhism teaches to every one, and which Confucius never taught, makes the Japanese as a nation keep their personal honor—except perhaps in business affairs—as clean as they keep their bodies; and has helped to give them the placid and polite life, full of grace, of charm, and of refinement, which contrasts so strongly with the dirty, ill-regulated, struggling, atheistic existence of the average Chinese. Self-respect—*mizukara omonzuru*—has also largely given them their brilliant victories of this year; that temper of high manhood which Confucianism has taken away, by its cold and changeless disbeliefs, from the otherwise capable, clever, and indefatigable Chinamen.

In a word, the picture passing before our eyes of unbroken success on one side and helpless feebleness and failure on the other—which was numerically the stronger—is a lesson for the West as well as the beginning of a new era in the East. It teaches, trumpet-tongued, how nations depend upon the inner national life, as the individual does upon his personal vitality. The system under which China has stagnated was secretly fatal to patriotism, loyalty, faith, manhood, public spirit and private self-respect. In Japan, on the contrary, those virtues, rooted anciently in her soil, have never ceased to blossom and produce the fruit that comes from a real, serious, and sensible national unity. In the Chinese journals we read miserable accounts of corruption, defalcation, duties shirked, and discipline replaced by terrible cruelty. Take up any Japanese newspaper of the present time and you will find reports of private subscriptions and donations sent in ship loads to the army and navy; the Japanese men eager to share in the maintenance of their flag; the Japanese women volunteering for service in the field hospitals or toiling at home to prepare comforts for their brave countrymen. One town in Ehime prefecture unanimously abjured the use of tea that it might raise funds to send gifts to the regiments in Corea. Another in Fukushima resolved to set aside the drinking of *saki* till the triumph of Japan was complete, the money saved being forwarded to the army. The villagers of Shizuoka went *en masse* to the top of Fuji San to pray for the success of the armies of Japan. In fact the whole land from the emperor to the lowest *ninsoku*, or "leg-man," has been consolidated by one great heart-beat of national effort, and the consequence is that

the vast, unwieldy, inarticulate mass of Chinese strength has gone down before the flag of Japan like rice before the harvest knife.

If there be indeed a "little England party" among us, it should, while taking note of the splendid victories which have raised Japan to the first rank of eastern powers, ponder the subjoined extract from a Tokio journal:

"The representatives of the *Taigai Kōha*, or 'Strong Foreign Policy party,' now in Tokio, held a meeting on the 16th instant at the offices of the party, and discussed the policy to be pursued in the approaching session of the Diet. They arrived, according to the *Fiji Shimpō*, at a resolution that peace must not be made with China until an agreement can be come to with her securing the permanent tranquillity of the Orient. They further determined that no expense must be spared to achieve the above result, and that ample supplies must be voted; and further, that since national unanimity is essential in a crisis like the present, all petty subjects of dispute with the government should be laid aside, and no voice of censure should be raised so long as the country's honor and interests are fully guarded. The spirit displayed by these politicians is deserving of all applause, but in truth the heart of the Japanese nation is so thoroughly enlisted in this struggle with China, that we may look for displays of loyalty on all sides."

Nor is there any good reason to grudge to Japan her sudden elevation to high rank and influence in Asia. I have spoken above of Buddhism as the root from which her civil virtues and her gentle social manners have sprung. But it is the country of all countries where the ethics—if not the doctrines—of Christianity have found and will find the most ready reception, and where the active instinct of the people for "whatsoever things are of good report" has already opened the way to a time when Japan may become Christian in all but name, and possibly even in that also Christian.

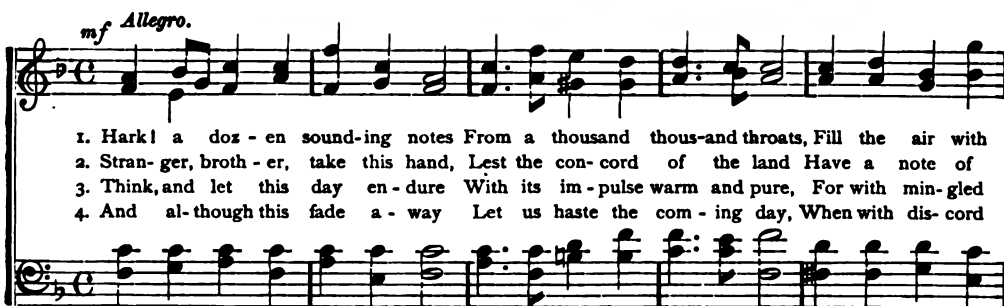


The New Year Coming. A Hymn.

Words by J. Edmund V. Cooke.

Music by Frederick A. Williams.

mf Allegro.



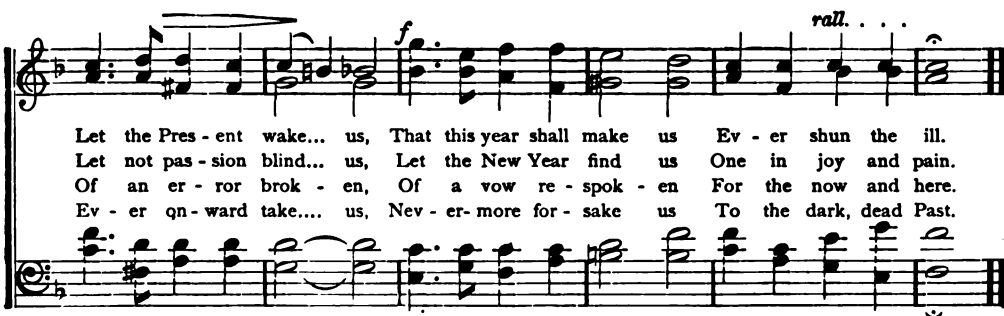
1. Hark! a doz - en sound - ing notes From a thousand thous - and throats, Fill the air with
 2. Stran - ger, broth - er, take this hand, Lest the con - cord of the land Have a note of
 3. Think, and let this day en - dure With its im - pulse warm and pure, For with min - gled
 4. And al - though this fade a - way Let us haste the com - ing day, When with dis - cord

rit. a tempo. f



joy and fill..... Ev - 'ry heart with bet - ter will, Let the past for - sake..... us.....
 clang - ing strain,... New Year's Day has come a - gain, With the old be - hind..... us.....
 hope and fear,... Ev - 'ry day be - gins a year, Let it be a tok - en.....
 all out - cast..... New Year tru - ly comes at last, That New Year shall wake..... us.....

f rall. . . .



Let the Pres - ent wake... us, That this year shall make us Ev - er shun the ill.
 Let not pas - sion blind... us, Let the New Year find us One in joy and pain.
 Of an er - ror brok - en, Of a vow re - spok - en For the now and here.
 Ev - er on - ward take.... us, Nev - er - more for - sake us To the dark, dead Past.

LUXURY, A SOCIAL STUDY.

BY M. PAUL LEROY-BEAULIEU.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

THE question of the legitimacy or the illegitimacy, the utility or the harmfulness of luxury is one that is greatly discussed. Moralists claim it in general as belonging solely to their province, and it forms for them a favorite subject. Especially was this true in antiquity. The theme is admirable for declamation; certain classic writers, as Sallust and Seneca, took delight in it, many eloquent pages in their productions being due to their righteous indignation against it.

The question, however, cannot be abandoned entirely to professors of moral teaching. Economists must take an interest in it. It has to do, not only with the precepts and rules for the right building up of life, but also with the direction which should be given, if not to the whole of production, at least to a very notable part of it, and, more than this, to the influence of certain kinds of consumption upon the distribution of wealth and upon the respective conditions of differing classes in society. We wish to examine summarily the principal elements of this complex question and to follow the analysis with a few reflections upon the use and the social function of wealth.

Not the least of the difficulties connected with the study is to define luxury exactly. Many blame it and others praise who do comprehend under this word the same objects or the same trend of life. If one opens the dictionary of the French Academy he will find under the word this definition: "Sumptuousness, excess of expense, in clothing, in furnishings, in food." The words sumptuousness and excess have themselves need to be defined in this case. The dictionary of Littré says: "*Luxury*, magnificence in clothing, in table fare, in personal property; an abundance of sumptuous things." An economist very severe upon luxury, Émile de Laveleye, wrote, "An object of luxury is

that which is at once superfluous and costly, that is to say, that which satisfies a fictitious want and has cost many days of work." And he collects upon this point a great number of quotations. But what is a fictitious want and what definite number of days' work must be devoted to an object to place it in the rank of articles of luxury?

The three definitions quoted are very loose and vague; they do not express the current, common understanding of the word. The error lies in seeking an absolute formula for a thing so relative, undulatory, and variable.

Here is a definition which we propose: Luxury consists in that part of superfluity which surpasses that which the majority of the inhabitants of a country at a given time, consider as essential, not only to the needs of existence, but to the comfort and the gratification of life: luxury, then, is a thing singularly variable and which ceaselessly extends the limits of enriched and refined society. The merit of this definition is that it guards the relative character of the object defined, allowing transformations from age to age.

To the barbarian who invaded the Roman Empire, the simple furnishings and wardrobes of the bourgeoisie or of the better working class would have seemed to abound in objects of luxury. If one should introduce to-day a shepherd of the Pyrenees or of the Alps into the home of a man having an income of four or five thousand dollars, he would deem the latter encumbered with a crowd of useless and costly objects which could procure only fictitious joys.

The idea of what constitutes luxury varies in the most striking manner according to the country, the time, and the classes of society. Every class considers as luxury the objects which fortune will not permit it to possess but which are possessed by the class above it. A fact absolutely demonstrated is that

the luxury of one epoch or of one social class tends to become, if not a necessity, at least an object of respectability for the following epoch and for the next lower social class. Civilization is characterized by the gradual, progressive generalization of the number of articles of luxury which lose thus successively this character. Every dozen years some luxuries cease to be such by their diffusion and the lowering of their price.

Ought luxury, even when made to include costly superfluities which only flatter vanity to be proscribed by political economy? Or on the other hand should economists uphold such indulgences as are evidently harmful in their tendencies? In order to judge of this question from an economic point of view it will be well to cast a glance over the historic evolution of private consumption.

Industrial progress and the development of general wealth bring into common use many articles of merchandise which at a former time were regarded as luxuries. For instance, sugar was once looked upon in this light, as were spices and coffee. Window glass for a long time passed as a luxury and for a much longer time mirrors and window curtains and carpets. Watches and clocks were luxuries of the first order. The greater number of the articles of clothing, especially stockings, slippers, handkerchiefs, ribbons, and laces have at some time been regarded as superfluities which people ought to do without. In the eighteenth century in London the use of an umbrella for rain was a proof of effeminateness, and even to-day numbers of men in summer expose themselves to a burning sun rather than to carry one; however, they have proved themselves so salutary that their use is spreading.

In the organization of the home, a dining-room distinct from the kitchen, a parlor separate from the dining room, closets divided from sleeping rooms, and, more than all else, bath rooms, have been declared useless. Meanwhile the present widespread use of these and other former superfluities or of practices formerly denounced, has singularly contributed to increase the average of life, to lessen or to prevent epidemics,

and to render certain quarters of large cities more healthful.

Whether it has its root in sensuality or in vanity, as some critics affirm, or in a love of the ideal, luxury has for an instrument of propagation the instinct of imitation in man, the desire to conform to the methods of those in higher positions, or to the sentiments which prevail in the community. Thus objects once not needed come into general use and the frontiers of luxury are constantly extended, and articles once considered useless become necessities.

It is rare that old people do not regard as unnecessary every new custom, every object with which their childhood or early life was not familiar. The character of any article of consumption ought to be judged, not by a certain fixed type, as is done of human nature in general, but in connection with the varying circumstances of position, climate, surroundings, and profession.

Luxury in primitive times was very simple. It consisted in grouping around a rich man, who was at the same time generally a man of high birth, a great number of servants who were supported by him, and in the practice of a large hospitality. Among patriarchal people there is little difference to be observed in the manner of living among all classes. Food, clothing, even furnishings varied but little.

The rich man supported numerous domestics, an extended clientage, and kept a free table. This method, at once very broad and very simple, gave him a character of affability, of benevolence, of generosity. The objects of luxury were then very limited: some fine clothes, but especially fine arms, fine horses, rich trappings. Under its debonair and familiar appearance, this patriarchal luxury had great inconveniences which are materially modified in modern life. It created and maintained legions of parasites and of idlers. This whole class of servants and of clients did no productive work and had to be sustained by the toil of others.

In the Orient such luxury is widespread. In India every one in comfortable circumstances has a great number of servants, each one of which is charged with a precise,

limited task, insufficient to occupy the day.

The same thing is found also among the Arabians, and to a certain extent it existed in Europe in the Middle Ages and even at the beginning of modern history. Under James I. an ambassador had a suite of five hundred persons, three hundred of whom were nobles. The houses of the great were palaces, not in their architectural character and decorations, but in the number of apartments or rooms for domestics of all orders. In the language and literature of the seventeenth century the word domestic had an extended meaning which embraced client and dependent. In the last century the duke of Alba had in his palace at Madrid four hundred rooms for domestics; the descendants of these domestics and their families often lived in the palace and were pensioned.

There are to be found in "*Gil Blas*" descriptions of this state of things. In Madrid there stands to-day not far from the Palace of the Cortes, the palace of the duke of Medina-Coeli, like an immense caravansary, capable of lodging a whole population of servants and dependants. Before the fire of 1812, certain palaces in Moscow contained as many as a thousand rooms for servants; and those nobles were considered poor who could not support at least twenty or thirty domestics. The enormous retinue of Polish nobles was proverbial. In Jamaica persons who owned only seven negroes were exempted from the tax on slaves. No one then accepted of any service in common with others; each great lord had his own physician, his barber, his chaplain, his musicians. In France every gentleman, even when in hard circumstances, had his footman, whom he took with him when he went to dine in the city and who served him, refusing to help any one else at table.

This primitive luxury, although it possesses the sympathy and regrets of men of letters, was absurd; it did not lead to refinement of life, it was wearisome, it only pampered selfishness, it withdrew men from production, deprived them of independence, and plunged them into idleness and vice.

Another great and useless expense of primitive times was connected with the enor-

mous festivals in which quantity rather than quality was the distinguishing trait. A German economist, Roscher, gives a description of one of these Pantagruelian feasts of history, that of the marriage of William of Orange, in 1561, when the royal groom entertained an immense number of guests, just how many is not stated, but they had with them 5,647 horses. There were consumed on that occasion 4,000 bushels of wheat, 8,000 of rye, 13,000 of oats, 3,600 hogshheads of wine, 1,600 barrels of beer. An ordinance of 1610 says that a great marriage ought not to furnish more than twenty-four nor less than fourteen tables with ten guests at each.

For the common people the equivalent of these great repasts and feasts was the kermis and the carnival. The boasted sobriety of these uncultured ages was interrupted by periodical debauches.

There were Romans under the empire, and certain oriental sovereigns who furnished the most striking and famous examples of this condemnable corruption of luxury. Two Latin quotations characterize it, one from Suetonius concerning the Emperor Caligula, "He desired nothing with such ardor as that which seemed to be impossible"; the other from Seneca, "Desires contrary to nature are the principal attraction of luxury." The houses of the wealthy Romans were immense constructions; in their service were hosts of slaves; they dressed extravagantly; but it was especially the table which was made to gratify their abnormal taste. The most bizarre and most costly dishes were sought out.

Heliogabalus fed his officers with brains of pheasants and of thrushes, the eggs of partridges, and the heads of parrots. Vessels scoured the seas in search of rare fish from which only the choicest parts would be cut in order to provide a dish of enormous expense. The actor Claudius Æsopus offered his guests once a salad made of the tongues of birds which had been trained to talk. The pearl which Cleopatra dissolved that she might drink it is celebrated. In still other ways these perversities of taste were displayed. Hor-

tensius watered his trees with wine. At a much later time the Field of the Cloth of Gold became famous for its extravagant magnificence and ostentation. This kind of luxury is degrading, harmful, and to be denounced.

But it is not from such eccentricities that the subject must be judged. Luxury, considered in general and in spite of its abuses, is one of the principal agents in human progress. Humanity owes to it nearly all of that which to-day embellishes life, a great part indeed of the ameliorations which have rendered existence more healthful. Luxury is the father of the arts. Painting, sculpture, music, could not have made such great developments and found such wide acceptance in a society which declared war against luxury.

Without doubt there is still a gross, insolent, and absurd use of luxury which seeks only to dazzle the crowd and even to humiliate it. Morality condemns this sort of triumphant impertinence. Ostentation, simply as such, merits the severity of public opinion. But it is, in general, rapidly diminishing. Luxury is growing more modest; it makes less display in public places; it feels a sort of shame which forbids it from boastfully spreading itself in open day and offending those who are debarred from its enjoyment. It does not suppress sentiments of sympathy nor works of charity. It is impossible for a judicious person to condemn this luxury, which manifests itself in good sense and good taste.

Many economists in their severity against luxury have advanced many incorrect arguments and committed gross errors. Some, as Rousseau and Montesquieu, have reasoned that if luxury did not exist society would be much better provided with useful objects: if some did not spend millions for superfluous objects, these millions would go toward purchasing more wheat, or potatoes, or common clothing: if some were not too rich none would be poor.

This reasoning is incorrect for two reasons:

(1.) A million dollars' worth of objects of luxury corresponds by no means to the sum

of human work and skill which the production of a million dollars' worth of wheat, or potatoes, or clothing would exact. There exists as to this matter an utterly false conception. That which luxury pays for is not the quantity but the quality of merchandise and of labor. For instance, an acre of land which will produce four hundred or five hundred gallons of choice wine selling at four or five dollars a gallon, would not, for the same number of days' work devoted to it, return an equal amount of money had it been planted with common vines. A skillful jeweler or engraver can earn from three to four dollars a day. If this branch of industry should be suppressed and this man should be set at work in a hardware establishment he could not earn more than one fifth or one fourth of the former amount. Thus it is an error to suppose that by suppressing luxury the money value represented by it could be devoted to the more useful objects. But this error, flagrant as it is, enters largely into the hostility against luxury.

(2.) Superficial opinion supposes that if all the arts were suppressed and all mankind should turn to the labor which would produce only the things essential to life, that there would be an ample provision of these productions for all people. The thought of the indirect consequences of this profound modification of human desires, of human life, is utterly neglected. No account is taken of the depressing, enervating influence monotony and uniformity of occupation would exert over the activity of mankind. A society in which all men did almost the same kind of work, lived in similar conditions, and had only limited needs, in which no one saw opening before him any prospects of a brighter life, would end by falling a prey to inertia and routine. Its elasticity would be diminished, it would become first a stationary then a retrograding society. It is not a paradox to contend that the suppression of luxury would cause in time a diminution in the number of necessary articles of consumption.

The stimulating action of luxury is incontestable; it shows itself in all the rounds of the social ladder. Its influence upon social

progress and the arts, upon scientific progress and literature cannot be gainsaid; great epochs, such as the Renaissance, have been epochs of luxury. Industrial progress is sometimes accomplished by individuals remarkably endowed with will power and intelligence, but who need the attraction of material gain to lure them to effort, and the most certain of all recompenses for those who are not devoted to the ideal is wealth, and wealth would lose its value if it did not command luxury. Without doubt among inventors, great contractors, and manufacturers there are men of an elevated nature whom the simple perspective of services done for humanity, for honor, for glory, would rouse to their highest efforts. But there are other energetic, capable, and ardent men, useful to economic progress, who are guided by an ideal less noble, and it is important that these men should be induced by the hope of gaining luxury to make their best efforts. In short, it may be regarded as certain that the exceptional efforts which the desire for luxury excites, materially increase the productive power of humanity even for necessary articles.

One plea for luxury is that it has introduced all the progress made in the home, in personal property, in the arts, in fruits, and flowers. The legitimate embellishment of human living gives to men the sentiment and taste of variety, and this condition excites activity in leading to a greater degree of perfection. Luxury makes to descend along the whole length of the social ladder a taste for the proprieties of life, for objects of convenience, for a greater degree of cleanliness and of health.

Certain men, who are at the same time artistic and austere, recommend that luxury be restricted to public uses, that it be employed to embellish life and to encourage the arts only in such ways as can benefit all the people, as when applied to national or communal festivals, to monuments designating general services, to the purchase of pictures and statues for free galleries and museums. Without denying that government can in a certain measure contribute to this result, it is to be feared, from the

limited opportunity we have had of judging them, that if the whole responsibility was transferred to them, they would acquit themselves of the function very insufficiently and badly. Public expenditure besides being more liable to prodigality because those who dispense it feel a very limited responsibility regarding its abuse, is subject much more than that of a private character, to infatuation and partisanship and favoritism.

A second plea in the argument is that luxury is useful in furnishing an intelligent employment for leisure. Without it, for a great part of humanity, leisure would become a source of evil. Thus pianos and all musical instruments, games and all methods of distraction, greenhouses and all collections are the products of luxury. The production of articles which add only to the enjoyment of life contributes greatly to the maintenance of domestic industries. From their very nature many of them cannot be produced mechanically in great workshops without losing their character of distinction. Thus laces, embroideries, gloves, the cutting and mounting of precious stones, paintings and decorations are frequently prepared at the home of the producer. These tasks often occupy young people and women and help to keep the rural districts from being depopulated.

Widespread luxury is useful, in the third place, as forming a reserve both for nations and for individuals, in times of necessity. This happy consequence follows especially the collection and possession of durable objects; and such possessions cannot impoverish an individual or a nation. They become a form of investment whose value time only increases.

Lastly if the rich economized and then recapitalized all that part of their revenue which was needed in providing the necessities or the simple comforts of life, they would end in building up colossal fortunes; the disparity between the different conditions of men would be greater than it is now, and it would tend constantly to increase. Thus luxury by tempting men to spend their money tends to equalize the conditions of life.

Civilization and humanity would lose infinitely by the elimination of all luxury.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

WHITE HUSBANDS AND INDIAN WIVES.

BY KATE CARNES.

A QUARTER of a century ago, when white men were first making their way beyond the Missouri River and penetrating into the great Middle West, when the Indians, rebellious and deceitful, disputed their progress at every point, it became a matter of policy and, we might say, a matter of necessity, for the traders and agents of the various fur companies to connect themselves with some of the influential families of the nation with whom they were associated.

This was accomplished by entering into marriage in accordance with the Indian custom of that day, by purchasing a wife. This enabled white men to carry on their business transactions more successfully, and in a safer way than they otherwise could have done, and gained for them also the title of "squaw men."

The girls who were thus selected were very ambitious for the connection, because, as a rule, they were exempt from the slavish duties that would have fallen to their lot as the wives of braves. They knew also they would have their vanity satisfied by robes of red or brilliant cloths, and all of the trinkets they could wish for.

Some of the wealthiest men in the West to-day were those early pioneers. Some of these same men have kept the wife and family of their youth, and used every means that money could buy, to make useful members of society of the children, but, almost without exception, in the end, mother and children return of their own accord to the mother's people. In the majority of cases the man himself, when the country began to be settled by white people, and he no longer needed the protection of this connection, sent the mother and children to the agency. So once more they became the wards of the nation after serving the schemes of white men, and we see the renewed agi-

tation of the question as to the rights of mixed bloods on the Indian reservations of the United States.

The importance of the subject has called the attention of no less an authority than the legislative bodies of our country, and in whatever manner they may decide the controversy, there remains but one just way to dispose of it. Those who are personally interested in the outcome of the problem will urge the many and far-reaching complications of any change, as good reason for practicing conservatism in the matter. Conservatism is a good thing, and the proper place to apply it in this case would seem to be in compelling the white man to support his own children the same as if the mother were an American woman or an English woman. Why has a man more right to say to the government of the United States, "My wife was an Indian and you must take my family and care for it and me, for I don't like to work," than to say the same thing to the English government because his wife was an English woman?

To-day there are on all of the reservations, white men who are resorting to any and all means to become rich through the government because their wives can claim "mixed blood." It makes no difference how far the descent is removed; and the greater number of children the families contain, the larger the amount of rations and annuities that can be drawn. So the more the educated, capable white men draw, the less some poor, decrepit old Indian man or woman can have to eat. Lucky is the old Indian who can, by any hook or crook, get the remnants of the white man's feast, thrown to him as if he were a dog, to eat from the floor of the kitchen. We may justly call him noble beside the man who has usurped his rights and takes the food from his mouth.

It is these same white men who predict that if the mixed bloods are deprived of their rights, there will be one of the bloodiest Indian wars of history. The reason is plain to be seen. "The wish is father to the thought," and undoubtedly the white man will be the one to set the ball rolling.

To most persons the Indian is regarded as a fit subject for Christian philanthropy, and so far as the real Indian is concerned he deserves the sympathies and help of the people who have so mercilessly deprived him of his natural mode of livelihood.

Certainly his rights are not being guarded by the "reservation tramp." Even the Indians have no respect for such white men as live among them. They say, "If white man want Indian wife why not he take her off the reserve to his own home, and not come to home of his wife and live on lands set apart for us Indians? If white man can come and live here because he marry Indian woman, our reservation will soon be full of tramps." The reason and common sense of the Indians surely outshine the self-respect of the reservation tramp.

THE STORY OF AN UGLY GIRL.

BY MISS E. F. ANDREWS.

IT is a serious thing to be an ugly girl; how very serious, no one can realize, except the girl herself and the anxious mother whom fate and custom have charged with the duty of marrying her off. In my case, however, there was no mother to undertake that onerous responsibility, for I was left an orphan almost from the cradle, and as for myself, I was naturally, at that time, not very keenly alive to the reprehensibility of a square chin and a too obtrusive nose. Indeed, if I had reflected upon the subject at all, my earliest experiences would probably have led me to the conclusion that the advantages of life were all on the side of the ugly girl; for while my pretty cousins, Kate and Lucy, had to suffer the daily martyrdom of getting their hair curled, and to endure no end of privations on account of their hands and their complexions, I was dismissed every morning with half a dozen strokes of the brush, and allowed to scamper over the fields all day with my sun-bonnet hanging down my back and my gloves in my pocket.

And yet, it must not be supposed that I was neglected. I had as many new frocks as my cousins, and it was not the fault of my good aunt if I could not be made to look as pretty in them as they did. Even my intractable hair, she did not give over till after many a hard struggle. The last of these, I remember well, was on the occasion

of a children's ball given by one of our little playmates on her seventh birthday. I was run down the evening before, and my hair, after a two hours' conflict, fettered and pinioned to my scalp in a way that seemed as if it must bring the most refractory tresses to order. I slept that night literally on pins, and spent the next day in a state of misery equaled only by my aunt's despair when she came to release my tortured locks and found that instead of falling over my neck in graceful ringlets, like Kate's and Lucy's, they flapped about my ears in ragged pendants, like cobwebs from a dusting brush. My hair has always been of that slippery, sleazy texture which absolutely refuses to "fluff," and so, after contending with it a long time in vain, my good aunt finally gave up the struggle, and, from that day forth, my childhood was exempt from the miseries of hair-dressing.

But time brings its revenges, and I was not long in discovering that in the great world outside the nursery, my cousins had the best of it. When our mammy took us out for a walk, or we were carried into the drawing room to be shown to visitors, I was generally passed by without notice, while Kate's and Lucy's childish heads were quite bewildered by the attentions lavished upon them. Still, it would never have occurred to me to feel myself aggrieved on that ac-

count, but for the well-meant efforts of my elders to avert such a result. My uncle would take me on his knee after the visitors had gone, and assure me with many caresses that it was a great deal better to be good than to be pretty; my aunt was always ready with a little homily, delivered in what strikes me now as an amusingly apologetic tone, upon the rewards of virtue; and finally, my old black mammy, as she trundled us off to bed, would take up the refrain, "I teclar'," folks doan treat dis heer chile wid no manners. But never you min', honey; you jes' only be good, an 't'woan mek no diffunce how you looks; putty is as putty do."

As I grew older, I was somewhat at a loss to reconcile these teachings with my own experience. At school, for instance, though I was constantly commended for my diligence and encouraged by the assurance that it was much better to be good than to be pretty, yet I noticed that on all public occasions I was kept studiously in the background, along with freckle-faced Sophia Lane and pudding-cheeked Julia Thomas, while the prominent places, with all the applause and glory attending them, were given to the pretty girls, no matter how stupid or idle they had been.

At Madame Pompom's finishing school, whither I was sent with my cousins at the age of sixteen, the superior rewards of well-doing still failed to materialize, for, while everybody professed the highest regard for virtue, I observed that the "good girls" were generally spoken of in a deprecating, apologetic sort of way, as objects of benevolence, if not compassion, and that the epithet was applied to those only who could not, by any stretch of courtesy, be described as either good-looking or clever. I seemed to fall by tacit agreement, into this class, whose virtue is left by society to find its reward in sitting against the wall and looking radiantly happy at the sight of other people enjoying themselves.

I soon learned to dread the monthly receptions which my schoolmates looked forward to with such eager anticipations, but from which I always retired with only a dismal sense of failure. After every trial I withdrew feeling more baffled and discouraged than

before, more hopeless of ever being able to attain the kind of success that gives a woman position and consideration in society; yet it never occurred to me to give over the thankless struggle and direct my energies to other fields, simply because I had never been taught that there was any other course open to me than to do as other girls of my station did.

It was with such feelings that I stepped from the small huckstery of a fashionable boarding-school into the great mart of Vanity Fair. Here I was not long in discovering that I was regarded as a mere appendage—and not always a welcome one, at that—of my pretty cousins. As is usually the case, there was a plethora of girls on the market that season, and the amount of tact expended by sagacious hostesses in getting rid of me without being supposed to wound my feelings, was only less astonishing than the obtuseness of perception which their tactics presupposed on my part. The woman of tact is a person I soon learned to hold in abhorrence, for I was not slow to discover that in her hands I fared worse than anywhere else. Indeed, the ugly girl seems to be regarded as a subject expressly provided for the woman of tact to exercise her gifts upon, and she proceeds accordingly.

It was at an entertainment given by one of these professional tacticians that I met with the experiences which brought about my final rupture with society. My dear aunt was ill that winter, so my cousins and I used to go out under the chaperonage of various friends of the family. On the occasion in question, our chaperon was a dashing young widow, who took the first opportunity to shift me off on the hands of the hostess, who in turn, adroitly switched me off into a corner where three middle-aged spinsters and a country cousin that had arrived inopportunely that very day, had been side-tracked for the evening. It is the crowning glory of the woman of tact to bring congenial people together, and she has a marvelous faculty for detecting affinities among people who are inconvenient to her, and assorting them accordingly.

Having disposed of me so satisfactorily,

the hostess left me for an hour or two in the enjoyment of the congenial society which she had provided for me, and then reappeared marshaling an unhappy youth, who proceeded to invite me to dance with such a palpable air of obeying orders, that I should have declined incontinently, if sheer desperation had not driven me rather than bear longer the ills of my present situation, to "fly to others that I knew not of."

My partner, having conscientiously performed his duty by whirling me a few times around the room, deposited me on the first vacant chair he could find, and under cover of another engagement, made good his retreat. The seat next to mine happened to be occupied by an antiquated coxcomb, who, having assisted at the launching of successive generations of *débutantes* without ever getting himself fairly afloat on the great matrimonial sea, had finally anchored close to shore, where he did good service as a sort of life-boat to matrons and maidens about to be left behind in the social swim—a rather slow sailing old hulk, it is true, but not to be despised in an emergency.

I was just considering whether it was incumbent upon me to salute this ancient relic when the little old gentleman turned to me with a look of conscious benevolence, as if bestowing an alms, and gravely inquired how I was enjoying myself. I had been too well brought up not to know that it is a girl's duty always to be radiantly happy in company, and so I tried to look as blissful as if I hadn't just overheard the hostess trying to bully her bachelor brother into taking me in to supper, and replied heroically, that I had never spent a more delightful evening.

I should have been glad to try my conversational powers on a more promising subject, for I had always felt that there was more in me than I got credit for, and from the samples of current small talk that I overheard around me, I was positive that with a fair showing, I could more than meet the highest requirements of society in that respect. But I never had the happy faculty of pushing myself, and it is one of the misfortunes of the ugly girl that she is supposed to be so grateful for attention from any

quarter, that it is not necessary to be very particular about providing her with pleasant partners. At any rate, I was so accustomed to having all the tiresome people that everybody else wanted to get rid of, thrust upon me, that instead of cultivating such powers as I may have possessed, I had early acquired the convenient habit of appearing deeply interested in what people were saying to me while permitting my thoughts to wander at will.

This was very easy to do when my companion, as on the present occasion, happened to be very fond of hearing himself talk; I had but to set him going on his favorite theme, assume an expression of rapt attention, throw in an occasional "Indeed!" or "You don't say so!" and trouble myself no more about him. Accordingly, while I was, to all appearance, hanging with bated breath upon the thrilling story of the past triumphs of my ancient Adonis, my attention was occupied with a conversation between two gentlemen on the veranda who had stationed themselves just outside the window near which I was sitting, and were apparently amusing themselves with a quiet survey of what was going on within.

"And yet, they must be credited with a degree of patient endurance that, in a better cause, would be sublime," said a voice which I did not recognize, although the speaker was separated from me only by the light drapery of the open window. "Look at that girl over there by the piano, for instance," continued the voice, "who has that idiot, McMasters, in tow; I was introduced to him in Haskell's office the other day, and positively, his cranium wouldn't average an ounce of brains to the square foot; yet she is hanging upon his words as if they were the utterances of inspiration."

I felt my face turn red, as I reflected how well this description fitted me, and but for the allusion to McMasters and the piano, I might have fancied it intended for me, if the voice had not added;

"She is a pretty girl, too, and looks as if she ought to have better sense."

"It is you that ought to have better sense, my innocent," answered a cynical voice that

I recognized as belonging to Dr. Vanever, one of the leading physicians of the city, unmarried, and noted for his hard and drastic tongue. "When you have seen a little more of the world, you will understand that a level-headed girl who has watched the fluctuations of the matrimonial market through four seasons, knows that she can't afford to slight even such small operators as McMasters and Co., until she has secured her bid."

"You irreverent pagan!" cried the first voice. "You talk as if the emancipated American woman of whom we hear so much now-a-days, were no better than a Turkish slave."

"That fetish of your imagination doesn't exist, in good society," replied Dr. Vanever in a mocking tone. "Independence is very bad form here, my dear fellow. To the well-regulated society girl but one career is open, and competition in that has become so severe that a girl's matrimonial campaign is often as hotly contested as a city ward election. The mother is the 'boss,' who does all the wire-pulling, while her candidate takes the field and openly bids for supporters; or, to speak more accurately, for a support."

The stranger answered something which I did not catch, as my companion had just then reached the catastrophe in the fate of his ninth victim, a beautiful heiress who, in a fit of rage and despair, had thrown herself away, some twenty years ago, upon a western railroad president, and I felt constrained to utter the expected ejaculations of sympathy, coupled with a mild rebuke of the captivating naughtiness which had wrought such woe. By the time my Don Juan had gotten fairly under way with the history of No. 10, so that I could give my undivided attention to the conversation outside, the doctor had again taken up the word.

"You and I have our professions," he was saying, our business and political interests, our scientific and literary pursuits, or, at the worst, our dogs and horses to fall back upon, so that matrimony is not a prime necessity with us, but among the Four Hundred, it's a woman's only chance, and if she misses that, she is out of a job for life."

H-Jan.

"It's her own fault if she is," the stranger broke in warmly. "Nobody, man or woman, has the right ever to be out of a job in a world like this, where there is so much vice and ignorance to be combatted, so much suffering and misery to be relieved, and I see no reason why women, any more than men, should be so self-centered as to find no happiness outside the narrow circle of their own personal interests and affections. If the doors of the home happen to be closed against a woman, there is work enough for her to do, God knows, in the great human family—better and nobler work than running down some fool like McMasters and transmitting his unfitness and incompetence to posterity."

"Come, come, my youthful moralist, you are getting serious and sophomorical," said the doctor, with a low laugh. "Let's go to the dining-room; a deviled crab or a shrimp salad will put you in harmony with your environment once more."

They moved away as he spoke, and I neither saw nor heard anything more of them during the evening, but the stranger's words had made a lasting impression on my mind. They seemed to fit my case so exactly that I wondered it had never occurred to me before, what a senseless failure I was making of life. Why should I wear myself out night after night by going to places where I was not wanted, and forfeit my self-respect by bidding for attentions which, after all, were no less a burden to the receiver than to the giver? It was clear that I was not framed for social success; why then should I waste my energies in a vain pursuit of it when there were other fields in which I might be not only successful, but useful and happy?

My resolution was taken and acted upon so promptly that a few minutes later, when the hostess appeared with a reluctant consent in custody, to whom she had assigned the duty of taking me in to supper, I politely declined the invitation, under the pretext that I was not feeling well, and would go home at once, if the young gentleman would be good enough to have my uncle's carriage called.

From this time I refused all invitations and quietly dropped out of society, which

was thus relieved of the burden of providing for at least one atom of that superfluous femininity which encumbers every invitation list and overflows perennially in ladies' lunches and afternoon teas. As I was not of much importance anyway, nobody concerned herself about me after the first ripple of curiosity had subsided. As I was never known to have had a love affair, the usual theory of a "disappointment" would not meet the case, and so it was finally settled that I was writing a novel, the natural resource of young women with nothing to do.

This surmise, it is needless to say, was entirely without foundation. I have never, even in my callowest days, written so much as a line of poetry, nor offered an article of any kind for publication, but as I am naturally a diffident person, and not at all given to blowing my own trumpet, I have never enjoyed the distinction to which I should be entitled were this fact generally known.

As I had received only the conventional education of a young woman destined to move in the best society, my poor little smattering of accomplishments would hardly serve to provide any rational being with a respectable interest in life, so I naturally fell into the routine of household duties that had been left vacant by the continued ill health of my aunt, and sank down, without a struggle, into the homely sphere of plain, stupid usefulness for which nature seemed to have designed me.

Home-making is as much of a fine art in its way as poetry or painting, and in making the life of those I loved beautiful and happy I found full satisfaction for my intellectual and esthetic instincts, as well as for my affections. I gave little thought to the old life of conventionalism and constraint from which I had escaped, except as faint echoes of its turmoil reached me through my cousins and their associates. Now and then I was pressed into service to fill a vacancy at a whist table or round out a party at lawn tennis, or to insure the success of private theatricals by taking the insignificant parts that no one else would have, but these social functions were of too rare occurrence to disturb seriously the even tenor of my way.

About the time of my withdrawal from the social arena, I used to hear my cousins make frequent mention of a certain Dr. Ashmore, a recent arrival in the city, whose eccentricities were the subject of endless comment and no little ridicule in their set. I confess that their criticism surprised me somewhat, for I knew that the young man in question had come to fill an important position which had been tendered him in the medical college, and I had heard our family physician say that he was one of the coming lights of the profession. And yet, my cousins and their friends seemed to regard him as an insufferable bore. The chief indictment against him appeared to be that he was "a crank," in proof of which it was related of him that when driving one evening with the reigning belle of the season, they had come upon a lame calf in a fence corner, and he had left the lady sitting alone in the middle of the road for full fifteen minutes while he took a pocket lance and cut something out of the animal's foot. It was also told of him that on Christmas Day, happening to pass the spot where a woman of the town, in a state of beastly intoxication, had fallen from the platform of an electric car and got her arm broken, he had taken her in his buggy, as the ambulance was slow in arriving, and driven with her through the open streets, in broad daylight, to the hospital.

In short, I heard so much of the "cranky" doctor, as he was called, that I began to feel a good deal of curiosity concerning him, but as I had got out of the habit of going to the drawing room when visitors called, I did not meet him until circumstances thrust us into each other's society in a way as unexpected as it was evidently, to him, at least, unwelcome.

My uncle had a plantation in the "piney woods" to which the family usually repaired for a few weeks in the early spring, when society was utilizing the Lenten pause to recuperate its forces for the summer campaign. His sons, Frank and George, remained in the city on account of business, but would come out every Friday or Saturday evening and stay with the family till Monday. They usually brought a party of

men friends with them, and as Kate and Lucy kept the house full of their friends, these visits were the occasion of a round of festivities, which generally took the form of excursions to various places of interest in the neighborhood.

Of course it was essential to have none but agreeable people on expeditions of this kind, where the parties were thrown together for a whole day, and Frank and George received explicit instructions beforehand as to whom they were to bring out with them each week. George had more than once suggested Dr. Ashmore's name, but the girls always objected, and I believe there was a sort of tacit understanding that he was never to make one of the party.

The railroad ran within a few rods of the house, and we could easily recognize the guests as they alighted from the train. One day, as I was in the library engaged in fitting a new cushion to my uncle's easy chair, while the rest of the family were on the piazza, watching the arrival of the incoming train, I heard a low murmur of dissatisfaction from the ladies as the guests began to alight, and Lucy's voice complained pettishly,

"How stupid of George to go and bring that tiresome Dr. Ashmore here, after all!"

At the mention of Dr. Ashmore's name curiosity got the better of me, and I went to the window. I know it is vulgar to peek, reader, just as well as you do, but I turned the blinds all the same, just as you would have done, no doubt, under the circumstances, and took a good look at the intruder, as he came up the front steps with George. I saw a man of medium size, with a pleasant, though not handsome face, and a slight awkwardness of manner that appeared to proceed rather from diffidence than from want of breeding.

He was hospitably received, as befitted the reputation of my uncle's house, Lucy declaring in a tone of melting sweetness, that it was "so nice of him to come," while Kate protested with her blandest smile,

"Why, Doctor, this is quite the greatest triumph of the season, to have drawn you away from that odious hospital!"

But the doctor had no sooner retired with

the other gentlemen to brush away the dust of the journey and get himself into dinner dress, than Kate and Lucy, supported by a chorus of protests from the other ladies, proceeded to make things warm for their offending brother. George retreated from the piazza to the hall, from the hall to the drawing room, and was finally brought to bay in the library by the rosy mob at his heels. One declared that Dr. Ashmore had no more conversation than a cat; another objected that he always made her think of the dissecting room, and all agreed that he was just one too many.

The excursion planned for the next day was a drive of twelve miles to Cypress Bend, a beautiful, crescent-shaped lake in the Ogeechee bottom, bordered by magnificent cypress and magnolia trees, and a famous place for fishing. The party had all been paired off, each lady with her escort, and there was no place for Dr. Ashmore anywhere, Lucy declared emphatically, unless George proposed to take him in the fly. But George had quite other designs regarding the vacant seat in the fly, and was proceeding to demonstrate to Lucy the unreasonableness of her suggestion, when he paused as if struck by a sudden inspiration, and coming over to the corner where I was at work, laid his hand caressingly on my shoulder.

"I have it, I have it!" he exclaimed; "Ashmore shall go with Elizabeth in the dog cart; won't you take him, Bess? You are the only one of the whole gang that has got sense enough to appreciate him, anyway."

I was used to these flattering expressions of regard from George whenever he had a favor to ask, so I was not at all overpowered by the compliment, and was about to reply with a heartless refusal, when George's suggestion was taken up by the chorus and urged with such vigor as to leave me no chance to get in a word of protest. It seemed to strike everybody as such a happy solution of the difficulty that finally, moved partly by a good-natured desire to help George out of a scrape, and partly out of pure compassion for a fellow-creature whose case, in some respects, so closely resembled my own, I consented to sacrifice myself for

the general good by taking the inopportune guest on my hands. I was rather glad of an opportunity to visit the Bend, anyway, as I wanted to get some specimens of a lotus that grew there for my aquarium; and even if my escort should prove something of a bore, I knew, from past experience, that I was not likely to be troubled with his attentions after reaching our destination. I was confirmed in this opinion when I observed, as we were setting out next morning, the unmistakable look of disappointment that passed over his features on discovering that I was to be his companion. He was too well bred, however, to betray his feelings consciously, and quickly swallowing his chagrin, he said, pleasantly, as he assisted me into the cart,

"Well, Miss Davison, what is to be the program after we reach Cypress Bend? You must instruct me, for I have been so given over to hard work during the last three years that I have almost forgotten how to be amused."

"That is just my case," I replied, "or rather, I have never learned how to enjoy myself in the conventional way, and so I have given up the job, and never go where it is my duty to be amused, unless driven, as it were, at the point of the bayonet."

I didn't wish to be rude, but I was determined to let my reluctant cavalier understand, even at the risk of being brusque, that our present relation was not of my seeking. When you have undertaken to be civil to a man from purely philanthropic motives, it is not very soothing to have the object of your benevolence knock the pins of your complacency from under you by tacitly assuming the rôle of victim, and so I think I may be pardoned if my reply was prompted by secret resentment at the unconscious protest with which he had accepted my companionship. The shaft did not miscarry, and he colored visibly as he replied,

"I see that you don't intend to spoil me with flattery, and as we have a drive of twelve miles before us," he added good-naturedly, "and you can't possibly get rid of me for the next two hours, I must confess to a lively interest in knowing what are your usual methods of dealing with an obnoxious

individual who has been thrust upon you at the point of the bayonet."

Having sufficiently vindicated my dignity, I had no desire to continue hostilities, so I answered with a conciliatory smile,

"Oh, you needn't be alarmed; I have no intention of crossing bayonets with you, though I must charge you with having made a most unfair application of my words in taking them to yourself. I rather think society in general was the obnoxious individual referred to, and it is I, not you, that has been thrust upon it at the point of the bayonet."

"And what cause of quarrel have you with society?" he asked, glancing under my hat with a look of amused curiosity. "People don't usually discover how wicked the world is until they have been soured by age and disappointment."

"Oh, the matter is simple enough," I replied, laughing; "a mere case of mild incompatibility, with no harrowing tale of blighted hopes or wrecked aspirations to make it interesting. I merely discovered, after a very short experience, that my mission was not to shine in society, and so I betook my talents, such as they are, to a more modest sphere, where people are not required to shine, but only to be useful. Anyone can be useful, you know, who will condescend to anything so commonplace, and nobody," I added, adopting, unconsciously, the words of the stranger that had so impressed me, "need ever be out of a job, in a world like this, where there is so much vice and ignorance to be combatted, so much suffering to be relieved."

I stopped suddenly, wondering how I had come to make such a long speech, all about myself. Dr. Ashmore looked hard at me for a moment, and then asked, with an abruptness that seemed almost rude,

"Do you know Dr. Vanever?"

"Yes—that is, I have seen him," I replied, remembering that the acquaintance was limited to a formal introduction which the doctor had never sought to improve. "But why do you ask?"

"Because something you said just now reminded me of a conversation I had with

him, about a year ago, on my first arrival in —. He took me with him one evening to a reception at Mrs. Crawford's and it was while standing on the piazza, amusing ourselves by watching the company through an open window, that a conversation occurred between us which your words just now recalled so vividly that if I had not happened to remember the circumstance clearly, it would have passed for one of those inherited experiences that used to strike people as so mysterious and uncanny."

It was my turn to start now. This, then, was the man whose voice had come to me out of the darkness with a message of deliverance; this the glorious white swan that the silly ducklings of the social millpond had been taking for a goose because he could not quack as they did!

My curiosity and interest were now aroused to the highest pitch, but not caring to give myself away, I turned the conversation into a different channel by stammering out some platitude about Dr. Vanever's antipathy to women.

"He carries the only talisman that can protect a man against the charms of your sex," answered my companion, "the memory of a pure and devoted love."

Again I looked up in surprise. "I should never have thought of him as the hero of a love story," I exclaimed, "after all the abominable things I have heard him say about women. But tell me the story," I continued. "I should really like to know if it is possible for such a man to love anything but himself."

"He has given the best of proof that is possible," said Dr. Ashmore, in a low and earnest voice, "by his constancy and devotion to the memory of the dead. By the way," he added, as if not caring to continue the subject further, "can you explain why it is that we so much more frequently find men faithful to the memory of their sweethearts than to that of their wives? You will find a dozen bachelors who have renounced all women for the sake of a lost love, to one widower who has proved constant to the memory of a dead wife. And, in fact, we all seem to take the bereavements of lovers much

more to heart than those of married people."

"That," I replied, "is probably because we feel that the lover has really sustained the greater loss. No human being can ever, by any possibility, be all that a lover's fancy has painted. After the honeymoon, a husband or wife is but a mortal, at best, with all a mortal's limitations, but in the grave of the lover are buried all life's hopes, all its illusions, all its possibilities; and these, after all, are the best things that most lives have to offer."

"I didn't suspect you were such a philosopher," he answered, looking into my face with an expression of surprise, not unmixed with interest, "but I believe you are right. The lover embodies our dreams and hopes, which are always beautiful; the husband or wife their necessarily more or less imperfect or disappointing realization. I suppose it was some notion of this sort that led Goethe to substitute the frail Clara for Egmont's wife in the play, and to transform his hero from a sober middle-aged gentleman, the prosaic father of a numerous family, into a dashing and reckless young dare-devil."

It was pleasant to have him agree with me, and I was sorry when he interrupted the conversation, at this point, by gently checking the horse, and placing the reins in my hand, while, without a word of explanation, he got down, and began to examine the animal's feet. "I thought so," he said, as he finished his investigation and resumed his seat at my side. "The shoe of the left hind foot is about to come off; I suppose there is no chance to get it mended hereabouts?" he added, with an interrogative glance under my hat.

"The railroad crossing at Gopher Hill is only half a mile off," I replied, "and I think there is a smith there, though whether he is equal to the exertion of working on Saturday is an open question."

To Gopher Hill accordingly, we directed our way. It lay a little to the right of our course, and we turned into one of those half trodden by-roads that penetrate the woods everywhere in the pine region, and are con-

structed by the simple expedient of winding in and out around stumps and fallen trees until you "get there." The wind was murmuring in drowsy whispers through the pines, whose filmy shadows rested on the white sandy road like the pattern in a scarf of tenuous lace. Atamasco lilies, pink and white, nodded to each other in the soft April sunshine; clumps of brilliant azaleas relieved the somber green of brake and wire-grass, while a sweet piney fragrance filled the air and made one feel like opening one's mouth wide to take in long drafts of it. Then came a clearing, and a long lane, bordered on either hand by a straggling rail fence, announced our approach to the "thriving little city," as the newspapers say, of Gopher Hill.

It was near train time, and the entire population, including the blacksmith, was gathered on the little wooden platform in front of the depot waiting to see the "cyars" pass. Not until this, the one ripple in the sluggish current of their daily lives, had swept by could we hope to find our man ready to return to his smithy and do our job for us. Even then the forge had to be lighted up, for the fire had gone out while he was loafing around the station, and as he went about his preparations with a deliberateness that did not promise a speedy accomplishment of the task, we decided to accept his invitation to go into the house and "set down," till the work was finished.

The man's dwelling was a squatty double-log-cabin just across the road from the smithy. There were half a dozen women in calico bonnets sitting in the open passage between the chambers of the cabin, and a litter of tow-headed children tumbling over each other like young puppies, in the bit of sandy space before the door. An elderly woman arose at our approach, and without removing the snuff stick from her mouth, invited us each to "take a cheer and set down."

I had scarcely taken my seat when my attention was attracted by a pitiful wail from a little bundle of red calico in the arms of a young woman sitting on the opposite side of the entry. As she shifted the burden to her other arm, and by way of soothing, began to

shake it violently, like a bottle of medicine before being taken, there rolled out of the bundle a little weazened face whose look of patient suffering at once attracted the young physician's notice.

"Your baby seems to be ill," he said, turning to the woman with a tenderness and sympathy in his manner that struck me as very beautiful.

"Hit 's a teethin'," said the elderly woman who had first met us, speaking for the mother. "Hit 's always ben puny, an' I keeps a tellin' Veriny she 'll lose that there baby ef she don't look out."

"Well, maw, hain't I ben a doin' of ever'thing I knows how?" returned the young mother, in a feebly querulous tone.

"What have you done for her?" inquired the doctor, kindly.

"I've rubbed 'er gums three times with the fresh brains of a young rabbit, like Granny Lawson told me to, an' I give her a bait er good strong coffee three times a day," responded Veriny, with the proud consciousness of one who feels that she has done her whole duty.

A slight spasm passed over the doctor's features upon hearing of this remarkable regimen, but he made no comment, except to say, in his quiet, friendly way:

"Perhaps the child's gums need lancing; will you let me examine them?"

He took the poor little dirty, ill-favored bundle in his arms as tenderly as if it had been an infant princess, and after carefully examining the child's gums, the mother making no objection, felt in his pocket for a lancet. A sharp, shrill cry of pain, and then the little tired head rolled confidently back on the young man's arm and the cry gradually died away into a soft, cooing murmur of ease and contentment.

"There, I think that will do," he said gently, as he returned the little invalid to its mother, "but you must be more careful about your baby's diet; don't give her any more coffee, nor anything but milk until she gets well."

"I can't git no milk," drawled the mother, "our cow 's done gone dry."

"Perhaps some of the neighbors could

let you have a little," I suggested, and instinctively drew out my purse. Dr. Ashmore divined my purpose, and before I could open it, he caught my hand in his own, and forced it back into my pocket.

"No, none of that," he whispered, in a tone of authority. "If you could teach these poor creatures how to make a basin of broth, or a decent loaf of bread, that would be something to the purpose, but don't degrade them with your charity; they have the right to be above that."

I couldn't help smiling as I thought how little his *protégés* would have thanked him for championing their cause after that fashion, but I felt that he was right, nevertheless, and far from taking offense at his authoritative manner toward myself, I rather liked it; in fact, most women, I think, like to be bossed a little by the right kind of a man. It is one of the hereditary weaknesses resulting from ages of subjection, that the most advanced of us have not yet quite got rid of. But I was a little put out that he should think me, as he evidently did, incompetent to make a bowl of broth, and so I rejoined promptly,

"Well, I should like very much to teach them, if we had the time."

"Should you?" he exclaimed, with a look of pleased surprise. "Then we will take the time, and begin a work of practical philanthropy more valuable than endowing a college, or founding a hospital. For I have a strong suspicion," he continued, with a low laugh, "that bad cooking is responsible for a larger share of human depravity than George Pullman or the tariff. But do you really mean to say that you know how to prepare a dish of beef tea, or a chicken broth?" he added, eyeing me with a look of polite incredulity.

"You shall judge of that for yourself," I answered; "but to follow Miss Leslie's advice in her famous recipe for broiled hare, we must first get our hen."

There was a brood of half grown chickens running about the yard, and while a young whelp from the human litter already referred to, was dispatched, with the consent of the woman of the house, to capture one of them,

I resurrected an old kettle from a corner of the jamb in one of the rooms, and suggested that it would be well to have boiling water ready to scald the chicken when killed.

The woman of the house rose lazily from her chair, shuffled across the entry to the shelf where the water bucket stood, and looked in.

"Ther ain't no water here," she said, tilting the bucket in proof of her assertion, and resumed her seat, as if there was an end of the matter.

"Send one of the boys to fetch some, then," I answered.

The woman hesitated, shifted her snuff mop from one side of her mouth to the other, then calling to a ragged urchin who was observing the situation from behind a gourd vine that covered one end of the open pass-way, directed him to go and fetch some water.

"I'se got a so'e toe," objected the young hopeful appealed to, without budging from his post, except to make good his claim to the proud distinction by advancing for my inspection a very dirty great toe bound up in a very dirty cotton rag. The mother looked around helplessly, and then, at my direction, appealed to another of her promising brood.

"John Hinry Washin'ton, cain't you go an' git some water fur the lady?"

But John Hinry Washin'ton made his title clear to a flourishing case of "ground eech" in both feet, and his elder sister, recognizing in all such drudgery only a normal phase of the "woman's sphere" in which her life had always revolved, was about to discharge the errand as a matter of course, when Dr. Ashmore, who talks very little about chivalrous regard for the weaker sex, and holds quite shockingly radical notions about the "sphere," quietly settled the matter by going and drawing the water himself.

The next step was to get our chicken picked and cleaned, and while one of the women was dispatching that job, I made ready to boil the broth. This was not so simple an undertaking as might be supposed, for not only had every utensil to be scrubbed before it was fit for use, but there were none

of the appliances of civilized cookery at hand.

It was late in the afternoon when we joined the rest of our party at Cypress Bend. They were just finishing dinner, and received us with a lot of foolish chaff, which, strange to say, seemed to amuse my companion immensely. Instead of taking the first decent pretext to get rid of me, he lingered persistently at my side, and seemed really hurt at my well-meant efforts to relieve him of my society. In fact, I appeared all at once, to have become an object of general interest, a position so novel to me that I hardly knew what to make of myself. The gentlemen of the party, who had usually exerted themselves so assiduously to keep out of my way, now began to vie with each other in their attempts to usurp Dr. Ashmore's place at my side—so much a matter of mere fashion and

precedent is the homage that men pay women. It was almost as if the touch of some fairy hand had suddenly made me beautiful; and yet I know there could have been no real change in me, for six months later, as I was walking down the aisle of the church, leaning on the arm of the man into whose keeping I had just given my life, I overheard a guest in one of the pews say to her neighbor:

"Well, well, who would have thought that that ugly Elizabeth Davison would be married before either of her pretty cousins?"

"Yes," answered the other, "and married so well; what do you suppose he could have seen in her?"

I didn't hear the rest, but I leave the question to you, reader, what do you suppose he could have seen in me?

SNOWFLAKES AND SNOWFALLS.

BY REINHARD E. PELERMANN.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UESER LAND UND MEER."

EVER since Scoresby the whale-catcher betook himself to making observations on the form of snow crystals, of which he described several of the principal forms, it has been a pleasant pastime for old and young, to verify these observations. This may best be done by placing outside the window a pane of black glass in an almost horizontal position but tipping up a little toward the window frame. By this means every flake may be distinctly seen on the glass and its details studied without the necessity of opening the window.

It will be easily discovered that individual flakes are not uniform either in form or size. Snow falling sparsely in strong frosts shows charming hexagonal stars, very small, among which are found feathery miniature staves and needlelike forms; that falling in relatively warmer weather and in great quantities, consists principally of large flakes, which look like a thick blanket of little stars and feathers. These by frequent thawing in the air have partly lost their crystal form, consolidating into an amorphous mass.

But how came the flakes to exist?

When a stratum of air contains as much moisture as at the then prevailing temperature it can hold in gaseous form, every fresh accession of moisture and every cooling causes a part of the gaseous moisture to condense, which is the first step in its transition from its gaseous condition to the various other forms of which it is capable.

If subjected to frost at this point the finest ice needles are formed; if to temperatures above zero, compact water balls are formed, each one of which consists of a liquid kernel in a fine film surrounded by a thick gaseous envelope rich in oxygen. This envelope assists the slight film to contain the drop in suspense, but effects the separation of the molecules in the fluid kernel, which consequently does not freeze when the temperature sinks farther below zero. These water balls retain their "supercooled" or fluid condition until on the verge of becoming ice granules. At this moment because the intensity of the electrical charge engendered in the process of condensation is greater in

the larger of these little bodies, a larger drop attracts to itself a smaller one, and now the "supercooled" drop whose film has thereby been broken, freezes into a little ice needle. The remaining liquid drop and the ice needle by freezing together form a hailstone.

If the ice needle is very small in proportion to the water drop, the latter surrounds the needle entirely and there is formed a larger ice ball, on which other drops spread out concentrically, giving the hailstone its well known onion-peel structure. If on the other hand the water globule is very small in comparison to the needle, the water freezes on the needle's prominent projections, from which the electrical attraction is chiefly given off, and these projections are eventually increased till they become the rays of which the simple snowflake seems made up.

The flakes once formed fall with different degrees of rapidity, the larger ones falling more quickly than the smaller ones, which they thus overtake. Moreover the wind drives the flakes against each other, causing a mechanical massing of flakes, while, on the other hand, the strata of air passed through cause a continual freezing together of new drops of water and films. Thus the thinner the snowing clouds and the poorer in moisture the strata of air passed by the flakes, the smaller and sharper the crystals that come to the earth, while, conversely, from thick, huge clouds and in air rich in moisture very large snowflakes fall.

In the polar regions as well as in winter on our high mountains, fine, dustlike snow is found almost exclusively, because the temperature being very low the absolute moisture content of the air is at a minimum. On that account in ocean climates, for example in Scotland and Norway, where the Gulf Stream and southwest winds even in winter bring a noticeable amount of moisture into the air, often when the mercury stands below zero snow falls in large flakes, so that these lands as well as those on the Baltic Sea and the Arctic Ocean bordering north Russia must be described as the snowiest regions on the earth.

The quantity of snow that falls should not be confounded with the amount that

stays on a place. In dry and cold Siberia there are regions where in spite of small snowfalls, snow continues uninterrupted from November till May, because the temperature never rising above zero allows no thawing and hence evaporation but not melting can take place. For that reason Norway often has gigantic quantities of snow—subsequent rains and thaws melt it again on the coasts, but in the mountains a low temperature co-operates with a strong snowfall so that the winter snow accumulation suffices to feed those immense glaciers and ice seas on the high plateaus of Scandinavia.

The snowfalls of those regions being violent and heavy, the flakes, in consequence of their mechanical increase in size while falling, often attain a huge size. In Germany in mild weather when the snow falls heavy individual flakes are found two centimeters in length. Yet these are small in comparison to those Madame Lowe in Chepton measured on January 7, 1887, which, at 0.3° Celsius, were nine centimeters in length and containing sixteen drops of water each.

As is known, in cities snow retains its whiteness only a short time. Immediately after it falls there begins a gradual precipitation of soot and dust. These black particles absorb sunbeams and becoming warmed melt a place about them in the snow, into which they gradually sink. Observed with a microscope snow surfaces of this character show hundreds of fantastic forms and between them gape as many clefts, down which sinks the thaw water, the entire snow deposit being cut by little canals that are frozen again by the night's frost. Meanwhile the thaw water dissolves the mass from below—a process which by rapidly lessening the thickness of the snow deposit, effects the so-called "settling" of the snow.

The volume of the deposit is further lessened by evaporation at the surface which is facilitated by these perforations; for the more cut-up the snow is the more surface it offers for the sun and warm winds to act upon. Hence a coating of soot and dust hastens the melting away of the snow.

Larger bodies, naturally, work on the same principle as the little soot particles.

For instance, dead leaves dig themselves graves in the snow and promote the melting.

In dense woods where the snow always continues longer than in the open, its demolition frequently is promoted by an element one would least suspect, the frost.

This covers every branch, often inch thick, and lends groups of trees or parts of the forest seen from a little distance, a magically beautiful appearance of silver filigree on a white background. The frost is purely white to begin with, but while lying thick in numberless crystals on every bough, it takes up a great share of the powder that covers the bark, and as soon as a thaw sets in, it falls suddenly and lies a gray, almost black, mass on the white snow.

Thus we see that in the country as well as in the city there are many factors which assist heat in its work of melting and evaporating the snow. As, however, all the factors that may be considered as favoring this work always act in conjunction with heat, the question naturally arises, whether it

is not possible to represent by figures the amount of heat the air of a certain region must give up to melt its winter's snow. Unfortunately only partial records exist on this point, among them that by Dr. Assman on the great snowfall in Germany from the nineteenth to the twenty-first of December, 1886. The snow falling at that time was estimated to be twenty-four thousand million quintals, to melt which artificially would have required a quantity of coal double that consumed yearly by England.

Such an expenditure of heat for a single snowfall in one country may give some suggestion of how much heat it takes yearly to melt the snows of winter throughout the world, and a moment's thought easily induces the conclusion that snow is an important cooling agent; moreover Wolikoff has demonstrated that in nearly all regions where severe winters prevail the severity is increased by a continuous covering of snow. Yet while snow detracts from the warmth of the air, like a blanket it hinders radiation of heat from the ground.

THE SENSIBLE VIEW OF MATRIMONIAL ENGAGEMENTS.

BY LUCY BARNARD COPE.

THE marriage contract is made by the parties to it privately, as a rule, and ratified by them publicly through what we call the marriage ceremony. Both the contract and the ceremonial sealing of it are of highest importance. It is perfectly safe to say that a high regard for the sanctity of everything connected with marriage is the best evidence of a sound civilization.

We hear a good deal now-a-days of the discussion raised by the question: Is marriage a failure? But there is only one side to the subject. True marriage cannot be a failure; for it inevitably brings happiness to the contracting parties. Men and women may make a mockery and a sham of marriage; that is they may destroy our most sacred institution by defying its spirit and purpose; but marriage means a perfect mating of the sexes and if it is that it cannot be a failure.

What then is the sensible view of marriage engagements? Too many young people, it is to be feared, are taught or permitted to think that when they approach the point of promising themselves in this important connection they have but to anticipate the trousseau and the honeymoon tour. The young woman dreams only of how many beautiful robes shall be hers and the young man of how much show he shall make with his beautiful bride. To some degree marriage is a failure when the contracting parties do not fairly comprehend its significance and its far-going influence. Parents are largely to blame if their children, and especially their daughters, come up in ignorance of the true basis of life, which is the healthy, happy family relations. What we call domestic life is really the whole of life: for morals, economics, and aspirations have their

roots in the homes of the people. What is taught in the home crops out in the halls of legislation, in the pulpit, in the public utterances of presidents, judges, and senators; and at the bottom is marriage.

When a young man and a young woman come to consider the matrimonial engagement, then, it is for them to regard it with a vision cleared of all rose-mists and passion-dust. Love is a very ductile and flexible word; but duty is superbly rigid. Passion has a strong call; but too often a very short one. At the end of every consideration true happiness should be visible; and after all true happiness never stands on unsubstantial footing. The spiritual and the material enter into its composition; and what at first glance would appear sordid is often its chief ingredient.

In the home and in the school safety demands that young people shall be taught true worldly wisdom without being over-weighted with the importance of mere worldly success. The matrimonial contract, or engagement, must not be looked upon as indissoluble; it is but the preliminary promise. It ought to be final and sacred between the parties could it be adequately considered before it is made; but it is far better to break a matrimonial engagement than to enter into an unfortunate marriage. The best theory of divorce is that it should precede the marriage ceremony. An ounce of preventive is here worth the whole catalogue of cures. Young people ought to dread breaking an engagement, therefore they should not make it without the clearest understanding of all the probable consequences, but whenever circumstances demand a reconsideration of a promise there must be no shrinking from the face of duty.

The mother and the daughter should be on such terms with each other that no barrier of hesitancy or of doubt can rise between them when it becomes necessary to discuss the daughter's interests touching a possible matrimonial engagement. Experience is the mother's monitor. What life has taught the matron can be of golden value to the inexperienced girl fluttering on the brink of a great dazzling sea of mystery. The fasci-

nation of the unknown should be made to give place to the simple and solid attraction of ascertained truth.

When we make contracts in ordinary business matters we are very careful to know that the persons contracting with us are honest at heart and able to comply with the stipulations. Character is regarded as the best security in commercial negotiations; but character is hard to prove. Reputation is next to character. Good repute joined to ability to perform makes the solid basis of sound business transactions. Why should a promise to marry rest upon a weaker security than a mere mercantile agreement?

When a young man says to a young woman: "I desire to make you happy during all the rest of your life," the first inquiry should be, Can this young man make me happy? What has he to make me happy with? In a twinkling every consideration of true social and domestic economy arises like an interrogation point. In the distance is the home he is to provide, the income he is to command. Are these sordid thoughts? Not if they are reasonable in their demands. How can there be made a true marriage contract without counting upon home, children, and all of the domestic surroundings as a part of the subject matter?

The sensible view of matrimonial engagements is a prospective one; it comprehends an immense future distance and compasses all that sociology can rightly mean. The promise to marry is no light breath of present impulse; generations of world-controllers are to take from it the strength or the weakness which shall give character to civilization. It is a noble or ignoble promise according to what is its consideration; and every healthy soul must feel what the consideration should be. It is three-fold: The propagation of a strong, hearty, courageous, and righteous race of men and women; the perpetuation of that lofty aim which has always been the ideal of the pure and the good; the progressive elevation of the human character. These three elements combine in every true marriage and without due consideration of them there can be no perfectly wise view of the engagement to marry.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

POLITICAL AND RELIGIOUS REFORM IN CITIES.

WE have been greatly agitated over state elections, the silver question, the tariff, and railroad strikes until it has seemed that no other great questions could receive public attention. The people have been so engrossed with the national and state issues filling our horizon that it has appeared almost futile to make any attempt toward securing good city government in our large and small municipalities. The reform movement in New York under Dr. Parkhurst's leadership has been both sensational and practical; it has served an excellent purpose outside of New York in calling the attention of people in other cities to the character of their police and the administration of their mayor and councils.

We do nothing in reform in this country without first organizing; we must have officers, rules, by-laws, and speeches, until many grow weary. A band of men come together and resolve that they will advocate good city government, that they will have reform at the ballot box, or elect better men as aldermen, and the organization begins to work. Very often their labors are crowned with victory; frequently with failure; but such is the history of reform.

Last month there met in the city of Minneapolis a convention for the promotion of good city government. There were representatives from local organizations in attendance from Milwaukee, Kansas City, Boston, Duluth, Chicago, Cleveland, Philadelphia, and New York. The discussions were on papers relating to better government in cities. Mr. William G. Low, a member of the committee of seventy in New York City, made the statement "that the great committee were doing their work very thoroughly; that sub-committees had been appointed who were studying all the questions which involve the health, morality, and good government of the city; that the tenement house system, baths and lavatories,

small parks for the people in overcrowded parts of the city, the docks, and the drink question were being investigated; and that reports would soon be made public upon them which would be the result of a careful examination and inquiry into the experience of other cities, both in this country and in Europe; and that the temper of the people in New York will not permit any interference with carrying out the contemplated plans for reform."

All this is in the interests of good government, not only in New York, but all over the land. The experience of the men handling these questions in New York, and the wealth at their command, which enables them to employ first-class detectives and able lawyers, insure a successful issue, and it will be to the advantage of all cities to have them continue this work.

Mr. Welsh of Philadelphia, who read a paper before this convention, stated that "the Municipal League in Philadelphia numbers 2,500 members with a very encouraging increase daily."

We apprehend that this convention will set the fashion for organizations of a similar kind in all our cities. Many leading men were present, such as Dr. James of the University of Pennsylvania, William Potts of New York, Professor Jenks of Cornell University, Mr. Bonaparte of Baltimore, Professor Bemis of the University of Chicago, and many others. They are men of convictions and eminent ability and have undertaken this work of reform in great earnest. Others will follow their example and great good will result from the convention, which was helpful and inspiring to the friends of the cause in all its proceedings.

Another convention held the latter part of November in Buffalo, N. Y., was a National City Evangelization Union, with representatives from all parts of the country, north, south, east, and west; also of Sidney, Australia, in the person of Mr. W. G. Taylor. This convention developed this condition of

things in the religious denominations; viz., the machinery of the regularly organized churches does not seem to be well adapted to reaching the masses in cities who do not attend the regular church services. As in New York, the Baptists, Methodists, and Presbyterians with other church denominations have moved to the upper part of the city and are giving the lower part of the community over to business and leaving the people to be entertained in houses of amusement, except as this new movement for city evangelization may reach these forsaken masses to save them. It is possible for a minister and a layman to be too closely wedded to their denomination and to have their views narrowed down to the point where they believe that no spiritual reform can be effected among men except as it is done through their organized church. May it not be true that this is one of the ways in which the organized church stands in the way of spiritual reform?

About two years ago a good friend said to the writer, "Mr. R—— has offered to build a tabernacle down in the Bowery at his own expense and to pay Chaplain McCabe a salary of \$5,000 a year and furnish him with a number of assistants if the chaplain would take charge and engage to hold religious services, try to reach the masses, and in a word do all the good which he thought would be accomplished by such a movement with Chaplain McCabe as the leader."

The chaplain heard the statement. I made reply, "Chaplain McCabe, you are going to Omaha in a few days to General Conference. They talk about making you a bishop. If they do not do that, they will elect you missionary secretary, but it is my judgment that you would make a mistake to be a bishop, and it will be a mistake to continue as a missionary secretary when you have this grand opportunity presented by Mr. R—— to lead a great spiritual reform movement in the Bowery. The man is wealthy and will pay all the bills, erect a tabernacle, support you, furnish assistants, and it would be the opportunity, not of your church alone, but of all the churches in New York City to engage in a movement of that

kind in that place. You could have a Jewish evangelist, a German evangelist, a French evangelist, and you could preach the gospel at that tabernacle in every tongue that is spoken in New York City. It would be a higher position than any that any church could offer, because 'the field is already white for the harvest.'"

My advice was not taken. Chaplain McCabe is a wise and useful man, but I have been sorry a hundred times that he did not engage in that work. He stays too close to his denomination to reach the masses in the best way.

This convention in Buffalo was made up of delegates from organizations that are trying to evangelize the cities. They aim at building churches, establishing missions, preaching the truth, and reforming men in body, mind, and soul. In a word they are trying to bring the kingdom of God into the life of the people who need it. There were thirty cities represented in the convention. It was an intensely earnest body of men doing earnest work; they came together to consult about methods and to forecast their work, and their meeting will aid in spreading a wholesome leaven wherever the report of it is read.

These two conventions, the one in Minneapolis on political reform, the other in Buffalo on converting men to God, mark very clearly the lines of battle that are drawn for the people of every city, large and small, in the land. Our political and church life is influenced largely by the church thinkers and the political thinkers at the centers of population. Therefore we conclude that the greatest contests for good government and the triumph of Christianity are to be made at the centers to which these conventions point. If the cities are doomed to corruption, debauchery, and shame in their population they will infect the masses of the people. If reform begins with them and the ballot box is kept pure and the people led into God's kingdom, then good government will be our glory. Therefore we have need to betake ourselves in political organization and church work, to striking hard blows for righteousness in men and good government in the cities of the United States.

PROFESSOR HERBERT TUTTLE.

THE death last summer of Professor Herbert Tuttle, A.M., L.H.D., of Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, was a severe blow to that institution, in which he represented the department, of history. He was a brilliant scholar and a man of sterling integrity.

Professor Tuttle was born at Bennington, Vermont, in 1846. He graduated from the university of his state in 1869, and for several years followed journalism as a profession. Going to Berlin he wrote from there for leading London and New York papers. In 1881 he accepted a position as lecturer on international law and political science at Cornell, and ten years later was transferred at his own request to the professorship of modern European history, which position he held at the time of his death.

Professor Tuttle was also the author of several books, most important among which is his "History of Prussia." It was but a short time before his death that the authorities of the Chautauqua College of Liberal Arts placed this work of commanding interest and merit on one of its advanced courses.

WOMAN'S GENIUS IN LETTER-WRITING.

CHESTERFIELD, Walpole, and Cowper have shown what the masculine genius can do in the way of letter-writing; but at his best a man is self-conscious and apt to pose before his sheet of paper as if it were a looking-glass. Even the great Napoleon never forgot that his shortest sentence was for posterity. The essays of Montaigne belong to the *genus epistolum*, the little letter of the masculine species, and, indeed, from Cicero to Lowell, whatever a man has done with the pen shows more or less of premeditated impromptu, the wit of labored preparation.

On the contrary, women have shown that epistolary genius is theirs by natural right. Their letters have the true temper and quality of what is rightly called style, *la femme même*, which scintillates and bubbles with the native essence of the feminine

spirit and wit. Madame de Sévigné, if we may mix genders in a comparison, is the Shakespeare of letter-writers and no woman should fail to read the best of her epistles, not so much for what she had to say as for her cleverness in saying it. The smack of genius is in almost every page, and the zest of it is in the never failing womanliness which exhales from the vivid phrasing.

Lady Montague's letters are but little inferior to those of the great Frenchwoman and it is not to be wondered at that even Pope had a wholesome dread of her piquant and often scathing quill. But there is no need to confine attention to a few famous examples; women who can write good letters are within the rule, those who cannot are the exceptions. A girl of fifteen visiting at a distant city will send home to her mother, sister, or girl friend missives bewitchingly natural, unliterary, and entertaining. Not so the boy; his notes will be jerky, stiff, and barren to a degree, or they will smell of oil and the high book shelves.

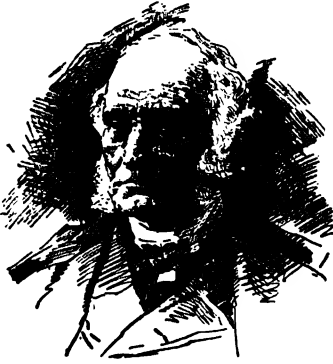
The genius of woman seems to be nearer the surface, more easily loosed, more immediately available than that of man. She puts into her letters the first sparkle of her thought-ferment, not caring to wait for a test of its value as art, literature, or philosophy; the main thing with her is to unburden herself of some new sensation, to lay upon another the weight of fresh experiences, observations, impressions. She is sincere even in her most malicious insincerities and as fresh as dew when least careful about being original. She seems to miss all the conventionalities of letter-writing by dint of multitudinous happy accidents.

It is said that men make better newspaper correspondents than women. If this is so the reason of it must lie in the failure of woman's nature to hold itself true to its elementary instincts when consciously working for the public eye. Certainly in the art of gathering fresh and true impressions rapidly and putting them upon paper with ease, grace, and sparkling naturalness she is far more richly gifted than man.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

FOR THE MONTH ENDING DECEMBER 10.

DEATH OF DR. JAMES McCOSH.



THE REV. JAMES MCCOSH, D. D., LL. D.

were held at Princeton, November 20, and the remains were interred in the cemetery of Princeton College, one of the oldest burying grounds in America.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The death of ex-President McCosh of Princeton does not interrupt a great work which the world cannot afford to have postponed. He had finished his labors and, dying full of years and honors, leaves an example which will prolong indefinitely the influence of his life. His monument is the college which he served with perfect fidelity and an extraordinary measure of success. His administration at Princeton constitutes his chief title to distinction, and will perpetuate his memory.

Dr. McCosh possessed a keen and restless intellect and his range of learning was easily equal to all

legitimate demands upon the executive of an educational institution. If he was not a great scholar, or even an indispensable explorer in the profound mine of metaphysics, he held an honorable rank in the world of study and of letters and made numerous useful contributions to the common stock of knowledge. But it was as the president of an American college of the first class that he commanded the attention and amply earned the respect of the community. Not only those to whose loyalty Princeton College has a special claim, but all who feel a rational concern in the advancement of education have reason to revere his memory.

ANTON RUBINSTEIN'S DEATH.



ANTON RUBINSTEIN.

ANTON RUBINSTEIN, the Russian pianist and composer, died November 20, at Peterhof, near St. Petersburg. The cause of his death was heart disease. He was born of Hebrew parents in Wechwotynetz on the frontier of Roumania. He was eight years old at the time of his first appearance in public as a pianist and almost immediately he became famous as a youthful prodigy playing before large audiences in many European cities. After years of study and teaching he appeared again in the musical centers of Europe, notably Berlin and Paris, where as a man he repeated the triumphs of his youth. He visited the United States in 1872. Rubinstein achieved success more as a pianist than a composer. The consensus of critical opinion would seem to place him next to Listz, the greatest pianist of all times. Among his operas the most successful were "Nero," and "The Maccabees."

Much of Rubinstein's chamber-music and many of his songs gained a decided vogue. Of five pianoforte concertos, created during the period of his greatest activity, the two in D minor and C major have attained genuine popularity in Europe and the United States. His greatest symphonies are the "Ocean" and "Dramatic." Rubinstein was sixty-five years old at the time of his death. He was buried with high honors in St. Petersburg, Russia, November 28.

* This department, together with the book, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. Course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

Hartford Courant. (Conn.)

The death of Anton Rubinstein removes a musician who was on the whole the most famous and gifted among living followers of his art. His compositions include work in all the chief forms, the symphony, concerto, opera, oratorio, quartet, trio, song, and many lesser piano pieces.

This musician acquired fame and had power in two distinct ways, as a virtuoso and as a composer, in this respect resembling his great contemporary, Liszt. As a performer on the piano he was in the very first rank, as those who heard him when he was in this country will readily grant. Probably no other man of his time save Liszt equaled him here, and not the latter in certain particulars. Rubinstein's playing

had not only technique but wonderful tone-color and a passionate, at times leonine fire and magnetism which produced electric effects. He was the idol of his audiences and justly so; and to this result his striking and noble appearance contributed. As a creator of music again he stood very high, surely the equal of men like Brahms, Tschaiskowski, Dvorak, and, to some minds, their superior.

There is an element of the strange, the wild, the sad in his work which gives it depth and distinction. No modern writer of music was fuller of melodies, richer in concerted and harmonic work, more sensuously alluring and emotional in rhythms and motifs. And all his power was controlled and guided by the most scrupulous artistic conscience.

DEATH OF FERDINAND DE LESSEPS.



COUNT FERDINAND DE LESSEPS.

COUNT FERDINAND DE LESSEPS died December 7 at La Chesnaye, near Vatan, in the Département of l' Indre, France. He was born at Versailles, France, November 19, 1805, and entered public life in 1828 as a representative of the French government at Lisbon, after which he held various offices in the consular service. In 1854 he projected the Suez Canal. His proposition to cut a waterway across the Isthmus of Suez through the Egyptian desert to join the waters of the Mediterranean and the Red Sea was almost universally regarded at the outset as impracticable and visionary. Nevertheless the work was undertaken and reached a successful culmination in 1869 when the canal was opened. Then De Lesseps was recognized as the foremost engineering genius of the times. This wonderful achievement gave to De Lesseps a prestige which caused popular opinion to support his later scheme for a tidewater canal between the Gulf of Limon and the Bay of Panama when plans were being discussed for an interoceanic canal. This Panama Canal project with De Lesseps at the head as its chief promoter was put under way in 1881. The financial

operations of the company, in which immense sums of money subscribed for stock by thousands of individuals in humble station were squandered, together with the whole conduct of the project, almost from the beginning, formed one of the most gigantic and appalling public scandals of the century, the memory of which is still fresh in the public mind. In this scandal De Lesseps was held to be implicated, although at the time, esteemed by all France as "The Great Frenchman." In the trial of the case he was indicted, in effect, for swindling and in February last he was convicted and sentenced, as was his son Charles, to five years' imprisonment and to pay a fine of \$600. His feeble condition of body added doubtless to the reluctance of the French people to shatter utterly a popular idol prevented his appearance in court and the serving of the sentence. It is doubtful, so assiduously were the facts kept from him, if he ever knew that he had been publicly dishonored and convicted of fraud before the eyes of his countrymen.

The Evening Post. (Chicago, Ill.)

No case in the history of the century is as pitiable as this one. A man of generous and kindly instincts, De Lesseps had come to a ripe old age crowned with honor. His name was indissolubly connected with the most gigantic engineering task with which moderns are acquainted. So long as the argosies of the nations should traverse the imperial highway by which he brought the riches of the Indies to the feet of the commercial masters of the world he would be remembered with gratitude and reverence. The nations of the earth had been proud to confer upon

him the most distinguished marks of their appreciation. And he died a convicted thief.

His connection with the Panama Canal villainy seemed beyond belief. It could only be explained on the theory that age had withered the faculties of the old man and left him an easy prey to the knaves who would not hesitate to send his gray head disgraced to the grave. It would seem the better part for the world to wipe out the last ten years of Ferdinand de Lesseps' life and consider that he died while he was still towering before the eyes of men, one of the heroes of the century.

THE CONDITION AND AFFAIRS OF THE GOVERNMENT, AS REVIEWED BY PRESIDENT CLEVELAND IN HIS ANNUAL MESSAGE.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND's annual message was communicated to Congress immediately upon its reassembling, December 3. It is an epitome, comprehensive in scope and elaborate in its detail of statement, relating to the condition and affairs of the government. With the exception of the department of state, the report of which is made by the secretary through the president direct, the separate reports of the members of the Cabinet relating to their several departments together with those of a few bureaus and two or three commissions are briefly summarized. To this concise setting forth of the status of the government in its various branches are added the president's comments, suggestions, and recommendations representative of the policies and principles of his administration. A synopsis of the most important parts of the message is appended.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS.

The subject of our foreign relations is the first to receive attention in the message.

"Although the war between China and Japan endangers no policy of the United States," says the president, "it deserves our gravest consideration, by reason of its disturbance of our growing commercial interests in the two countries and the increased dangers which may result to our citizens in the interior of China. Our good offices to induce an amicable arrangement of the initial difficulty between the two countries were defeated by the unhappy precipitation of actual hostilities. Deploring the destructive war between the two most powerful of the eastern nations, I would not hesitate to heed any intimation that our friendly aid for the honorable termination of hostilities would be acceptable to both belligerents."

The protest of the German government, based on treaty stipulations, against that provision of the customs tariff act which imposes a discriminating duty of one tenth of one cent a pound on sugars coming from countries paying an export bounty therefrom is considered and "in the interests of the commerce of both countries and to avoid even the accusation of treaty violation the repeal of so much of the statute as imposes that duty" is recommended.

The president gives but passing notice to Hawaii in this statement: "The organization of a government in place of the provisional arrangement which followed the deposition of the queen has been announced with evidence of its effective operation. The recognition usual in such cases has been accorded the new government."

NATIONAL FINANCES.

Concerning the national finances the president first refers to the report of the secretary of the treasury, which states that "the receipts of the government from all sources of revenue during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1894, amounted to \$372,802,498.29, and its expenditures to \$442,605,758.87, leaving a deficit of \$69,803,260.58. There was a decrease of \$15,952,674.66 in the ordinary expenses of the government as compared with the fiscal year 1893." Continuing he says: "It is estimated that upon the 1-Jan.

basis of our present revenue laws the receipts of the government during the current fiscal year ending June 30, 1895, will be \$424,427,748.44 and its expenditures \$444,427,748.44, resulting in a deficit of \$20,000,000."

On the first day of November, 1894, the total stock of money of all kinds in the country was \$2,240,773,888 as against \$2,204,651,000 on the first day of November, 1893, and the money of all kinds in circulation, or not included in the treasury holdings, was \$1,672,093,422, or \$24.27 per capita upon an estimated population of 68,887,000.

THE WAR DEPARTMENT.

Basing his statements on the report of the secretary of war the president says, "The strength of the U. S. Army on September 30, 1894, was 2,135 officers and 25,765 enlisted men." The president commends the plan put into effect by the secretary of war by which a force of men equivalent to two regiments have been released from duty at recruiting stations and made available for regimental duty, thereby creating an annual saving in direct expenditure of about \$250,000; and by which the army is concentrated at important centers of population and transportation. "While the maximum strength of the army," says the president, "is 25,000 men, the effective strength through various causes is but little over 20,000 men," and he recommends an increase of 5,000 in the effective strength. Referring to the participation of the regular troops in the western strikes of last summer the president says: "Their duty was discharged promptly, courageously, and with marked discretion by the officers and men, and the most gratifying proof was thus afforded that the army deserves that complete confidence in its efficiency and discipline which the country has at all times manifested."

THE POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT.

In this connection the president refers to the "comprehensive statement" of the postmaster general. He says: "The receipts of the department during the year amounted to \$75,080,479.04 and the expenditures to \$84,324,414.15. The transactions of the postal service indicate with barometric certainty the fluctuations in the business of the country.

Inasmuch, therefore, as business complications continued to exist throughout the past year to an unforeseen extent it is not surprising that the deficiency of revenue to meet the expenditures of the post office department, which was estimated in advance at about \$8,000,000 should be exceeded by nearly \$1,250,000. The ascertained revenues of the last year, which were the basis of calculation for the current year, being less than estimated, the deficiency for the current year will be correspondingly greater, though the postmaster general states that the latest indications are so favorable that he confidently predicts an increase of at least 8 per cent in the revenue of the current year over those of the last year. The president suggests a number of reforms and emphasizes the statements of the postmaster general relating to civil service reform in the department. With the correction of existing abuses under the head of second-class matter, the postmaster general predicts that there will be no deficiency and that "all newspapers and periodical magazines might be properly transmitted free of cost." In this opinion the president concurs and invites the prompt attention of Congress to the matter.

THE NAVAL DEPARTMENT.

The message contains a recommendation for an increase of our naval equipment. The president says: "We have now, completed and in process of construction, but four first-class battle ships and but few torpedo boats. If we are to have a navy for warlike operations, offensive and defensive, we certainly ought to increase both the number of battle ships and torpedo boats. I recommend that provision be made for the construction of additional battle ships and torpedo boats."

THE PENSION BUREAU.

Relating to the work of the pension bureau the message contains the following: "At the close of the last fiscal year, on the 30th of June, 1894, there were 969,544 persons on the pension rolls, being a net increase of 3,532 over the number reported at the end of the previous year. The total amount expended for pensions during the year was \$139,804,461.05, leaving an unexpended balance from the sum appropriated of \$25,205,712.65. The sum necessary to meet pension expenditures for the year ending June 30, 1896, is estimated at \$140,000,000. Among our pensioners are nine widows and three daughters of soldiers of the Revolution and forty-five survivors of the War of 1812. The barefaced and extensive pension frauds exposed under the direction of the courageous and generous veteran soldier now at the head of the bureau leave no room for the claim that no purgation of our pension rolls was needed or that continued vigilance and prompt action are not necessary to the same end."

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

A saving of \$600,000 during the year is reported

in this department and recommendations are made looking to an extension of the usefulness of the department. The exports of agricultural products during the last fiscal year comprised 72 per cent of all American exports and amounted to \$628,000,000. Of these 54 per cent went to Great Britain. Relating to our cereal exports the president says: "There was a falling off in American wheat exports of \$13,500,000 during the nine months ending September 30, 1894, and the secretary of agriculture is inclined to believe that wheat may not, in the future, be the staple cereal product of our country, but that corn will continue to advance in importance as an export on account of the new uses to which it is constantly being appropriated."

THE NEW TARIFF LAW.

"The tariff act passed at the last session of Congress," says the president, "needs important amendments if it is to be executed effectively and with certainty. In addition to such necessary amendments as will not change rates of duty, I am still very decidedly in favor of putting coal and iron upon the free list. So far as the sugar schedule is concerned, I should be glad, under existing aggravations, to see every particle of differential duty in favor of refined sugar stricken out of our tariff law. If, with all the favor now accorded the sugar refining interest in our tariff laws, it still languishes to the extent of closing refineries and the discharging of thousands of workmen, it would seem to present a hopeless case for reasonable legislative aid."

REFORM OF THE CURRENCY.

The president commends the idea of a national board of health; refers to the work of the Chicago strike commission as being "well done," and in conclusion he endorses the recent bond issue and discusses the general reform of the currency.

"Prominent among the unsatisfactory features of the present system," he says, "are the lack of elasticity in our currency circulation and its frequent concentration in financial centers when it is most needed in other parts of the country. The absolute divorcement of the government from the business of banking is the ideal relation of the government to the circulation of the currency of the country. This condition cannot be immediately reached, but as a step in that direction and as a means of securing a more elastic currency and obviating other objections to the present arrangement of bank circulation, the secretary of the treasury presents in his report a scheme modifying present banking laws and providing for the issue of circulating notes by state banks free from taxation under certain limitations."

To this plan the president gives his unqualified endorsement and briefly describes it as follows: "It is proposed to repeal all laws providing for the deposit of United States bonds as security for circulation; to permit national banks to issue circulating

notes not exceeding in amount 75 per cent of their paid up and unimpaired capital, provided they deposit with the government, as a guarantee fund, in United States legal tender notes, including treasury notes of 1890, a sum equal in amount to 30 per cent of the notes they desire to issue, this deposit to be maintained at all times; but whenever any bank retires any part of its circulation a proportional part of its guarantee fund shall be returned to it."

In addition to the guarantee fund required, it is proposed to provide a safety fund for the immediate redemption of the circulating notes of failed banks by imposing a small annual tax, say one half of one per cent, upon the average circulation of each bank until the fund amounts to five per cent of the total circulation outstanding. When a bank fails its

guarantee fund is to be paid into this safety fund and its notes are to be redeemed in the first instance from such safety fund thus augmented—any impairment of such fund caused thereby to be made good from the immediate available assets of said bank and if these should be insufficient such impairment to be made good by pro-rata assessment among the other banks, their contributions constituting a first lien upon the assets of failed bank in favor of the contributing banks.

After further elaborating this scheme of reform the president concludes as follows: "It is quite likely that this scheme may be usefully amended in some of its details; but I am satisfied it furnishes a basis for a great improvement in our banking and currency system."

GENERAL COMMENT ON THE MESSAGE.

(*Rep.*) *Boston Advertiser.* (*Mass.*)

President Cleveland's message for 1894 is written in a clear and forcible style. It contains no verbal oddities, but it is not without several specimens of that pungent, Clevelandesque way of putting things which gives to his rhetoric a distinct and often pleasing flavor. The chief feature of the message is its suggestions for a new system of national bank currency and for the conditional repeal of the state bank tax, in order to give an opportunity for the revival of state bank-note circulation. We are compelled to say, after careful study and calm reflection, that both of these schemes are utterly objectionable.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

There is nothing unexpected or striking in the message which Mr. Cleveland sent to Congress yesterday. The important paragraphs might be printed in three quarters of a column. The sentences which are obviously of the president's own composition would occupy much less space than that. The enormous length of the document is due solely to the industry of the clerks who have been engaged in summarizing and paraphrasing the annual reports from the several departments, and to a creditable desire to impart to this year's message what is called a businesslike appearance, in point of volume, if not of contents.

The small part of the message which was unquestionably written by Mr. Cleveland was written with a pen dipped in sulk.

(*Rep.*) *Ohio State Journal.* (*Columbus, O.*)

Perhaps not in twenty years has the annual message of the president fallen so stale, flat, and unprofitable upon the country. It was dull, lifeless, spiritless, frigid, tame, prosaic, uninteresting and pointless to a degree never before approached by a state paper. This is the view of it taken by nine out of ten readers, regardless of party. It showed the complete inability of the president to comprehend the necessities of the country. He did not address himself to pointing

out where money could be saved in expenditures or the revenues increased. He will simply sell more bonds when the supply of money becomes short. It is a notable fact that not a single cheer or mark of approval greeted the reading of the message in either Senate or House.

(*Pop.*) *Rocky Mountain News.* (*Denver, Col.*)

The three notable recommendations by Mr. Cleveland in his message relate to the army, the navy, and the finances. If Cleveland's financial scheme shall be carried out, the general distress will deepen and the industrial and commercial horizon will be darkened until no gleam foreshadowing prosperity will appear about it. It was a grim suggestion for him to make in this connection that the standing army be increased and a dozen or more new battle ships and cruisers be constructed. He must have feared that even in the United States the masses might be so outraged by hurtful legislation that they would rise in force against their oppressors—and what so opportune in such an event as plenty of trained and unquestioning soldiers and fleets of ironed ships to shell the cities?

(*Ind.*) *San Francisco Examiner.* (*California.*)

The president advocates the creation of a national board of health for the protection of the country against the invasion of pestilence. This recommendation is manifestly based on sound reason. There is little encouragement for one city to maintain an efficient quarantine service when it may be taken in the rear by a plague that has entered the country through the remissness of another. There ought to be equal vigilance everywhere, and that can be secured only by national authority.

There is little to say about the message as a whole, because it is not a whole but an aggregation of unrelated parts. It makes some good recommendations, but as a rule it is non-committal to a degree that might suggest timidity if a more probable explanation were not found in weariness and ill-health.

(*Dem.*) *The Times-Union.* (*Jacksonville, Fla.*)

The reader of this message cannot fail to see the fact that in its foreign relations our country is more respected than it has been for many years. Within the last few years we have advanced in rank among the nations of the earth. As to the tariff, the president, in effect, recommends the passage of the bills termed the "pop-gun" bills, passed by the House, and now on the Senate calendar. The *Times-Union* does not object to the passage of these bills, and does not consider them a matter of great importance to the people. But the chief interest centers in the part of the message proposing a change in our financial system. The president is in accord with the position that this paper has taken, that under present laws it will be impossible to retain gold in the treasury except by resorting to constant loans. He seems to consider our monetary system about as bad as it can be. Altogether, the

message is most interesting, and furnishes many suggestions that Congress would do well to consider.

(*Dem.*) *The World.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

The message of President Cleveland is as a whole a disappointment. There is no clear note of leadership in it. In minor respects the message is satisfactory. It embodies many excellent suggestions as to our foreign policy, the army, the navy, postal reforms, the civil service, and the various other departments.

The Daily News. (*London, Eng.*)

The transfer of the responsibility from the treasury to the banks undoubtedly is sound finance. The system has stood the test of practical working in Canada. There is plenty of gold in the United States, but its collection and its retention obviously are not duties of the government under the ordinary conditions of national existence. The continuance of the task under present conditions obviously would lead sooner or later to difficulty or disaster.

THE NEW GOVERNMENT LOAN AND BOND ISSUE.

THE interest bearing debt of the United States was increased during the month in the sum of \$50,000,000 by the issue of United States bonds of that aggregate amount, redeemable in coin, after ten years from their date of issue, and bearing interest, payable quarterly in coin, at the rate of 5 per cent per annum. The total amount of the 297 bids received November 24 was three times the amount offered. The bid commonly regarded as being the most important was that of the Stewart Syndicate, composed of financial corporations, firms, and individuals chiefly in New York. To this syndicate the award was given. The statement officially made at the treasury department reads as follows:

"The secretary of the treasury has accepted the proposal of Mr. John A. Stewart, president of the United States Trust Company, and his associates to purchase the entire issue of 5 per cent bonds, amounting to \$50,000,000 at \$117.077 and accrued interest from November 1. The proceeds of the bond under this bid will be \$49,517.62 greater than they would be if the other highest bids were accepted. A very important advantage to the government in accepting this bid is the fact that all the gold will be furnished outside, and none drawn from the treasury. It is also more convenient and less expensive to the department to deal with one party rather than with many."

The premium of \$17.077 per \$100 paid by the successful bidders amounts to a little more than two per cent on the whole issue for the ten year period which makes the net cost of floating the loan a fraction less than three per cent. Following the award it was reported that about half the bonds would be retained by members of the Stewart Syndicate and the rest offered for sale, the first price quoted being at the rate of \$119.00. This is the second time within the year that the secretary of the treasury has effected a government loan for \$50,000,000 by the issue of United States bonds, ostensibly to maintain the gold reserve but in reality it is said to pay current expenses, this action being based on the act of Congress of 1875 entitled "an act to provide for the resumption of specie payments."

This is the only statute by which the secretary of the treasury is authorized to issue bonds without the consent of Congress, and it is upon the varying construction of this act that the two bond issues of the year are thought by some to be warranted by the circumstances and by others to be the result of a "usurpation of power" by the administration.

(*Dem.*) *Fort Worth Gazette.* (*Texas.*)

The last issue of bonds was made by the administration within a few days of the assembling of Congress, while the gold reserve was increasing, in the absence of any emergency, and evidently hurried through to avoid prohibitory action by Congress.

Such action certainly trenches narrowly upon usurpation of authority, if it does not invade that territory. If the president can issue bonds at will we have a dictatorship, and not a republic.

(*Ind.*) *Harper's Weekly.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

It was because the government was obliged to sustain the credit of its paper currency, because it was the country's great bank of issue, that it has been compelled to borrow \$100,000,000 at an ultimate cost of \$30,000,000. This is the price which the country must pay on account of the present conditions of trade, because the treasury is in the banking business so far as note issues are concerned, but without the power that bankers have of protecting their re-

serves by changing the rate of discounts. There is no necessity of procuring more money for the legitimate business of the government. The country is paying \$30,000,000 to sustain the banking side of the treasury department, besides what it pays in increased taxes. The lesson of the last bond issue is that the country is paying dear for not only an unsatisfactory but a dangerous banking system.

(Dem.) *The Record.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The effort of the government to borrow gold so as to make the reserve fund for the redemption of demand notes bear a little safer relation to the volume of liability has proven a valuable object lesson. It shows that the government's present ability to borrow gold is absolutely dependent upon the lenience of its creditors. Congress should at once come to the rescue of the public credit by definite fiscal legislation.

(Rep.) *Denver Republican.* (Col.)

Notwithstanding the alleged success which attended the sale of \$50,000,000 of bonds, speculation remained inert and featureless in Wall St. yesterday, and the sales up to noon were exceedingly small. There will be no permanent recovery of business activity either in Wall St. or anywhere else in this country until silver is fully restored to its old place and value in our coinage.

(Rep.) *Boston Journal.* (Mass.)

The validity of these issues of bonds will not be seriously questioned, notwithstanding the strained interpretation of the act of 1875, from which authority for them is derived. It will be agreed on all hands, however, that it would be better if fresh authority could be given for the issue of bonds at a lower rate of interest, under conditions involving no subterfuge.

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL WOMAN'S CHRISTIAN TEMPERANCE UNION.

THE twenty-first annual convention of the National Woman's Christian Temperance Union was held November 16—21 in Cleveland, Ohio, where twenty-one years ago the society met in the first year of its history. At the opening session Miss Frances E. Willard delivered her annual presidential address, during the course of which she said: "Since we were here, the principle of the 'living wage'—which means a wage the worker's family can live on under civilized conditions—has been established; and the New Testament has become the foremost text-book of the new political economy. Prohibition by law, by politics, by woman's ballot—these are to-day the watchwords of the temperance army in all nations. I hope that Populists and Prohibitionists may be agreed and walk together before long." Miss Willard advocated the appointment of a cabinet minister to supervise public amusements, endorsed the position of the labor unions which deplore the disposition of those in authority to increase and centralize the number of state and federal troops; and she declared that the betterment of the condition of labor should be sought "only by means of arbitration and the ballot box." "The nationalization of all means of locomotion and communication," said Miss Willard, "is less important than the ownership of the newspapers by the people. As a man readeth in his newspaper so is he, and in these days he reads what it is for the interest of great corporations to have him read. The strongest thing that reformers could do would be to buy space in the great papers of the country in which to put their ideas before the great humanity that beats its life along the stony streets. I have hardly made a speech in twenty years," continued Miss Willard, "in which this statement of my views does not occur; Christ shall yet reign in custom and in law, not ecclesiastically, but spiritually; not in form, but in fact; not in substance, but in essence. And the organized love of the White Ribbon women seeks to bring that day, for we believe that only the Golden Rule can bring the Golden Age." Miss Willard was re-elected president of the organization which now has a membership of 400,000, and a number of her recommendations were adopted and included in the formal resolutions of the convention in which the increasing desecration of the Sabbath was deplored; card playing, theater going, and promiscuous dancing were deprecated; woman's suffrage was actively endorsed; such exercises as games of football which require the presence of a physician were condemned as "injurious to physical being and brutalizing in their moral tendency," and a protest was made against intercollegiate athletics.

(Rep.) *Philadelphia Press.* (Pa.)

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union is apparently nearly as far as ever from securing prohibition, for which it was originally organized; but the movement which it represents, far broader than its membership, looking toward the moral regeneration of society, was never more powerful and never commanded more public attention. The day when the broad moral demands made by Miss Willard in

her Cleveland address were sneered at as visionary is over. The moral horizon is incalculably brighter than twenty years ago. This has been the work of Christian women more than of all other causes combined, and there never has been a time when it more behooved such women to make no social compromises with evil in all its forms than at the close of a period in which the moral crusade of women is so visibly arousing the moral forces of society.

(*Dem.*) *Brooklyn Eagle.* (N. Y.)

Miss Frances E. Willard should devote more thought to the practical work of temperance and less to general political affairs. She knows something about moral temperance work, but when she sets forth her program for the reformation of the state she discloses her sympathy with all that is unsound and un-American in political theories.

(*Dem.*) *The Record.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union is nearly twenty-one years old. The fact that it attains voting age on December 23 probably inspired President Frances Willard in her opening address at Cleveland yesterday when she said: "We shall always have a double standard of morals while we have a double standard of voting." There is not much doubt that the suffrage in the hands of women would lead to drastic prohibitory liquor legislation.

Minneapolis Journal. (Minn.)

Miss Willard's address, while embodying some very excellent moral points, which all men and women should take to heart, certainly was not calculated to generate confidence in the utility of the W. C. T. U. as an organization founded for a specific moral purpose. As the public understands it, the W. C. T. U. was organized to promote temperance among the people and to overthrow the saloon power. Blessed be the W. C. T. U. if it sticks to its warfare against the liquor power and in behalf of an equal standard of purity for men and women. But Miss Willard would drag the W. C. T. U. into an advocacy of a government censor or supervisor of public amusements, with a seat in the Cabinet

and a train of subordinates to carry out his orders as to the way people should amuse themselves. Such an office has existed and does exist, but only in very despotic countries. She also directly advocates the "ownership of all the newspapers by the people." This last proposition caps the climax. Does Miss Willard mean that the government shall own and run the newspapers? That is a rollicking and grotesque absurdity. Miss Willard should stick to her last. The public have a high regard for the W. C. T. U. as a champion of temperance and social purity, but if it is going to take under its motherly wing all the grotesque crankiness in sight its downfall as a moral force will inevitably soon come.

(*Pro.*) *The Voice.* (New York, N. Y.)

Think of it—the persistent, steady, determined educative movement of 400,000 W. C. T. U. women and their allies for Prohibition! What enemy of the dramshops can grow disheartened in the face of such a host?

(*Evan.*) *The Outlook.* (New York, N. Y.)

This year's National Convention of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union brings out even more prominently than heretofore the disposition of the aggressive temperance organizations to make their reform a part of the movement felt throughout Christendom to better the condition of the working classes. If this labor-reform spirit in the head of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union extends among its membership in the same way that her zeal for woman's suffrage and prohibition have extended, a labor and temperance reform alliance is next to inevitable.

THE REFORM OF COLLEGE FOOTBALL.

THE large number of accidents and casualties reported within the month as incident to games of football played by the students of American colleges had the effect of renewing the popular demand for reform in the rules and conduct of this branch of college athletics. The press dispatches have been filled with reports of accidents, some of them fatal, which have resulted from the games played between the contesting college teams during the autumn, notably that between Harvard and Yale which occurred at Springfield, Mass., Nov. 24, said to have been the worst game played this year in point of casualties. According to the press dispatches sent out from Springfield, "it was not uncommon to see a player on each side flat on his back, being rubbed by physicians and trainers and finally helped to his tottering feet amid the cheers of the multitude. If he had strength enough the player played on, but in many cases he was finally in a state of utter collapse and had to be carried from the field." As to the particular casualties "the worst man injured was Murphy. He was carried off the field in a cot and became unconscious soon after. Brewer's right ankle gave out; Wrightington's collar bone was dislocated; Hallowell's nose was smashed; Jerrems sprained his knee; and Butterworth, after playing until he could not stand on his wabbling legs, was retired in a thoroughly battered condition, with one of his eyes badly scratched."

Cincinnati Times-Star. (Ohio.)

Football can't be played successfully on its present war footing till equipped with a field hospital and ambulance corps.

Chicago Inter-Ocean. (Ill.)

Football, as now played in the majority of cases, is not a manly sport; it is a disgraceful exhibition of

mere brute force. Games are won not by science, but by strength brutally exercised. It is a disgrace to the men who engage in it and a shame to the spectators who encourage it. There should be an instant and positive reformation.

The Tribune. (New York, N. Y.)

The popular condemnation of football brutalities

is not yet equivalent to an irreversible verdict against the game. If football can be reformed into a clean, manly, inoffensive sport, a multitude of reputable persons who are now holding their judgment in reserve will be glad.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Football is a vast wrestle wherein the line of wrestlers suddenly concentrates upon some selected point of the opposite line, and breaks through by weight, carrying a player with the ball in his hands. The ball is a flag, to be carried forward and planted anew with every successful effort, nearer the desired goal. It is a mere emblem marking the progress of the fight. It is not in fact in it. The contest is one of muscle, directed and applied with whatever effectiveness, drill and agility can help it to. In the simple bluntness of truth, football is the most brutal exercise ever permitted outside of the Roman circus, or of such relics of barbarian savagery as the "purring" practiced by English miners. Since gloves were established in the prize ring, its roughness, compared to football's, has sunk into sheeplike insignificance.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

There were actually seven casualties among twenty-two men who began the Springfield game. This is nearly 33 per cent of the combatants, a larger proportion than among the Federals at Cold Harbor—the bloodiest battle of modern times—and much larger than at Waterloo or Gravelotte. What have American culture and civilization to say to this mode of training our youth? Help from the colleges in ending this great scandal does not seem easy to get, so keen is the competition for students, and so powerful the influence of football victories on youthful

minds. We must therefore appeal to American parents to keep their sons out of the game as long as it is anything more than a game of swiftness and agility.

Weekly Statement of the Mutual Life Insurance Company. (New York, N. Y.)

A correspondent of the *Westminster Gazette* furnishes to that paper a detailed report of every casualty for the past three years that has transpired in the enjoyment of the sanguinary game of football, which embraces sportive murder, broken limbs, and lesser casualties. The result will be found in the following table, embracing four hundred and thirty-seven killed and wounded:

	Deaths.	Broken Legs, etc.	Broken Arms, etc.	Collar Bones B'k'n.	Other Injuries.
1890-91....	23	30	9	11	27
1891-92....	22	52	12	18	56
1892-93....	26	39	12	25	75
	71	121	33	54	158

This is a hazard that is increasing year by year, and in view of the number of serious accidents it might be a good plan to apply the war rates to all who care to risk life and limb in this truly exciting but decidedly dangerous game.

Boston Herald. (Mass.)

Let us have a further and more careful revision of the present rules, and let it be begun at once. Let intercollegiate "politics" be carefully kept out of this important work. Let the committee listen more to the player, the official, the physician, and the trainer, and give less heed to the uninformed and noisy clamor of the partisan public on either side. Meanwhile, let no one fear that the game of college football cannot surely be circumscribed by wise laws and maintained in undiminished popularity.

THE CHICAGO STRIKE AS REVIEWED BY THE FEDERAL COMMISSION.

THE report of the Federal Commission, consisting of U. S. Labor Commissioner Carroll D. Wright, Judge N. E. Worthington of Illinois, and John D. Kernan of New York, appointed by the president on July 26 to investigate the Chicago strike of last summer, was made public during the month. The commission held a thirteen days' session in Chicago and a two days' session in Washington, D. C., and examined 109 witnesses. The contest, as the report says, was chiefly between the American Railway Union, of which organization the Pullman employees very generally became members in March and April, 1894, and the General Managers' Association representing the twenty-four railroads centering in Chicago. On this account everything relating to the strike at Pullman or Chicago that affected members of either organization was considered a fit subject for investigation and the broadest latitude of inquiry was pursued. An abstract of the report is given here with the more unimportant parts omitted.

THE COST OF THE STRIKE AND ITS FATALITIES.

"According to the testimony the railroads lost in property destroyed, hire of United States deputy marshals, and other incidental expenses, at least \$685,308. The loss of earnings on these roads is estimated at \$4,672,916. Some 3,100 employees at Pullman lost in wages, as estimated, at least \$350,000. About 100,000 employees upon the 24 railroads centering in Chicago, all of which were more or less involved in the strike, lost in wages, as estimated, at least \$1,389,143. Many of these employees are

still adrift and losing wages. Beyond these amounts very great losses, widely distributed, were incidentally suffered throughout the country. During the strike the fatalities, arrests, indictments, and dismissals of charges for strike offenses in Chicago and vicinity were as follows:

"Number shot and fatally wounded.....	12
Number arrested by the police.....	575
Number arrested under United States statutes and indicted.....	71
Number arrested against whom indictments were not found.....	119

"For the protection of city, state, and federal property, for the suppression of crime and the preservation of order, the city, county, state, and federal forces were utilized as shown in the following statement:

"From July 3 to July 10 the number of	
U. S. troops was.....	1,936
Between July 6 and July 11 the number	
of state militia was about.....	4,000
Extra deputy marshals about.....	5,000
Extra deputy sheriffs.....	250
Police force of Chicago.....	3,000
Total	14,186"

PULLMAN'S PALACE CAR COMPANY.

As to Pullman's Palace Car Company the report says: "This is a corporation organized in 1867, with a capital of \$1,000,000. It has grown until its present paid up capital is \$36,000,000. Its prosperity has enabled the company for over twenty years to pay 2 per cent quarterly dividends, and, in addition, to lay up a surplus of nearly \$25,000,000 of undivided profits. In 1880 the company bought 500 acres of land, and upon 300 acres of it built its plant and also a hotel, arcade, churches, athletic grounds, and brick tenements suitable for the use of its employees. The town is well laid out and has a complete sewerage and water system. It is beautified by well kept open spaces and stretches, flower beds, and lakes. The whole is at all times kept in neat order by the company. The main object was the establishment of a great manufacturing business upon a substantial and money making basis."

THE RENTS AT PULLMAN.

Concerning the rents in the town of Pullman the report says in part: "If we exclude the esthetic and sanitary features at Pullman, the rents there are from 20 to 25 per cent higher than rents in Chicago or surrounding towns for similar accommodations. The esthetic features are admired by visitors, but have little money value to employees, especially when they lack bread. The company aims to secure 6 per cent upon the cost of its tenements, which cost includes a proportionate share for paving, sewerage, water, parks, etc. It claims now to receive less than four per cent. The company's claim that the workmen need not hire its tenements and can live elsewhere if they choose is not entirely tenable. While reducing wages the company made no reduction in rents. At the time of the strike about \$70,000 of unpaid rents had accumulated. It is fair to say that this accumulation of unpaid rent was due to leniency on the part of the company toward those who could not pay the rent and support their families. Neither have any actual evictions taken place."

Relating to the attitude of the Pullman company toward its workmen and its part in the strike the report reaches this conclusion: "In its statements to the public, which are in evidence, the company represents that its object in all it did was to continue

operations for the benefit of its workmen and of trades people in and about Pullman and to save the public from the annoyance of interrupted travel. The commission thinks that the evidence shows that it sought to keep running mainly for its own benefit as a manufacturer, that its plant might not rust, that its competitors might not invade its territory, that it might keep its cars in repair, that it might be ready for resumption when business revived with a live plant and competent help, and that its revenues from its tenements might continue."

THE AMERICAN RAILWAY UNION.

Concerning the American Railway Union the report says in part: "This is an association of about 150,000 railroad employees, as alleged, organized at Chicago on June 20, 1893, for the purpose of including railroad employees born of white parents in one great brotherhood.

"In March, 1894, the employees of the Pullman Palace Car Company being dissatisfied with their wages, rents, and shop treatment, for the first time in the history of the town sought organization, and joined the American Railway Union in large numbers. Their meetings were held outside of Pullman because the town has no facilities for such purposes. The Pullman Company is hostile to the idea of conferring with organized labor in the settlement of differences arising between it and its employees. Since the strike, withdrawal from the American Railway Union is required from those seeking work. To admit the Pullman employees, however, into the American Railway Union as 'persons employed in the railway service' was not wise or expedient. To reach out and take in those so alien to its natural membership as the Pullman employees was in the inception of the organization at least a mistake. This mistake led the Union into a strike purely sympathetic and aided to bring upon it a crushing and demoralizing defeat."

THE GENERAL MANAGERS' ASSOCIATION.

The report contains the following with reference to the General Managers' Association, which acted as the defensive force representing all of the railroads concerned in the strike: "This voluntary unincorporated association was formed in 1886, and has as members the twenty-four railroads centering or terminating in Chicago. The association is an illustration of the persistent and shrewdly devised plans of corporations to overreach their limitations and to usurp indirectly powers and rights not contemplated in their charters and not obtainable from the people or their legislators. So long as railroads are thus permitted to combine and fix wages for their joint protection it would be rank injustice to deny the right of all labor upon all railroads to unite for similar purposes."

DISORDER, VIOLENCE, AND DESTRUCTION OF PROPERTY.

The statement of the commission concerning the

disorder, violence, and destruction of property which accompanied the strike is in part as follows: "There is no evidence before the commission that the officers of the American Railway Union at any time participated in or advised intimidation, common violence, or destruction of property. The participation of strikers in riotous proceeding is another and more serious matter. From the testimony it is fair to conclude that strikers were concerned in the outrages against law and order, although the number was undoubtedly small as compared with the whole number out. The strikers' experience and training were to be seen in the breaking and misplacing of switches, removing rails, crippling of interlock system, the detaching of side tracks and derailment of cars and engines, the placing of coupling pins in engine machinery, blocking the cars and tracks, and attempts to detach and run in mail cars. The commission is of the opinion that the offenses of this character as well as considerable threatening and intimidation taking the strikers' places were committed or instigated by strikers. In the view that this railroad strike was wrong; that mobs are well known to be incidental to strikes, and are thereby given an excuse to center together and commit crime, the responsibility rests largely with the American Railway Union; otherwise that association, its leaders, and a very large majority of railroad men on strike are not to have any connection therewith."

ATTITUDE OF THE ARMED FORCES.

Relating to the participation of armed forces in the strike the report reads in part: "That policemen sympathized with strikers rather than with the corporation cannot be doubted. Nor would it be surprising to find the same sentiment rife among the military. These forces are largely recruited from the labor classes. Indeed the danger is growing that in strike wars between corporations and employees military duty will ultimately have to be done by others than volunteers from labor ranks. The military police confined themselves to the duty of arresting criminals, dispersing mobs, and guarding property. United States deputy marshals to the number of 3,600 were selected by and appointed at the request of the General Managers' Association and of its railroads. They were armed and paid by the railroads and acted in the double capacity of railroad employees and United States marshals. They were not under the direct control of any government official while exercising authority. This placed officers of the government under the control of a combination of railroads. It is a bad precedent that might well lead to serious consequences."

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMISSION.

The recommendations and suggestions of the commission growing out of the Chicago strike and boycott are important. These are upon three lines: First, for

congressional action; second, for state action; and third, for the action of corporations and labor organizations, the whole reading substantially as follows:

First: "That there be a permanent U. S. Strike Commission of three members, with duties and powers of investigation and recommendation as to dispute between the railroads and their employees, similar to those vested in the Interstate Commerce Commission as to rates, etc." That power be given to the U. S. Courts to promptly enforce the decisions of the commission upon the railroads after summary hearing unattended by technicalities. That when the parties to a controversy within the jurisdiction of the commission are railroads or trades unions incorporated under particular federal statutes on the one hand or state statutes on the other, "each side shall have the right to select a representative, who shall in turn be appointed by the president to serve as a temporary member of the commission in hearing, adjusting, and determining, that particular controversy. That during the pendency of a proceeding before the commission inaugurated by national trades unions, or by an incorporation of employees, it shall not be lawful for the railroads to discharge employees belonging thereto except for inefficiency, violation of law, or neglect of duty; nor for such unions or incorporations to order, unite in, or abet strikes or boycotts against the railroads complained of; nor, for a period of six months after a decision, for such railroads to discharge any such employees in whose places others shall be employed, except for the causes aforesaid; nor for any such employees, during a like period, to quit the service without giving thirty days' written notice of intention to do so, nor for any such union or incorporation to order, counsel, or advise otherwise." That, national trades unions shall be compelled by law to provide in written instruments that a member shall cease to be such, forfeiting all the legal rights and privileges thereto appertaining by "participating in or by instigating force or violence against persons or property during strikes or boycotts or by seeking to prevent others from working through violence, threats, or intimidation."

Second: "The commission would suggest the consideration by the states of the adoption of some system of conciliation and arbitration like that, for instance, in use in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. Contracts requiring men to agree not to join labor organizations or to leave them, as conditions of employment, should be made illegal, as is already done in some of the states."

Third: "The commission urges employees to recognize labor organizations; that such organizations be dealt with through representatives with special reference to conciliation and arbitration when difficulties are threatened or arise. It is satisfied that if employers will consider employees as thoroughly essential to industrial success as capital, and thus take labor into

consultation at proper times, much of the severity of strikes can be tempered and their number reduced."

(*Dem.*) *Chicago Herald.* (Ill.)

The remedies proposed by the report will be read and studied with interest. The whole report is a valuable contribution to the discussion of the labor problem.

(*Ind.*) *The Journal.* (Providence, R. I.)

The commission's distribution of blame in about equal portions among all the parties to the late troubles at Chicago may be fairly just. . . . That method [compulsory arbitration] is about equally unacceptable to the employers and employed, and it has been a failure wherever it has been tried.

(*Dem.*) *The Sentinel.* (Indianapolis, Ind.)

The Sentinel gives hearty endorsement to the recommendations as a whole. They are wise, and probably timely. Possibly the committee may be slightly ahead of the sentiment of the country, but if so it is in the right direction.

(*Rep.*) *Chicago Inter-Ocean.* (Ill.)

There can be but one explanation that will shield Commissioners Wright, Kernan, and Worthington from this charge of deliberately misrepresenting facts, and that is the old apology of ignorance. They were theorists, and knew not the value of testimony on either side to the controversy.

(*Rep.*) *The Tribune.* (New York, N. Y.)

The report is an elaborate document tending to justify indirectly the Debs rebellion. We lack patience for discussing a permanent federal strike commission or hard-and-fast compulsory arbitration by laws of the Medes and Persians, binding upon one party to a controversy but failing utterly to constrain the other. The effect of the report will be unsettling and mischievous.

(*Rep.*) *San Francisco Call.* (Cal.)

The report is an instructive document. A careful perusal of it may convince railroad managers that their triumph over the American Railway Union was after all a somewhat lawless exercise of physical power. This is the first recent intimation from an official source that organized capital could do wrong. We have heard much about the restraint the government must impose upon labor, but little about the restraint that the government should impose upon capital.

(*Dem.*) *The Courier-Journal.* (Louisville, Ky.)

While the general tone of the commission's report is favorable to a policy of peace and conciliation, it exhibits a degree of hospitality to certain extreme notions of government supremacy in industrial matters and a tendency toward some of the ideas of the socialists. It is easy to read between the lines that the commission believe that the ultimate solution of the labor troubles, so far as railroads are concerned, lies in government control. But this leaves all other labor troubles to be provided for, and the suggestion that they should take the same course is easy and natural. In this way we should be likely to come at last to the socialist's idea of government ownership of all the means of production and distribution, including not only railroads, telegraphs, and mines, but land also. It is a perilous course to enter upon.

(*Ind.*) *Public-Ledger.* (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The report on the whole is temperate, and, while its recommendations may not meet with general favor, the ideas formulated should be of use in furnishing Congress with a basis upon which to make intelligent and impartial disposition, at least in a tentative way, of one of the most vexed of industrial problems.

THE WAR IN THE FAR EAST.

THE beginning of the end of the war in the Far East came early in the month in the request of the Chinese that the European powers, together with the United States, intervene to bring about peace between the belligerent nations. This action on the part of the Chinese was commonly regarded as a confession of weakness. The European powers practically declined to interfere, excepting Great Britain, and her suggestion for co-operation to the end that the war might be terminated met with no encouragement. While declining to join in the intervention, President Cleveland offered to mediate between China and Japan if acceptable to both governments, which proposition the latter refused to entertain, it is said, on the ground that all offers of a settlement should emanate at first directly from China. Meanwhile the Japanese were pushing their way into China and finally after several small engagements succeeded in capturing Port Arthur at the north entrance to the Gulf of Pechili. This decisive and important victory was won by the army, the naval forces being used but little. Following the capture of this Chinese stronghold it was reported that China had taken it upon herself to sue for peace and that President Cleveland's proffer of the good offices of the government of the United States had been acted upon, the United States ministers at Peking and Tokio being engaged at the time in conducting the negotiations. These reports later dispatches discredited by the statement that the negotiations progressed no further than an insistence by Japan upon the condition that a Chinese ambassador be sent to Tokio to make formally and officially its overtures. Meanwhile the war continues.

The Times. (London, Eng.)

Perhaps Japan's policy will continue until the arrogance of the Chinese be beaten down. Although

the capture of Port Arthur is of the highest strategic importance, it is no reason why the powers should depart from their neutrality.

The Daily News. (London, Eng.)

To further prolong the struggle would be an offense against humanity. We hope that Japan will hear favorably her abject enemy's overtures.

The Tribune. (New York, N. Y.)

Japan's reply to the offer of American mediation is a diplomatic refusal. Like every victorious nation, it prefers to deal directly with a humiliated adversary; and it is in no haste for peace negotiations, since the prospect of a larger triumph than it has yet achieved on land or sea is opening before it. There is nothing offensive to the United States in this deliberate refusal to take advantage of the good offices of the benevolent peacemaker. Enlightened self-interest perceives the benefits of a prolongation of the war until an overwhelming triumph can be secured. National pride also finds expression in the demand that China shall sue for peace at Tokio without the intervention or mediation of a third power.

Hartford Times. (Conn.)

Port Arthur has fallen in reality, at last. It is evidently in the decrees of destiny that Japan, although a nation of less than one tenth the popula-

tion of China, shall be the conqueror, in this unique war with that populous but incompletely civilized people. The Chinese belong to some earlier race. They are not in touch with the world's civilization of to-day. Oldest of the so-called civilized nations, its people are neither in genius nor religion in step with the world's modern progress. They are pagans, who are unfitted for the advancement which is now about to mark the world's history, to a degree wholly unknown in all past experience. The Japanese have shown, unlike the people of China, that the acceptance of Christianity is not absolutely essential to an old nation in its effort to place itself in line with the modern world's advancement however it may prove to be with the question of keeping there. But China is apparently unable even to make the effort.

Chicago Inter-Ocean. (Ill.)

The news from China, if unexpected, is not surprising. From the first the superior discipline and intelligence of the Japanese have given them advantage over their adversaries. Nor should the power of sympathy be overlooked. The sentiment of civilization has been favorable to the Japanese.

RAILROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.

REPORT OF THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION.

The commission includes in its report statistics of railways for the year ending June 30, 1893. On that date there were 176,461.07 miles of line in the United States, being an increase during the year of 4,897.55 miles. The number of railway corporations was 1,890, being an increase of 68 over the previous year. Of these, 939 maintained operating accounts, and 778 were subsidiary lines, or parts of larger systems, of which 326 were leased for fixed money rental, 195 for a contingent money rental, the remainder being operated under some other form of traffic agreement. The tendency toward consolidation is shown by the fact that 28 roads were merged, 20 roads were reorganized, and 16 roads consolidated into other systems. There were 42 operating companies having a mileage in excess of 1,000 miles. The capitalization of the roads reporting was \$10,506,235,410, equivalent to \$63,421 per mile of line.

The number of passengers carried was 593,560,612, and the number of tons of freight carried was 745,119,482. The gross earnings were \$1,220,751,874, the operating expenses \$827,921,299, leaving net earnings of \$392,830,575, which is equivalent to \$2,314 per mile of line. Adding to this the income from other sources to the amount of \$149,649,615, gives as the amount available for the payment of fixed charges and dividends \$542,482,190. From this there were paid \$431,422,126 as fixed charges; dividends and other payments from net income, to the amount of \$102,941,289, leaving a surplus of \$8,116,745. The number of employees was 873,602, being an increase over the previous year of 52,187. The number of employees killed was 2,727, an increase of 173, and the number injured was 31,728, an increase of 3,462. The number of passengers killed was 299, being a decrease of 77; the number injured was 3,229, being an increase of only 2 over the previous year.

GOVERNMENT OWNERSHIP OF RAILROADS.

THE facts set forth in the subjoined extract are taken from the partial report of the Interstate Commerce Commission on the government ownership of railroads sent to the United States Senate in response to a resolution passed by that body, August 24, 1894.

The Tribune. (New York, N. Y.)

The report of the Interstate Commerce Commission says that there are 18 countries which partly own and operate their railroads, viz: Argentina, Australia, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Cape of Good Hope, Chile, Denmark,

France, Germany, Guatemala, India, Japan, Norway, Portugal, Russia, and Sweden. Ten neither own nor operate them, viz: Colombia, Great Britain and Ireland, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, United States and Uruguay. Greece, Holland, and Italy own their roads, but do not operate

them, leasing them out to private companies. In the former list the percentage of roads owned and conducted by the various governments is not given in full, though in Russia it is said to be nearly one half of the entire system, and a like condition prevails in Austria and Germany. In the latter country the government is required to manage the roads in the interest of general traffic on a single system. In Austria, on the expiration of charters not exceeding ninety years, the lines and lands of the company revert to the government; but the equipment remains the property of the private owners. The government fixes the tariff on all traffic, has power to revise it at will, and must by law reduce the rates when the earnings exceed 15 per cent. The cost of freight carriage in a number of countries is given, being in Great Britain 2.80 cents per ton per mile; in France, 2.20; in Germany, 1.64, and in the United States, 1 cent. In the matter of interest on capital invested, England pays 4.1 per cent; France, 3.8; Germany, 5.1; Russia, 5.3; Austria, 1; Belgium, 4.6; United States, 3.1, the aggregate system of the world paying 3.2 per cent.

The management of the roads by the government is not always, nor in a majority of cases, found to be advantageous economically, though in some it is important for various public reasons, among them that of defense standing foremost. In this country several of the states have tried ownership in a limited way and not found it satisfactory. Illinois built a road costing a million, but was glad to sell it for 10 per cent of the cost; and Indiana had a similar experience. Georgia now owns a road, but it is leased to a private company. Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Michigan, and several other states have tried like experiments, but all found them failures. In the above recitement it is notable that the United States has reduced the carriage of freight to the lowest point enumerated, but seems not to have made a like score in the matter of passengers, ranking in that particular about equal with Great Britain, France, and Germany, when their various classes into which our traveling multitudes are not divided, are averaged. In the matter of interest we are below all the principal countries except Austria; and in extent of mileage and capitalization greatly exceed any of them.

COLONEL INGERSOLL AND CHRISTIANITY.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

COLONEL INGERSOLL has not yet destroyed Christianity. There is unprecedented activity in the religious world, and propagators of the faith, including the Salvationists, Endeavorers, and Associationists, are more successful than they have been at any other time within our memory. At that sinful little place, Yonkers, business had to be suspended and the mills closed for two days to give the people opportunity to attend the great meetings held since the beginning of the extraordinary religious revival there. Another illustration: It is from the Roman Catholic Church here. The golden jubilee of the Apostleship of Prayer League of the Sacred Heart was celebrated last week in the city as at other

places; and before the church in which the celebration was held here had been opened on Tuesday morning a multitude of people, far greater than could be admitted, stood in the vicinity waiting to enter the sacred edifice. We are informed that there are 2,000,000 members of this Prayer League in the United States, and tens of millions in other countries. We could fill *The Sun* any day with reports of the advancement and strengthening and manifestations of religious faith or piety here and elsewhere. Our humorous fellow-citizen, Colonel Ingersoll, must have observed that, despite the efforts of the unbelieving and moonstruck philosophers and scientists whose voices are heard everywhere, religion is yet a mighty power in our own country and all over the earth.

THE CATHOLIC CHURCH AND THE SALOON.

(Meth.) The Christian Advocate. (New York, N. Y.)

What is the attitude of the Roman Catholic Church toward the saloon? This is an interesting question. Recent events have intensified the interest of all Christians in this question, but have not solved the problem. Archbishop Ireland undertakes to answer this question and explain the situation in a recent magazine article. He declares that the Catholic Church does not assert that the moderate and "legitimate use of intoxicating drinks" is a sin; nor does the church pronounce the manufacture and sale of these drinks a sin; but, according to this prelate, the Catholic Church does teach that

intemperance is a sin. He holds that "the Catholic Church renounces her own life and principles when she ceases to combat with all her might intemperance, its causes and alliances. The American saloon is her foe; between her and the saloon there can be no truce."

This is strong language. If it fairly represents the Catholic Church on this question, it indicates a new departure. The archbishop goes further, and says that the Catholic Church "stands on record as the determined foe of the American saloon." This is important. Where may the record be found? In the action of the Third Plenary Council of Balti-

more and in the recent action of the bishop of Columbus, American Christians took note of the significant action of the Third Plenary Council of Baltimore, and watched closely to see whether any good results followed. They have watched in vain.

A church which wishes to be counted on the side of the opponents of the saloon must do more than pass resolutions. It must show a clean record. It must exclude the saloon from within its pale. According to the statement of a Catholic priest who sat with the excise commissioners in Boston a few years ago, and took the names of the applicants for license to sell liquor in that city, more than three fourths of them were members of the Roman Catholic Church.

If the Catholic Church really desires to purge

itself from this stain, the way is open. Not a saloon keeper in the United States will be found claiming membership in the Methodist Episcopal Church. When the Roman Catholic Church really means to be rid of the saloon she will follow this example.

So long as saloon-keepers are officials in church societies, marshals in church processions, chairmen of church meetings, and prominent laymen in the church; so long as liquor is sold at church fairs and picnics, and money raised by selling beer and whisky to build new churches, that denomination does not wish to separate itself from this accursed business. Individual members, priests, and bishops may deplore the situation, and endeavor to explain the case and palliate the evil, but the church is content to have it so.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

November 12. The steamship *St. Louis*, the largest ever constructed on the American continent is launched at Philadelphia.

November 13. The Annual Convention of the Knights of Labor opens at New Orleans.—A congress of the advocates of conciliation and arbitration in labor disputes meets in Chicago.

November 15. The National Grange, Patrons of Husbandry, begins its 28th annual session in Springfield, Ill.—The Baptist Congress opens its session in Detroit, Mich.

November 20. General Master Workman Sovereign re-elected at the Knights of Labor Convention.

November 23. The new commercial treaty between Japan and the United States is signed in Washington by Secretary of State Gresham and the Japanese minister.

November 24. The discovery is made that Samuel C. Seeley, a bookkeeper of the Shoe and Leather Bank, New York, is a defaulter in the sum of \$354,000. His supposed accomplice, a lawyer named Baker, was drowned at Flushing, L. I.

November 26. The Transmississippi Congress opens its 7th annual session at St. Louis, Mo.

December 1. John Burns, M. P., the English labor leader, arrives in New York.

December 3. The Lexow Committee reconvenes in New York and proceeds with the investigation of the New York Police Department.

December 4. John Gary Evans is inaugurated governor of South Carolina.

December 8. President Cleveland proclaims the ratification of the new Chinese treaty.—The second annual convention of the National Municipal League, for the promotion of good municipal government, opens at Minneapolis, Minn.

December 10. The American Federation of Labor opens its annual session at Denver, Col.

FOREIGN.

November 12. Czar Nicholas II. of Russia announces his intention of following the peace policy of his father and devoting his energy to the welfare of his people and country.

November 19. The final funeral services of the late Alexander III., czar of Russia, take place at St. Petersburg.

November 26. Czar Nicholas II. of Russia and Princess Alix of Hesse are married at St. Petersburg.

December 6. The French Senate by almost a unanimous vote adopts the bill appropriating 65,000,000 francs for the proposed campaign against Madagascar.

NECROLOGY.

November 16. Hon. Robert Charles Winthrop of Boston, Mass., the oldest surviving ex-United States senator from Massachusetts and the oldest surviving ex-speaker of the House of Representatives.

November 17. The Rev. Dr. W. S. T. Shedd, eminent as a theologian and scholar.

November 22. William Thompson Walters of Baltimore, Md., one of the most prominent and successful art collectors in the United States.

November 24. The Right Rev. W. B. W. Howe, bishop of the Episcopal church in South Carolina.

November 25. Jean Victor Duruy, senator of the French Republic and late minister of public instruction, an eminent historical writer.

November 27. Princess Johanna Frederika von Bismarck, wife of Prince Bismarck.

November 30. Hon. Joseph E. Brown, four times elected governor of Georgia, in 1857, '59, '61, and '63. Elected U. S. Senator in 1880, re-elected in 1884.

December 4. Hon. Leon Abbett, ex-governor of New Jersey.

December 8. Robert Louis Stevenson, the noted author.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR JANUARY.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First week (ending January 5).

"The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VIII. to page 179.

"From Chaucer to Tennyson." Chapter I.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Some Historic Landmarks of London."

"Christianity and English Institutions."

Second week (ending January 12).

"The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VIII. concluded.

"From Chaucer to Tennyson." Chapter II.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Aspects of Social Life in the East End of London."

"The Race Question in Austria."

Sunday Reading for January 6.

Third week (ending January 19).

"The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter IX. to page 209.

"From Chaucer to Tennyson." Chapter III. to page 79.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Count Moltke, Field Marshal."

Sunday Reading for January 13.

Fourth week (ending January 26).

"The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter IX. concluded.

"From Chaucer to Tennyson." Chapter III. concluded.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The World's Debt to Chemistry."

Sunday Reading for January 20.

Fifth week (ending February 2).

"The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter X.

"From Chaucer to Tennyson." Chapter IV. to page 111.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Scott's 'Monastery.'"

"Great City Railroads."

Sunday Reading for January 27.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Paper—Sketch of Queen Mary of England.
2. Reading—Selections from Tennyson's play, "Queen Mary."
3. A study—Review in rhetoric. (1.) Figures defined and an example of each given: Simile, metaphor, allegory, antithesis, epigram, metonymy, synecdoche, interrogation, exclamation, apostrophe, personification, hyperbole, irony. (2.) Versification: verse, stanza, rhythm, rhyme,

blank verse, poetry,—epic, dramatic, lyric, elegiac, pastoral, and didactic.

4. Discussion—Did Henry VIII. merit the unenviable position which history has given him?
5. Table Talk—The President's Message.*

CHAUCER DAY—JANUARY 7.

"Renowned Spenser, lie a thought more nigh
To learned Chaucer, and, rare Beaumont, lie
A little nearer Spenser, to make room
For Shakespeare in your threefold, fourfold tomb."

1. Prologue. A brief sketch of Chaucer and an account of his works. An outline of the Canterbury Tales; in the prologue there is a sort of "picture gallery" of the characters, from which a graphic account may be drawn.
2. The story of Palamon and Arcite, from the Knights Tale.
3. The story of Constance, from the Man of Lawes Tale.
4. The story of Griselda, from the Clerkes Tale.
5. The story of Saint Cecilia, from the Secounde Nonnes Tale.
6. The story of Little Hew of Lincoln, from the Prioresses Tale.

THIRD WEEK.

1. Character sketch—Mary Queen of Scots.
2. Discussion—Which of the two sister queens committed the more heinous deed, Mary in the execution of Lady Jane Grey, or Elizabeth in that of Mary Queen of Scots?
3. Book review—Walter Scott's "Woodstock."
4. Reading—Tennyson's "Morte D'Arthur," or Macaulay's poem "The Armada."
5. Debate—Resolved: That the government should own and control newspapers.*

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Character sketch—Oliver Cromwell.
2. Book review—Scott's "Old Mortality."
3. Paper—Shakespeare as an English historian.
4. Reading—Shakespeare's "Tempest," Act I.
5. Table Talk—The history of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union.*

FIFTH WEEK.

1. Table Talk—England in the time of the American Revolution.
2. Paper—English history in Scott's "Monastery."
3. A study in literature—The selections from Francis Bacon, Ben Jonson, and Beaumont and Fletcher, found in the appendix to the text-book, "From Chaucer to Tennyson."
4. Questions and Answers in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
5. Debate—Resolved: That college football should be abolished.*

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR JANUARY.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

P. 167. "Henry VII." The genealogical table on page 146 of the text-book shows clearly how slight was the claim to the English crown which this king pushed to a successful issue. Margaret Beaufort, mother of Henry VII., was the great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt, through an illegitimate line, which was legitimized by a papal bull, a charter from Richard III., and an act of Parliament. Edmund Tudor, whom she married, the father of Henry VII., was the son of Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman, and Catharine of France, whom he married after the death of her husband, Henry V. of England.

P. 171. "Legatine." Pertaining to a legate; "specifically applied to certain ecclesiastical laws enacted in national synods in England under the presidency of legates [or delegates] from the pope."

P. 172. "Wolsey's fall." The part taken by Wolsey in the matter of the divorce brought upon him the enmity of Anne Boleyn, who used all of her influence against him. Brought to trial on some pretended charge, he was obliged to transfer all of his personal estate to the king. Later he was arrested on charge of high treason, and while being conveyed to London he became so ill that it was necessary to stop at Leicester. Three days after, he died there at the monastery.

P. 174. "The Six Articles." Transubstantiation, the truth of which was asserted in the first article, is defined in a note on page 366 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for December. By "communion of one kind," spoken of in the second article, is meant the use of but one element in the communion. "The term is applied to the practice of the Roman Catholic Church in which the celebrant [the chief officiating priest] receives the communion in both kinds but administers only the wafer to the people." Private mass designates such a celebration of the Lord's Supper as is made in low mass, not being accompanied by music and incense as in high mass, usually celebrated in a private oratory, and in which only the priest administers the elements. Auricular confession is "the act of confessing sins to a priest for the purpose of receiving absolution."

"Henry's fourth marriage." This was with Anne of Cleves, from whom he was soon divorced. Anne Boleyn had been beheaded; his third wife, Jane Seymour, died. For his fifth, he took Catharine Howard, who was soon beheaded for being untrue to the king, and then he married Catharine Parr, who outlived him. Queen Elizabeth was the daugh-

ter of Anne Boleyn, and Edward VI. was the son of Jane Seymour.

P. 175. "Sacred images." These were statues of the Virgin Mary or of the saints, and the crucifix.

P. 176. "Missal." The book containing all the liturgical forms necessary for celebrating mass throughout the year.—"Breviary." "A book containing the prayers to be used at the canonical hours; an abridgement of the services of the early church, which from their great length were exhausting. It is made up largely of the Psalms, passages of the Old and New Testaments, and the fathers, hymns, anthems, etc., all in Latin, arranged for the various seasons and festivals of the church."

"Chuntries." Churches or chapels which were in early times endowed with lands or revenues for the maintenance of priests to say or to sing mass daily for the souls of the donors or for persons named by them. In later times the name was applied to a chapel attached to a church in which prayer and song services, Sunday school, and other special meetings are held.

P. 182. "The Thirty-nine Articles." "A statement of the particular points of doctrine, thirty-nine in number, maintained by the Church of England."

"The Test Act." "It made all ineligible to hold office under the crown who did not take the oaths of supremacy and allegiance, or receive the sacrament according to the usage of the Church of England, or subscribe the declaration against transubstantiation. It was directed against Roman Catholics, but was applicable also to Dissenters. It was repealed in 1828."

P. 190. "Edict of Nantes." An edict passed by Henry IV. of France, in 1598, to secure to Protestants the free exercise of their religion. In 1685 it was revoked by Louis XIV.

"Flemmings and Walloons." The names of the inhabitants of Flanders, and of the southern and southeastern parts of Belgium.

"The fall of Antwerp." In 1585 Antwerp capitulated after thirteen months' siege, one of the most eventful in history, to the duke of Parma, Spanish viceroy of the Netherlands. It was then the great center of European commerce and had a population of two hundred thousand or more.

P. 191. "Privateering." The practice of cruising in a privateer for hostile purposes. A privateer is an armed vessel "owned and officered by private persons, but acting under a commission from the state, usually called letters of marque. It answers to a company on land raised and commanded by pri-

vate persons, but acting under regulations emanating from the supreme authority."

"Buccaneering raids." Raids conducted by pirates or freebooters. Especially, the piratical adventures made chiefly by the French and British against the Spaniards in America. The word is from the French *boucan*, a kind of gridiron for smoking meat, or a place where meat is smoked. The early French settlers in America were driven from their business of hunting wild cattle and curing their flesh (bucaning), by the Spaniards; and they formed themselves into companies of *buccaneers* to make depredations on the Spanish. Hence the word.

"Sea-dogs." Pirates, privateers.

P. 194. "Wore a manor on their backs." See the same idea expressed in Shakespeare's "Henry VIII.," Act I, Scene I., in Buckingham's description of the Field of the Cloth of Gold.

P. 198. "The Gunpowder Plot." Guy Fawkes was associated with Catesby, Thomas Percy, Thomas Winter, John Wright, and others in this plot, "the object of which was to kill the king and the members of Parliament. The conspirators managed to fill a cellar under the Parliament House with barrels of gunpowder, which was to be exploded by Fawkes at the opening of Parliament. He was arrested as he was entering the cellar on the night of November 4-5, and after trial was executed with several of his accomplices."

P. 203. "Star Chamber." This court of civil and criminal jurisdiction was so called because the ceiling was originally decorated with stars. In the time of Henry VIII. a statute declared that the king's proclamation should have the force of law and that offenders might be punished by the ordinary members of the council sitting with certain bishops and judges in the Star Chamber.

"*Rex was lex.*" The king was law.

P. 227. "The Jac' o-bite cause." The cause of James II. after he abdicated his throne, and of his descendants.

P. 237. "Manifesto." A public declaration, as of a king or government or of a person or company of persons, making known certain opinions or intentions in reference to some act or course of conduct; a proclamation.

"FROM CHAUCER TO TENNYSON."

P. 7. "Vocabulary." From a Latin word meaning a name, a designation. A list or collection of the words of a language, a dialect, or of any special work.

P. 8. "Wort-cunning." The Old English or Saxon word for flower or root was wort. It is very common now in the old botanical names of plants, as liverwort, bonewort, etc.

"Inflections." The changes undergone by words to express the relations of case, number, gender, etc.

The inflection of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns is called declension; that of verbs, conjugation.

P. 9. "Cos-mo-pol'i-tan." From two Greek words meaning the world and citizen. Common to all the world not limited to any region; at home everywhere; widely distributed.

"Alliterating." See note on page 365 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for December.

"Scôp." Singer; poet.

P. 10. "Fen." Low land covered or partly covered with water, but on which sedge, coarse grasses, or other aquatic plants grow; boggy or marshy land.

P. 11. "Stark." Severe, strong, stalwart.

P. 12. "*Roman de Rou.*" Romance of Rollo.

"*Jongleur*" [jon'gler]. A minstrel.

"*Taillefer*" [tây-fâr].

P. 13. "*Chanson*" [shân-son]. French for song. "*Sä'gas.*" Scandinavian legends; northern European popular tales of olden times.

"Vikings." Rovers or sea-robbers belonging to bands of Northmen who infested the seas during the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries and made settlements in various European countries.

"Bayeux tapestry." See note on page 105 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October.

"Stroph'ic." Consisting of stro'phes, or metrical forms which are repeated in the course of a poem; also a stanza in modern poetry.

"Alexandrine." A kind of verse consisting of twelve syllables, so called, it is said either from Alexander Paris an old French poet or from poems written by him, and others in this style on Alexander the Great.

P. 14. "*Säs'sē-nach.*" Another form of the word Saxon.

"Cymry" [kim'ry].

P. 15. "*Æ-nē'as.*" The hero of Virgil's epic, who on leaving Troy at the time of its destruction went to Italy and founded Rome.

P. 19. "*Mariolatry.*" The worship of the Virgin Mary.

"Hagiology" [hä-ji-ol'o-jy]. From two Greek words meaning a saint and to speak. The name is applied to that branch of literature which treats of the saints, and their lives and legends.

P. 20. "Geste." The verb means to relate gestes or adventures.

P. 21. "Ap-par'i-tors." The lowest officers of an ecclesiastical tribunal; a summoner.

"Tonsured." Having the head shaven as a sign that the candidate has taken the preparatory step to entering the priesthood or embracing monastic life. It signified admittance to the clerical state or monastic order.

"Allegory." A description of one thing under the image of another; a sort of continued metaphor. A fine example of allegory is found in the eightieth Psalm, verses 8-13 inclusive.

"Sim'o-ny." The art of trafficking in holy things, especially the buying or selling of ecclesiastical preferment.

P. 22. "MSS." The abbreviation for manuscripts; MS. standing for the singular form, manuscript.

P. 25. "Parlament of Foules." That is, "Parliament of Fowls."

P. 27. "Reeve." A steward, prefect, bailiff, a business agent.

"Fabliaux" [fäb-le-o]. The metrical tales of the trouvères.

P. 29. "Auctours." An obsolete form of authors. "Näive" [nä-ëv]. Ingenuous, artless.

P. 31. "Governail." Government, management.

P. 37. "Ex-cal'i-bur." The name of King Arthur's sword.

P. 38. "Ascham" [as'kam].

P. 39. "La Belle Pucel" or *pucelle*. The beautiful maid.

"Rabelais" [rä-blä]. (1495-1553.) A French philosopher and satirist.

P. 40. "Hu'man-ist." One accomplished in literary and classical culture; especially one of the scholars who in the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, studied classical literature. Also a student of human nature, or of matters of human interest.

"Elycon's well." More commonly spoken of as Helicon's stream. Helicon was the grove or the mountain of the Muses, situated according to mythology in the mountains of Parnassos; and the stream which flowed down from it formed the two fountains of Helicon from which the Muses drank. To drink of Helicon's well signifies the being endowed with the poetic gift.

P. 41. "*Fera natura*." A Latin expression meaning of a wild nature.

P. 45. "Demetrius Chalcondyles" [kal-kon'de-les]. A Greek scholar who after the fall of Constantinople fled to Florence.

P. 49. "Rue." To have compassion.

"Archaisms" [är'ka-iz'ms]. A Greek derivative. Ancient, antiquated words or expressions.

P. 50. "Eclogues." Poetical compositions in which shepherds are introduced, conversing with one another.

"Bu-col'ics." Poems of rural scenes and occupations, sometimes allegorical. The word is from the Greek for cowherd.

P. 52. "Ep'ös." An epic.

"Ham-a-dry'ads." Tree nymphs.

"Sa'tyrs." Sylvan deities or demigods, represented as part man and part goat.

P. 53. "*Ottava rima*" [ot-tä'vä rē'mä]. An Italian form of versification consisting of eight lines, the first six of which rhyme alternately and the last two form a couplet.

J-Jan.

P. 54. "Sim'i-les." Comparisons, the likening of one thing to another.

"Ep-i-phyt'ic." Of the nature of an epiphyte or air plant.

P. 56. "Ag-ö-nis'tēs."

P. 58. "Pē-nā'tēs." The household gods of the ancient Romans.

"Tri'tons." Sea demigods.

"Nēi'rē-ids." Sea nymphs.

"Di-ä'na." Goddess of the moon and the chase.

"Ac-tē'on." A hunter who surprised Diana while she was bathing in the forest and was changed by her into a stag and torn to pieces by his own dogs.

"Neptune." The god of the sea.

P. 59. "Antithesis." An opposition or contrast of words or sentences.

"Alliteration." See note on the word alliterative in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for December, page 365.

"Met'a-phors." Compressed similes; the word denoting comparison is omitted, as in the following example,—

"All the world 's a stage."

P. 61. "Hēl-lēn'ic Pēl-o-pon-nē'sus." The Grecian Poloponnesus, the latter word being the name of the southern part of Greece, now called the Morea.

P. 63. "Singed the Spanish king's beard." The expressive phrase used by Sir Francis Drake concerning this action which "in the course of two nights and one day had sunk, burnt, or captured shipping of ten thousand tons lading." The expression means, to deal a stinging insult.

"El Dorado." Golden illusion; a land of unbounded wealth. One of the lieutenants of Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru, pretended he had discovered a land of gold in South America.

P. 64. "Hakluyt" [hāk'loot].

"*Magnum opus*." Latin for great work.

P. 65. "*Hic jacet*." The first two words of inscriptions on tombstones; Latin for here lies.

"*Saeva indignatio*." Latin, fierce indignation.

P. 67. "Inductive philosophy." "The name given by Bacon to science founded on induction [which is the process of drawing a general conclusion from particular cases] or observation; experimental science."

P. 68. "*Lumen siccum*." Latin for dry light.

P. 70. "Rö-cö'cö." "A variety of ornament originating in the Louis-Fourteenth style and continuing with constantly increasing inorganic exaggeration and extravagance throughout the artistic degeneracy of Louis Fifteenth." Florid, fantastic.

P. 72. "*Suave, mari magno*," etc. Latin,

"'Tis pleasant, when the sea is rough, to stand
And see another's danger, safe at land."

"Miracle plays." Religious and allegorical plays which constituted the drama of the Middle Ages. The subjects were either the stories of the Bible or legends of the saints.

P. 73. "Passion Play." A miracle play representing scenes in the passion [suffering] of Christ.

"Juventus." Youth.

P. 76. "Bohemian." Any person, but especially an artist or a literary man, who leads a free and easy life, often a dissipated one, having little regard to what society he keeps, and despising conventionality. So called because partaking somewhat of the nature of the Bohemians, or gipsies.

P. 78. "Mēph-is-tōph'ē-lēs."

"O, *lente*," etc. Run slowly, slowly, steeds of night.

"Æschylean" [ēs-ki-lē'an]. Resembling Æschylus, a famous Greek poet who lived in the sixth century, B. C.

P. 82. "Nem'e-sis." The goddess of vengeance.

P. 83. "*Le Malade Imaginaire*." The imaginary invalid.

"An-tiph'o-li." Twin brothers, Antipholus of Ephesus and Antipholus of Syracuse.

P. 90. "*Le médecin malgré lui*." The doctor in spite of himself.

P. 99. "The Borgias" [bor'jas]. An Italian family of the fifteenth century, several of whose members, Cesare, Francesco, Lucrezia, were guilty of murder, perfidy, and other heinous crimes.

"Cence" [chen'che]. An Italian family of the sixteenth century, the head of which was a dissipated and passionate man who treated his family with such cruelty that they combined to bring about his death. For this murder his wife, son, and daughter were hanged. Beatrice, the daughter, is a favorite subject in poetry and art.

P. 101. "Quin'cunx." An arrangement of five objects in a square, one at each corner and one in the middle; used especially of trees set out in such positions.

"Lozenge." A plane figure with four equal sides having two acute and two obtuse angles; called also a diamond, a rhomb.

"*Religio medici*." A physician's religion.

P. 104. "The A-run'del marbles." A collection of ancient sculptures and antiquities made by Thomas Howard, earl of Arundel, and given to the University of Oxford in 1667.

P. 105. "Anagrams." From two Greek words meaning back and to write. Literally the letters of a word read backward, as evil is the anagram of live. More commonly, the transposition of the letters of a word or a sentence, as, Galenus is an anagram of angelus.

"Conceptistas." A sect composed of mystics who expressed themselves in puns and metaphors alike in the pulpit and in poetry.

P. 106. "Hy-per'bōl-ēs." Extravagant statements, exaggerations.

"Paradoxes." Statements which at first view seem absurd, or at variance with common sense. A good example is found in II. Corinthians VI., 9 and 10.

"Cas'u-ist-ry." The answering of questions of conscience; or, over-subtle and dishonest reasoning; sophistry.

"Dialectics." Skill in disputation.

P. 108. "Letter press." Printed text; so called when it is made subordinate to or in contrast with illustrations.

P. 109. "*Carpe diem*." Latin. Enjoy the present day.

"Anthologies." See note on page 369 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for December.

"Apostrophe." The interruption of the course of a speech or writing in order to address a person or persons; hence, any abrupt, interjectional speech.

P. 110. "Pindaric ode." An ode in irregular or constantly changing meter, written after the style of Pindar, a Greek poet of the fifth century, B. C.

"*Calum Britannicum*." The British sky.

P. 111. "Persiflage." Light, flippant banter; a frivolous or jeering style.

REQUIRED READINGS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"SOME HISTORIC LANDMARKS OF LONDON."

1. "Yō'kel." A rustic, or country man.

2. "Talk shop over the way." The Parliament Buildings.

3. "Crypt." A subterranean chapel, generally vaulted, serving as a place of burial.

4. "Al'mon-ry." A room in a monastic building used for the distribution of alms.

5. "Jane Shore." "After the death of Edward IV. she became attached to Lord Hastings, and when Richard III. had resolved on the destruction of that nobleman he accused Jane Shore of witchcraft and of having [withered his arm by sorcery." For this she was condemned to do public penance. It is related that she died of hunger in a ditch in the time of Henry VIII.

6. "Walhalla" [väl-häl'lä]. "Originally the

realm of the dead, it became in the viking age a warriors' paradise to which only those go who are slain in battle."

"THE RACE QUESTION IN AUSTRIA."

1. "Cisleithan" [sis-lī'tan]. On the Austrian side of the river Leitha.

2. "Taafe." [Tä'fe.] Count Edward von Taaffe was born at Prague in 1833. He was an Austrian statesman of Irish descent. He entered the Austrian ministry in 1867, was made premier in 1869, in which position he served only a few months, resuming his position as minister of the interior; in 1871 he became governor of Tyrol; and was again made premier in 1879, holding the position until October, 1893.

3. "Pro-tag'o-nists." From two Greek words meaning first and combatant or actor. The leading

actors in a play; hence leading characters in a general sense.

4. "Hapsburg." The name of the princely family which has furnished sovereigns for the Holy Roman Empire, Austria, and Spain.

5. "Young Czech Movement." A movement which claims a greater power of self-rule for Bohemia as a means of checking the dreaded preponderance of German influence in that country. The Young Czechs are striving for a national autonomy similar to that granted to Hungary. They wish the Austrian emperor to be crowned king at Prague, the capital of Bohemia, as he was at Buda-Pesth.

6. "Id'Y-oms." A mode of expression peculiar to a language; the particular cast of a language; a dialect.

"COUNT MOLTKE, FIELD MARSHAL."

1. "Thiergarten" [tyär'gar-ten]. A park with large trees and well kept walks which is entered from the street *Unter den Linden* through the magnificent Brandenburg Gate.

2. "Billy-cock hat." A stiff, round, low felt hat.

3. "Co-los'sus." A statue of gigantic size; specifically, the statue of Apollo at Rhodes which was so immense as to have been placed among the seven wonders of the world. The great extent of Russia makes very appropriate the application to her of this word.

4. "*Au fond*." French. At the bottom.

5. "*Pékin*." French. A contemptuous term for civilian.

6. "*Unisono*." Italian for unison.

7. "*Junker*" [yung'ker]. A young German noble or squire.

8. "Roons." Count Roon (1803-1879) was a German soldier and statesman, the military instructor of Prince Frederick Charles. In 1856 he was made major general. He won great glory in the Franco-Prussian war for his wonderful powers as organizer. In 1873 he was made president of the council, which position he resigned to Bismarck in 1874, and retired to private life on his estates.

9. "*Bêtise*." French for stupidity, tom-foolery.

10. "Gravelotte" [grav-lot]. A village in Germany where on August 18, 1870, was fought perhaps the bloodiest and most hotly contested battle of the Franco-Prussian War.

"THE WORLD'S DEBT TO CHEMISTRY."

1. Alchemists [äl'ke-mists]. Those versed in alchemy, the ancient name for chemistry. "During the Middle Ages this was a mysterious science or art, aiming to change inferior metals into silver and gold [by means of some substance which was thought to exist and which was called the philosopher's stone] and to find the so called elixir of life, which was to be the universal remedy for all possible diseases,

rejuvenating the old, and even preventing death."

2. "Tyro." A Latin word for a newly levied soldier. Hence a beginner in any branch of learning.

3. "Qualitative." Relating to the possession of qualities without any reference to the quantity involved.

4. "Sa-pon'i-fy-ing." Converting into soap. The word soap is derived from Latin *sapo*, the name for a pomade for the hair.

5. "Fulminating." A term used of certain chemical compounds which on being exposed to heat or being suddenly struck will explode with a loud report, because some of the constituent parts suddenly assume the gaseous state.

6. "Soho." A suburb of Birmingham, England, in which are located the famous iron works in which steam engines are made.

7. "Tinc-tō'r'i-al." Relating to coloring or dyeing.

8. "Synthetic results." Results combining in one substance radical and formative elements.

"SCOTT'S 'MONASTERY.'"

1. "*Par excellence*." By way of excellence.

2. "*Régime*" [rā-zhēm]. A French word, the method of management, administration, rule.

3. "Spanish Armada." See the text-book, "Growth of the English Nation," page 185.

4. "Hal'Y-dome." A name given to lands held by churches.

5. "Po-lem'ic." The noun is defined in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for December, page 365, though as used there it is more commonly written polemics. The adjective, as used here, means disputatious, argumentative.

6. "Kitchener." The superintendent of a kitchen.

7. "Commissariat." The whole department concerned in furnishing supplies.

8. "Saint George." A Christian martyr who suffered death under the Roman Diocletian in 303; nothing is known of his life. "He was honored in the Oriental churches, and under Edward III. was adopted as the patron saint of England, where he had been popular from the time of the early Crusades; for he was said to have come to the help of the Crusaders against the Saracens, under the walls of Antioch, 1089, and was then chosen by many Normans under Robert, son of William the Conqueror, as their patron . . . He was the Christian hero of the Middle Ages."

9. "Eu'phu-ism." See the text-book, "From Chaucer to Tennyson," page 59.

10. "Sidney," Sir Philip. See same book referred to above, page 61.

11. "Lyly" [lil'Y]. The author of "Euphues, the Anatomy of Wit."

12. "A'ri-el." "In the cabalistic [pertaining to the mystical philosophy of the Jews] demonology,

one of the seven princes of angels or spirits who preside over the waters under Michael the arch-prince;"—"in the fables of the Middle Ages, a spirit of the air, the guardian of innocence; in Shakes-

peare's 'Tempest,' an airy and tricky spirit, the messenger of Prospero, assuming any shape or rendering himself invisible, in order to execute the commands of his master."

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

1. Q. What conception of government disappeared with the fifteenth century? A. That of Christendom as a great commonwealth ruled by pope and emperor.

2. Q. In what lay the security of Henry VII. to the throne of England? A. In the lack of any powerful rival and in the political exhaustion of the country.

3. Q. As a result of the cautious, if inglorious, policy of his father, under what conditions did Henry VIII. become king? A. He found a secure throne, a full treasury, and a prosperous people.

4. Q. Whose conception was the home and foreign policy of the reign of Henry VIII.? A. That of Thomas Wolsey, chancellor and cardinal.

5. Q. What was his aim? A. To make the king absolute in England, England first in Europe.

6. Q. How did England first show that she felt the impulse of the Reformation? A. Associations were formed for the study and circulation of Tyndale's translation of the Bible.

7. Q. What was the immediate occasion of the separation of England from the Roman Catholic church? A. The royal divorce.

8. Q. What was the final step establishing the separation? A. The passing of the Act of Supremacy, making the king "the only supreme head on earth of the Church of England."

9. Q. Did Henry VIII. by this act abandon Catholic doctrines? A. No, under the "whip with six strings" Protestants suffered persecution for denial of mass, while stanch Catholics suffered for denial of the supremacy.

10. Q. What important change in the church services was made in the time of Edward VI.? A. The substitution of the English language for the Latin.

11. Q. What marked the accession of Mary to the throne? A. A reaction toward Catholicism even more violent than that toward Protestantism under Edward VI. had been.

12. Q. How did Mary look upon herself? A. As the one preserved by God in the succession of the crown to bring back the realm to the true faith.

13. Q. How did she force her views upon the nation? A. By means of persecution, which raged from 1555 to 1558.

14. Q. What matrimonial alliance strengthened Mary in her religious zeal? A. Her marriage to Philip II. of Spain.

15. Q. How came this alliance to cost the English the loss of Calais, their last stronghold in France? A. On account of it England was involved in war with France and the latter country recaptured Calais.

16. Q. How did Elizabeth approach the extreme religious questions at the beginning of her reign? A. With the temper of a politician.

17. Q. How did she arrange matters? A. The supremacy was restored, mass abolished, and the use of King Edward's Prayer Book decreed.

18. Q. What serious menace to Elizabeth's throne arose? A. Mary Stuart, the wife of Francis II. of France, assumed the title Queen of England.

19. Q. What was the fate of this Scotch queen? A. Held a prisoner for eighteen years in England she was executed in 1587.

20. Q. What was the chief instrument of the purified papacy in winning Christendom back to the Romish church? A. The Society of Jesus, or the Jesuits.

21. Q. What stand did the pope take against Elizabeth? A. He issued a bull of excommunication against her and absolved her subjects from their allegiance.

22. Q. What was the result of the enterprise of Philip II. undertaken with a view to force England back to the Catholic faith? A. Failure owing to the destruction of the Invincible Armada.

23. Q. What religious party in the Anglican church rapidly rose to great prominence? A. The Puritans.

24. Q. How is Elizabeth characterized as a ruler? A. As one who, sacrificing personal happiness and ambition, labored with masculine intellect and womanly devotion for her nation.

25. Q. What had made possible the development of London into the leading mart of the world? A. The destruction of Antwerp by Alva.

26. Q. Name one statute by which England sustained the manufacture of woollen goods. A. It was decreed that on every Sunday and holy day every person six years old and upwards should wear a cap of wool fully wrought in England.

27. Q. How did the English government sustain

the fisheries, seeing in them the best school for seamanship? A. By a statute making the eating of flesh on Friday and Saturday a misdemeanor.

28. Q. What was the effect of the policy pursued by King James I.? A. It outraged every popular instinct and frustrated every popular wish.

29. Q. How did his twenty years of high hand ruling end? A. With his impeachment and dethronement.

30. Q. What was the machinery through which Charles I. and his secular and religious advisors, Wentworth and Laud, carried out their policy? A. The privy council and the courts of the Star Chamber and High Commission.

31. Q. When did the long Parliament begin its sitting? A. In November, 1640.

32. Q. Who formed the two parties during the civil war that followed? A. The king with most of the nobility, many of the gentry, the High Church party, and the border counties were the Royalists; Parliament, some of the upper classes, the townspeople and the yeomanry were the Roundheads.

33. Q. How did the great rebellion end? A. With the execution of Charles I. and the establishment of the Commonwealth with Cromwell at its head.

34. Q. What led to the fall of the Commonwealth and to the Restoration? A. The nation grew tired of army rule.

35. Q. What was the guiding principle of Charles II.? A. Never to press matters to the point of endangering his crown; so his reign was marked by constitutional progress.

36. Q. How did the English people answer the attempt of James II. to restore the Catholic religion by the issue of the Declarations of Indulgence? A. By the revolution of 1688 and the calling of William and Mary to the throne.

37. Q. What did the revolution of 1688 mark? A. The overthrow of the theory of the divine right of kings.

38. Q. What were the two great political parties from this time on through the reigns of Anne and the Georges? A. The Whigs and the Tories.

39. Q. Mention some great ministers who held power in England during this time. A. Marlborough, Walpole, North, and the two Pitts.

40. Q. What two great historical events occurred during the reign of George III.? A. The American Revolution and the French Revolution.

— FROM CHAUCER TO TENNYSON. —

1. Q. What made a break in the natural growth of the English language and literature? A. The Norman conquest.

2. Q. Where are the sources of modern standard English to be found? A. In Cambridge and other shires of the East Midland where the Anglican lan-

guage had been corrupted by the Danish and had thrown off its inflections.

3. Q. What is the most noteworthy English document of the eleventh and twelfth centuries? A. The continuation of the Saxon Chronicle.

4. Q. How was the thread of the nation's history kept up for three hundred years after the discontinuance of the Chronicle? A. By Latin chronicles.

5. Q. What English poet gives a *resumé* of the reigns of fabulous British kings? A. Spenser, in the second book of his "Faerie Queene."

6. Q. Who was the favorite hero of English romance? A. The mythical Arthur of Britain.

7. Q. What church legend became the subject of early romance? A. That of the Sangrael, or holy cup.

8. Q. What leading modern English poets have given a more spiritual treatment and a more artistic handling to this old romance? A. Tennyson, Matthew Arnold, and Swinburne.

9. Q. What was the first extended literary work after the Conquest that was purely English in character? A. "Piers Plowman."

10. Q. How is Chaucer ranked in literature? A. As next after Dante the greatest poet of medieval Europe.

11. Q. How is the framework of the "Canterbury Tales" described? A. As one of the happiest ever devised.

12. Q. What is said of Chaucer as an emotional writer? A. He is the first great English master of laughter and tears.

13. Q. What gives some probability to the thought that Chaucer shared in Wiclif's opinions? A. The fact that the poor parson in "Canterbury Tales" is the only one of his ecclesiastical characters whom he treats with respect.

14. Q. Is Chaucer's English hard for a modern reader? A. It is said to be nearly as easy as Shakespeare's.

15. Q. What is true in the history of every literature? A. The development of prose is later than that of verse.

16. Q. What four great events freed and widened men's minds and overthrew the system of medieval life and thought? A. The invention of printing, the Renaissance, the discovery of America, and the Reformation.

17. Q. Name the first book on oriental travel, the first on constitutional law, and the first history as distinct from a chronicle. A. "The Voiage and Travaille of Sir John Mandeville," "The Difference Between Absolute and Limited Monarchy," by Sir John Fortescue, and More's "History of Edward V. and Richard III."

18. Q. How long a time passed after Chaucer's death before there was another English poet whose name was worthy of being written in the same line

with his? A. Nearly two hundred years, and then the poet was Edmund Spenser.

19. Q. Which one of Spenser's works announced the coming of the great original poet? A. "The Shepherd's Calendar."

20. Q. How is the "Faerie Queene" described? A. As reflecting more than any other English work the many-sided literary influences of the Renaissance.

21. Q. Why did Spenser make his allegory a double one, personal and historical, as well as moral and abstract? A. That he might compliment his patrons and secure contemporary interest.

22. Q. How are the personages in the "Faerie Queene" characterized? A. As being only richly colored figures, not characters.

23. Q. Where did Spenser find his realm? A. In the region of pure imagination.

24. Q. Why was the appellation Elizabethan poetry particularly apropos? A. Because Elizabeth was the central figure in the literature of her time, being idealized by the poets.

25. Q. Who was the first writer of poetic prose? A. Sir Philip Sidney.

26. Q. Who was the father of inductive philosophy? A. Francis Bacon.

27. Q. Who was the most important dramatist

preceding Shakespeare? A. Christopher Marlowe.

28. Q. How much is known of the life of Shakespeare? A. So little that it has been possible for ingenious persons to construct a theory that the plays passing under his name were written by some one else.

29. Q. How does Shakespeare rank in literature? A. As the greatest creative genius of all time.

30. Q. Under what name was the first collected edition of Shakespeare's works published? A. The "First Folio."

31. Q. How did Shakespeare probably begin his writings? A. By touching up old plays.

32. Q. How are Shakespeare's plays divided? A. Ten are historical: eight are semi-historical or legendary; nineteen are fictional. Of the whole number twenty are tragedies and the rest comedies.

33. Q. Who was the most remarkable of the dramatists contemporary with Shakespeare? A. Ben Jonson.

34. Q. Who were the most important of the Stuart dramatists? A. Beaumont and Fletcher.

35. Q. What is lacking in the prose and poetry of the period between Shakespeare and Milton? A. The free, exulting, creative impulse of the elder generation.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—IV.

1. By whom was the English essay brought to perfection?

2. What two celebrated Englishmen created the periodical essay?

3. Who is styled the first of biographers and what is his principal biography?

4. Who was "Monk Lewis"?

5. What was the first critical work of importance in English literature?

6. For what work was Dryden considered by Dr. Johnson the father of English criticism?

7. Who was the first great English satirist?

8. What is Bernesque poetry?

9. What well known poem is an example of Bernesque poetry?

10. Who was not only the most celebrated poetess of English literature, but of all literature?

WOMAN'S WORLD.—IV.

1. From the beginning of the world till the eighteenth century, A. D., what office in medical practice was without dispute relegated to women?

2. What led to the expulsion of women from the medical profession?

3. What woman first secured admission to the

study of medicine under a regular medical faculty? When and in what college?

4. What action of the London University put within reach of women a solid basis for their medical studies?

5. When and by whom was established the oldest existing woman's hospital in the world?

6. Who was the first woman delegate granted a seat in the American Medical Association? When?

7. Who was the first woman in this country to fill a lectureship in a man's medical school?

8. In what state and through whose personal efforts originated the movement for the appointment of women physicians in the female wards of insane asylums?

9. What has made the name of Dorothea Dix a household word in America?

10. What incentive does Johns Hopkins University offer to women physicians?

ART.—IV.

1. What was the chief motive for painting in early Christian times?

2. Where did the earliest Christian painting appear?

3. What was the significance of the representa-

tion of a fish found so frequently in early Christian art?

4. What is the favorite picture, the one recurring most frequently, in the Catacombs?

5. Why do not the faces in early Christian art show the passion which would make them true to their times?

6. Classic story was seized upon to illustrate Bible truth: what was Ulysses closing his ears to the sirens made to represent?

7. What is known in art as the Veronica?

8. Why did the Jews have no pictorial arts?

9. In the eighth century what controversy proved a deadly one for art?

10. What council in the early church re-established the lawfulness of the use of pictures in churches? What great English scholar assisted in a decision against pictures given at a subsequent council convoked by Charlemagne?

CURRENT EVENTS.—IV.*

1. Has the president's message to Congress always been given as now, in the form of a written address sent by the private secretary?

2. As the message gives little information what purpose does it serve?

3. The transactions in what department of the government accurately indicate the business fluctuations of the country?

4. Name some of the first group of war vessels that, soon after the Revolution, made the United States navy famous.

5. The advance squadron of the new fleet of these latter times included fourships which on account of their initial letters were called the A. B. C. D. of the new navy; what vessels were they?

6. The trial trip of what new cruiser, which placed her last July in the front rank of the fastest sea-going vessels of the world, won for her builders, the Cramps, \$402,500 in premiums, the highest amount ever earned by naval contractors?

7. When was the Department of Agriculture established?

8. During the bombardment of what city in 1842 did Ferdinand de Lesseps render great service to the sufferers of all nations, frequently exposing his life to save others, and receiving for his action decorations of honor from six governments?

9. In what did the Woman's Christian Temperance Union take its rise?

10. When did the national debt reach its highest figure?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR DECEMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—III.

1. William Tyndale's translation of the New Testa-

*This set of questions is based upon the topics treated in *Current History and Opinion* in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

ment in 1525. 2. The Letters of Junius, a series of famous political letters which first appeared in Woodfall's *Public Advertiser*, London, in 1769, and continued to be published until 1772. 3. Lord Chatham, Edmund Burke, Henry Grattan, Colonel Barré, Gibbon, the historian, John Horne Tooke, Horace Walpole, and Wedderburn, but chiefly to Sir Philip Francis, "against whom," Macaulay says, "the evidence would support a verdict in a criminal proceedings." 4. John Gower, the "Speculum Meditantis," in French; the "Vox Clamantis," in Latin; the "Confessio Amantis," in English. 5. As the greatest conversationalists known to English letters. 6. Richard Brinsley Butler Sheridan. 7. That of Francis Beaumont and John Fletcher, between whom there existed such a unity of feeling and identity of genius that critics were unable to assign their respective shares in their works. 8. "Epithalamium," by Edmund Spenser. 9. Sir Philip Sidney, "Arcadia" in 1590. 10. Tennyson's "Idylls of the King."

WOMAN'S WORLD.—III.

1. The Revolutionary War; Mrs. Margaret Craper. 2. Mrs. Ann S. Stephens; not till 1837. 3. *Una*; Mrs. Paulina Wright Davis and Mrs. Caroline H. Dall. 4. Mary A. Livermore and Julia Ward Howe. 5. "Jennie June" (Jennie Cunningham Croly). 6. As a historian and translator. 7. Philanthropic and reformatory movements. 8. Emily Faithful. 9. "George Sand" (Mme. Dudevant). 10. Jenny Hirsch, Fanny Lewald, Louise Mühlbach.

ART.—II.

1. From Greece. 2. No. 3. No. 4. Mummius. 5. Maecenas. 6. They were mostly carried to Constantinople and were subsequently destroyed, by conflagration or by accident. There is not one authenticated painting by any master of antiquity known to be in existence. 7. Portrait painting. 8. By the amount of work he could do in a day; and his work was chiefly copying Greek models. 9. The face of Augustus. 10. The volcanic eruption which buried Pompeii and Herculaneum.

CURRENT EVENTS.—III.

1. The Romanoff; to Rurik the founder of the Russian Empire, and to the vikings. 2. She is the daughter of Princess Alice, the third child of Queen Victoria. 3. One sixth. 4. The peaceful development of Russia and the happiness of his subjects. 5. The "worship of truth and peace." 6. He squarely opposes it. 7. In 1789, for benevolent and fraternal purposes. 8. That of Thomas Carlyle. 9. To the sterner methods of government advocated by Prince Bismarck. 10. The Chicago strike of last summer.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1898.

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

"The truth shall make you free."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. F. Crafts, Pittsburg, Pa.
Vice Presidents—Prof. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.; the Rev. J. B. Morton, Winter Park, Fla.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.; George P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.; Robert A. Miller, Canton, O.; Mrs. H. S. Hawes, Richmond, Va.

Recording Secretary—Miss Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.
Corresponding Secretary—Miss Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.

Treasurer—R. M. Alden, 625 Maryland Avenue, Washington, D. C.

Trustee—George Hukill, Oil City, Pa.

Historian—Miss Janette Trowbridge, New Haven, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—NASTURTIUM.

CLASS EMBLEM—A BLUE RIBBON.

FROM Connecticut a member of '95 writes: "I much regret my inability to fill out the white seal memoranda, but being greatly restricted in the use of my eyes, I found it impossible to do so this year. Debarred from courses of study requiring eyesight, I have found the C. L. S. C. a wonderful help and inspiration. I cannot speak too highly of its service to me."

FROM New York City: "I have read faithfully all the books and magazines for the past year and am glad 'I am in the army'. The three years' Chautauqua work has taught me to think more than I ever did before. Last year in connection with Chautauqua reading, I took a six months' course in German and hope to be able to take a course in French the coming winter."

CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

"Truth is eternal."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. Chas. C. Johnson, Arcade, N. Y.
Vice Presidents—R. C. Browning, Orange, N. J.; Mrs. Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Cynthia I. Boyd, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna Hodgson, Athens, Ga.; F. G. Lewis, Manitoba; Oliver Ellsworth, Niles, Cal.; Mrs. Wheaton Smith, Detroit, Mich.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Anna J. Young, 237 Wylie Ave., Pittsburg, Pa.

Recording Secretary—Miss Grace G. Merritt, Montclair, N. J.

Treasurer and Class Trustee—John A. Seaton, Glen Park Place, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

IT is always pleasant to hear from our members in the ranks of the army. A correspondent from Arizona writes: "I am a belated reader, but not a discouraged Chautauquan. I have changed stations so often since December last that I have failed to fill out memoranda for the past year. I shall continue to buy the prescribed reading, however, from year to year while I am able. My troop is under

marching orders, and within a few days will be en route for our new station, Fort Wingate, N. Mex." With the response to the above letter, circulars were sent to this Chautauquan, and the recent receipt of the name of a new member for the Class of '98 from Fort Wingate indicates that he is making good use of his opportunities.

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

OFFICERS.

President—Prof. F. J. Miller, University of Chicago.

Vice Presidents—Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss. ; Mrs. M. T. Gawthrop, Swarthmore, Pa.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, O.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; the Rev. James E. Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, New South Wales; Charles E. Boyd, Cambridge, Mass.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Dayton, O.

Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Meadville, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

THERE is satisfaction in enrolling in the ranks of the Romans those who have done the work for the past year but have not heretofore sent their names. We hope that any members who have studied the Roman year will not fail to identify themselves with the class. A member who has just entered our ranks in this way writes: "The Chautauqua work has been of the greatest possible comfort to me so far, and this year's course bids fair to be helpful indeed."

AN Iowa '97 writes: "I feel very anxious to complete my four years' work as thoroughly as possible. I consider the membership book a great help. I was a student at a normal school in Illinois but moved to Iowa and began teaching before I completed the course. I have always felt anxious to continue my education and in the Chautauqua movement I have found what I needed."

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Walter L. Hervey, New York City.

Vice Presidents—Clifford Lanier, Montgomery, Ala.; Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.; Dr. Richard T. Ely, Madison, Wis.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York City; the Rev. Mr. Parker, New Orleans, La.; Miss J. Solomon, South Africa; Miss Eliot Henderson, Montreal, Can.; the Rev. Mr. Chalfont, China; Dr. J. E. Williams, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Josephine R. Webber, Waltham, Mass.; Dr. J. W. Hartigan, Morgantown, W. Va.

Treasurer and Trustee—The Rev. Mr. Whistler, Kenton, O.
Secretary—Miss Elizabeth Brown, Janesville, Wis.

FLOWER—VIOLET.

MEMBERS of '98 who are having their first experi-

ence of Chautauqua work may find in many cases that the holidays, which will perhaps form the first important interruption in their work, will make it difficult to resume their studies with the same degree of enthusiasm as at the opening of the year. A word of counsel, born of years of experience, may help these new Chautauquans just at this critical time. The sailor who has the shoal clearly marked in his chart can avoid it; and if members of '98 will mark well this possible danger and put forth a little special effort of the will at this critical point, we are sure that the peril will be passed in safety.

A SAILOR on a steam yacht, at present in New York Harbor, writes: "I am foreign-born—Danish, and a machinist by trade. I am very anxious to be better educated, and if possible for a seagoing man, to take the courses in your society. I would be thankful for information."

FROM New Mexico a prospective '98 writes: "I am doing missionary work among the Pueblo Indians, and must do the reading alone as there is only one white woman within ten miles, and no place where I can buy books or other needed articles nearer than about seventy miles."

GRADUATES.

A FULL list of the graduates of '94 will be published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for May. They outnumber the Class of '93.

THE new course in Current History is being received with great favor by the graduates. A great many names have been enrolled, including members of all classes, from '82 to '94.

THE new course in Sociology will be ready before this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN is published. It is being prepared by Mr. William Howerth of the University of Chicago. A pamphlet of suggestions will be arranged as in other of the later special courses, and the work will be divided into lessons. This promises to be one of the most valuable courses which the C. L. S. C. has offered. Full information can be obtained from the C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo.

A RECENT graduate of one of the Pacific Coast circles, a young man active in varied lines, writes: "I have become more and more fascinated with the Chautauqua movement as I have advanced, and intend to continue my studies. Accept my thanks for the great benefit and for the earnest and sincere aspirations after truth and culture which have come to me through your instrumentality."

TO THE CLASS OF '94:—The historian having but few addresses of the class members, here asks you for items of interest to record concerning the Class individually or collectively, since it is only by your courtesy in sending the requisite information that any history can be compiled. What course of reading or study has taken the place of the completed course, whether for additional seals or in other lines? What have been the successful influences in winning others to the enjoyment and help to be found in the C. L. S. C.? Has the clover seed been sown far and wide in your section and is it growing vigorously? Address

(MISS) MARGARET F. LEE,
Holliday's Cove, W. Va.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER DAY—January 7.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

W. E. GLADSTONE DAY—February 5.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

his native land and the world of literature.

JOHN H. VINCENT, Buffalo, N. Y.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

MAY I call the attention of all Chautauquans to the fact that February 3 is the birthday of Sidney Lanier, the famous southern poet after whom the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle Class of 1898 has been named. Let all Chautauquans as far as possible observe the day and make it an opportunity for the reading of one or more of the charming poems which this gifted soul left as a legacy to

MRS. HATTIE L. ABBOTT, secretary of Oxford County, Me., is connected with a local circle in Fryeburg, and is in correspondence with other parts of the county.

Dr. H. C. Farrar, the newly appointed secretary for eastern New York, has already set on foot a re-

awakening of interest in Albany. He has had a circle in his own church for many years, and a new circle is now reported from another church as a result of his efforts.

The Brooklyn Chautauqua Union held a rousing meeting in the Academy of Music on the evening of November 5. Although it was the night before election and a furious storm prevailed, a large audience greeted Chancellor Vincent, Major General O. O. Howard, Mayor Schieren, and others who co-operated with them in making this meeting a brilliant success.

Under the leadership of Miss C. A. Teal, the secretary of the Society of the Hall in the Grove for Long Island, a convention of the society was held November 17, at Jamaica, L. I. All members of the S. H. G. on the Island were invited, and a strong organization effected.

In southern New Jersey, Mrs. L. H. Swain has succeeded in bringing the C. L. S. C. before many institutes.

Mr. Whittekin, the newly appointed secretary of Forest County, Pa., reports a new circle at Nebraska, Pa., organized by a member of Tionesta Circle. Mr. Whittekin proposes to present the C. L. S. C. work at the County Teachers' Institute.

Miss Love, secretary for the South, has recently made a trip into Virginia, and is making a careful study of the whole field. The city of Richmond promises to become a center of great activity.

Mr. J. S. Davis, state secretary for Georgia, is carrying forward a vigorous campaign in certain sections of that state, and Miss Battaile, of Nashville, Tenn., so far as her busy life will permit, is working through teachers' institutes and the press.

Inquiries from the South are unusually numerous, and it is evident that "The Laniers" will gain many recruits from this part of the country.

Mrs. Sarah Bailey Mann, of Cook Co., Ill., reports three circles in Evanston with prospect of a fourth. She writes: "I find that up to date I have made forty-five personal calls in regard to the work, written seventeen newspaper notices, twenty-five pulpit notices, twenty-seven letters, have sent circulars to a number of ministers, and have made personal appeals to six towns outside of Evanston."

Mrs. G. H. Hall, of Sparta, Wis., has been doing district work with most gratifying results. Several circles have been organized and a number of points visited.

In Missouri, Mrs. J. D. Clarkson of Jasper County has been very active.

Through the efforts of Mr. W. E. Hardy, secretary for Nebraska, nearly thirty secretaries are now working in different parts of that state. Mr. E. T. N. Alford, of Howard County, Neb., expects to report three or four circles from his field. Mr. James Standor of Cass County, has organized a circle at Louisville, and has written to nearly every post office in

the county. Miss Nellie S. Willard, of Adams County, reports fourteen members from a circle at Hastings.

Mrs. Lina M. Eaton, secretary for Montezuma County, Colo., has utilized the opportunities presented by political meetings to scatter circulars of the C. L. S. C.

The Pacific Coast reports a good deal more interest than last year, and this is true of all parts of the country.

NEW CIRCLES.

WEST INDIES.—A class has entered upon the Chautauqua studies under efficient leadership at Mendezville, Old Harbour, Jamaica.

CANADA.—Quebec's quota for enrollment this month includes three members in connection with the circle of North Hatley and a class at Waterloo.

MAINE.—At North East Harbor a goodly number of people who have been induced to undertake the C. L. S. C. work now form a prosperous circle.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Invincible is the name adopted by the new circle at Three Rivers.—A class at Wilbraham has fairly begun the work.—The organization just formed at East Long Meadow sends its names for enrollment with the words, "more to follow."

RHODE ISLAND.—Bright prospects are reported by Blackbird C. L. S. C. of Valley Falls.

CONNECTICUT.—A circle has been organized at Stratford with eight full course and twenty-three magazine members. They start out with a great deal of interest, which promises to be of enduring quality.—The circle at Bridgeport is fortunate in its leader. The members are prospering.

NEW YORK.—There are thriving classes in Chappaqua, Parishville, Saratoga, Wakefield, and Shortsville. All have a good membership, that at Shortsville numbering eighteen.—Bath Beach, L. I., has a quartet of Chautauquans.—Another organization called Violet Circle is in working order in Jamestown.

NEW JERSEY.—Upon his removal to East Orange a Chautauquan who for five years has had charge of Vincent C. L. S. C. of Harlem, New York City, has organized into a circle the stirring young men and women of a new Methodist Church just started in East Orange.—Thirty-one members compose a class at Trenton.—A circle is forming at Jersey City in connection with the Onward Chapter, No. 10, 856, Epworth League, of Lafayette Church.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Cochran's visitors to Chautauqua last summer became imbued with C. L. S. C. spirit and have organized an enterprising class of nineteen christened "The Vincent Circle."—Good classes of eight, nine, and eleven members respectively report from Curwensville, Braddock, and Punxsutawney.—A reading circle has been started in

east Warren, which promises well, and as a result of the meeting called to form the county union here, another circle was organized in Warren with seventeen members, the limit being placed at twenty.

MARYLAND.—A list of nineteen 98's headed by a '97 is received from Rising Sun.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—Waugh C. L. S. C. of Washington was organized in September with a membership of nearly twenty. "At its meetings the regular lessons are discussed with lively spirit. The meetings are led by the president assisted by a program committee, whose duty it is to devise an interesting plan of procedure. The circle finds this method more profitable than if the meetings were conducted in a desultory manner." The secretary continues: "Decided success, which we believe to be the natural outcome of such an interesting and instructive course, pursued by such an enthusiastic body of members, has thus far attended our meetings, and, greatly encouraged by members of ardent zeal, we hope to make our circle a center of literary attraction this winter." Several other circles have been formed in this city, among them one of twenty-five members at Hamline M. E. Church, Kreitonian Chautauqua Circle with eight members, and a Chautauqua Union Circle.

VIRGINIA.—There is a trio of readers at Warrenton.

GEORGIA.—Seven ladies at Atlanta call their organization the Browning Chautauqua Circle in honor of Elizabeth Barrett Browning.—Four other names are received from the same place.—Nine people at Demorest form a studious circle.

FLORIDA.—Members of the class of Fruitland Park are already full-fledged Chautauquans, at work with much enthusiasm.

KENTUCKY.—Thirteen persons form the circle at Harrodsburgh.

ALABAMA.—There is a class at Wetumpka.

OKLAHOMA TERRITORY.—A lively class reports from Guthrie.

OHIO.—The Ladies' Literary Circle of Paulding has this year taken up the Chautauqua course, and a number of names are received for enrollment. Seventeen names are sent by the organization at Wilmington.—Encouraging news is sent by the Monday Afternoon Club of Springfield and the class at Circleville.—The meetings held by Alpha Circle Cleveland have been satisfactory. It has nineteen members.

INDIANA.—Classes are prospering at Pleasant Lake and Jeffersonville.

ILLINOIS.—A flourishing circle is the outlook for the organization at New Berlin.—About twenty-five persons joined the circle started at Evanston.—A Chicagoan who has been bravely reading alone is now enjoying the benefits of a circle organized by herself.—Decatur has a circle of four Chautauqua novitiates.

MICHIGAN.—"Everything points to a prosperous year," writes the secretary at Fowlerville.—At Alma there is a C. L. S. C. band of about twenty-five.

MINNESOTA.—Lake Benton reports a circle of seven, recently organized.

IOWA.—Activity is manifested by the Iowan Five of West Liberty, and clubs at West Branch and Al-lerton.—The circle at Valley Junction entertains hopes of leavening the vicinity with its C. L. S. C. benefits.—The thirty-three members of Puritan Circle of Storm Lake have adopted the anemone for their class flower and for their motto, "Knowledge holdeth by the hilt and heweth out a road to conquest."

MISSOURI.—There is an interesting circle at St. Joseph.

NEBRASKA.—Circles are forming at Oak and at Springfield.—Chaucer Circle of Beaver City makes an unusually good showing, notwithstanding the fact that this part of the country was badly stricken by the drought last summer. Its enrollment shows thirty-nine names. The circle has six members who pursued the full C. L. S. C. course with the class of '93 and are reading it over again, twenty-four school and ex-school teachers, two college graduates, and seven normal and high school graduates, one person sixty-six years of age and another only fourteen, and a club of twenty-seven taking THE CHAUTAUQUAN. They meet regularly every Friday evening, having the best of order and a minimum of tardiness. The class is divided into sides to compete for credits and will close the contest with a banquet at the end of the year.

CALIFORNIA.—Ruskin Circle is an organization that has lately begun a hopeful career under the leadership of the associate pastor of the First Congregational Church of Oakland. It has seventeen members, several of whom have had experience in former circles.

OREGON.—A circle has been organized at McMinnville by an ambitious Chautauquan who is reviewing the English year studies.—Burns, a town in Eastern Oregon, of about five hundred inhabitants and one hundred and fifty miles from a railroad has an organized circle of more than twenty members. There are no libraries in the place and the circle promises to be popular.

WASHINGTON.—The following letter is received from Fort Simcoe: "In October, eight of the government employees here met, drafted a constitution, and organized a club, naming it the Klickitat C. L. S. C. Thus far our work has been prosecuted with energy and success. We find it a pleasant and profitable diversion from the monotonous life incident to Reservation school work."

UTAH.—There is a thriving class of a dozen people at Salt Lake City.

REORGANIZED CIRCLES.

JAPAN.—The Dai Nihon Chugak' kwai, or Chautauqua Association of Japan, has its headquarters now established in the residence of Count Aoki in Kami Nibancho, Kojimachi district. In an editorial the *Japan Weekly Mail* for September 1 says of this association:

"To the gratification of the directors as well as the members, who now number over four thousand and are to be found in every part of Japan, H. I. H. Prince Kitashirakawa has consented to become the patron of the association. This is a signal honor, and one which adds great weight to the already high name of the institution. The first three years' course of instruction will be completed in November, 1895, when an examination will be held, probably in Osaka, of all those who have faithfully studied the lectures published during that time."

CANADA.—Delta Circle of Galt is in its graduating year, writes the secretary. "The circle of sixteen members is divided into four committees, each of which in rotation provides the program. The weekly meetings are opened with prayer, after which roll call is responded to by quotations from the proverbs of Solomon, which we think a good thing as it will make us familiar with at least one book of the Bible."—A circle of nine is at work at Picton.

NEW YORK.—The Brooklyn Chautauqua Union reception given November 5 at the Academy of Music, was a great success, despite the violent storm that prevailed the whole evening. Major-General O. O. Howard, U. S. A., presided. He was enthusiastically received with the Chautauqua greeting, and gave a return salute with a small silk American flag, which he drew from a vest pocket. Gen. Howard in his remarks told that his mother, now more than eighty years of age belonged to a fine Chautauqua circle composed of old ladies. Bishop Vincent delighted the audience with a happy speech, and the mayor of Brooklyn, himself an example of the self-made man, urged with spicy eloquence the importance to all of improving the opportunities offered by the C. L. S. C. Other interesting features were a reading by Mr. Chas. F. Underhill, songs by the Gilbert Male Quartet, and two cornet solos by Miss Anna Park.

NEW JERSEY.—Endeavor Circle of Montclair is an enterprising band of forty-seven, of whom at least eighteen are '98's.—Elizabeth C. L. S. C.'s president being out of town for a year, faithfully discharged her duties to the circle by correspondence. A new feature of the circle is a book club. Each member secured a good work of fiction to be passed around the circle in turn and finally given back to the owner. Thus all have the privilege of reading thirteen books for the price of one.—Earnest Truth Seekers Circle is among those active in Jersey City, also the circle of young people connected with the First Presbyterian church, which is pursuing the special Shakespearean C.L.S.C. course.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Minerville C. L. S. C. has advanced in membership, from twelve to twenty-two.

Last summer the circle held a series of Shakespearean-Chautauqua picnics. The members with a few invited guests went to the woods, where "they talked over Chautauqua work and read Shakespeare. In this way they had delightful social gatherings, created an enthusiasm for C. L. S. C. work, and read, with great profit, five of Shakespeare's plays, closing, of course, with a picnic lunch."

Renaissance Circle of York entered upon the third year of its existence with an active membership of twenty-one, four of whom are '98's. On its roll are men and women who are workers outside as well as in the circle. Through the influence of the president of the circle, who is principal of the high school, and of the vice president, who is a school teacher, the C. L. S. C. reading was adopted as part of the required study of the York County Institute. On Thanksgiving evening in the opera house "Bishop Vincent delivered a very able and enjoyable lecture on the Institute course, at the conclusion of which he accorded the Chautauquans the much appreciated privilege of a short reception."

TENNESSEE.—On October 6, at 3 p. m., the Romans of Craddock Circle at McMinnville gave the Laniers an elegant reception at the home of the circle's secretary. The rooms were profusely decorated with flowers and with ivy and oak boughs. The program opened with a superb vocal solo. Then the president offered the Laniers a cordial welcome, at the close of which the Romans rising joined her in the formal Chautauqua salute, and all still standing were led in prayer by one of the members. Immediately there appeared, as if by magic, two fairy-like little girls who scattered violets and ivy, the class emblems of '97 and '98. Roll call was responded to by quotations from the southern poets. By request the secretary gave almost a complete list of the southern authors and the rank of their writings in past and present literature, closing with a profound tribute to Sidney Lanier. After the class had been led by the president in considering "The Growth of the English Nation," it listened to a charming Chautauqua report. The leader for the topic, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," stimulated the interest of all, and was followed by a sonata by Mozart, admirably rendered. "Aux Italiens," with musical accompaniment, was recited in a beautiful and captivating manner. One of the visitors present had received in the noon mail of that day, a letter from Mrs. Derr, daughter of Clifford Lanier, the "brother poet." Mrs. Derr's letter contained items of interest regarding her uncle, Sidney Lanier. With it was sent a copy of the first edition of his poems ever published (1876), from which a selection, "Betrayal," was read before the circle. Several delightful piano selections were given, and in the twilight hour impressive Roman candles were lighted. In their mellow glow, little

waitresses flitted everywhere, serving delicious refreshments. This opening day of the Craddocks of the Tennessee Mountains, has proved a fair earnest of the success of their succeeding meetings. —The enthusiastic class at Covington has received a large quota of new members.

ILLINOIS.—The correspondent at Aurora writes: "We have a Current History Club in our Epworth League with a membership of forty-five. There are fifteen gentlemen (most of them Drs. and Profs.) in the club. We are planning to have a very profitable time."—Hale C. L. S. C. of Mt. Palatine is again at work with encouraging prospects, having organized with fourteen members. The class will have five graduates this year, and a number of the circle are planning to attend the next Assembly.

MICHIGAN.—New members have joined the Chautauquans at Mason and Lansing.—With the announcement of the reorganization of Lee Circle at Hastings, the secretary reports that the thirteen who completed the Roman year all feel repaid for the time spent in study. Four of them graduated.

MINNESOTA.—The class at Albert Lea expects to furnish three graduates for '95. This fall it added eleven new names to its roll.—At its preliminary meeting sixteen members enrolled in Linnea Chautauqua Circle of Minneapolis. The circle decided to meet weekly instead of bi-weekly as heretofore, which change will, they think, prove advantageous, as the meetings can be shorter and the reviews more thorough. The program for this first meeting included an address of welcome by the president, in-

troduction of the books, and the recitation of the following poem, entitled "All Aboard":

"All aboard!" The call is given
By our captain, tried and true,
While along the spacious gangboard
Hosts embark in grand review.
All aboard! Our ship *Chautauques*
On its sev'nteenth voyage starts,
Proudly pointing onward, upward,
Strength and grace in all its parts.
Its capacity is boundless:
On its decks from boom to boom
Thousands throng, yet feel no crowding,
For the world can there find room.
Floating highest 'mongst the ensigns
Dear "Old Glory" we can see,
While the heaven-blending streamer
Bears the motto: "N. B. D."*
All aboard! The price of passage
Is but trifling, though the board
E'er is spread with costly viands—
Wealth no better can afford.
Humble e'er and lofty statesman
There in mutual kinship blend.
We shall walk with learning's peerage,
And commune as friend with friend.
All aboard, then! Dear Linnea;
Sailing o'er Truth's deep, wide main,
You shall find, when ends your journey,
It has not been made in vain.
So farewell! O summer leisure,
We must haste more truth to find.
And farewell! You dear companions,
Who prefer to stay behind.

* "Never Be Discouraged"—a sort of password with this circle.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

The "Life and Letters of Erasmus,"* given in the form of twenty lectures prepared in popular style, is a work which adds great luster to the already famous name of its author. The aim is to show the reader the picture, as Erasmus saw it, of the stormy period of the preliminary and early movements in the Reformation. For this object the history of the times is largely given in letters, mostly those of Erasmus. The first chapters contain a graphic account of the early life of the reformer, showing how he unwittingly fell into and shrewdly broke out of the den of monasticism; and how, once out, his soul aflame with the knowledge of the evils he had escaped, he could not be kept in tow even by the leading strings of those in authority who had secured his release. Letters, pamphlets, books, came from his pen in quick succession denouncing the evils of monastic life. The many-sided Erasmus was a subject for a

consummate character study, and such a study Mr. Froude has made. The conservative Erasmus, going on the principle that the end justifies the means, appears in many positions which are incompatible with the stand he took as a reformer. He had the personal magnetism to bind to him strong and influential friends in the church who worked in his behalf, upholding him in his denunciations against false Christianity. Numerous remarkable specimens of fine satire both from his friends and from himself are given, which proved mighty forces in the propagation of his work. To raise Christianity which was degraded to a superstition to its rightful position was the task he set himself, and to accomplish this he saw his way clearest to remain a member of the church and from within to seek its purification. The radical course adopted by Luther was not to his liking. When the strife came on he sought to hold a neutral position. His province was to reason, to persuade; he never felt he had strength for martyrdom. His writings gave the impulse to

* Life and Letters of Erasmus. By J. A. Froude. 433 pp. \$2.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

the Reformation, but, the Reformation once on, he sought to wash his hands of Luther. While letting the letters and various writings both of Erasmus and many others tell in the main the story of the man and his times, Mr. Froude shows that he has the genius of a true historian. In the selections made and in their arrangement a remarkable continuity is preserved, while in the original part of the work, situations are explained, characters are described, and lessons are drawn which round up the whole to a finely finished work.

Historical and
National Studies.

The second volume of the "History of the Navy"* opens with the naval war of 1814. The exciting

contests in which the *Constitution*, endeared to all hearts under the more popular name of the *Old Ironsides*, was engaged, are most stirringly told. Part IV. is devoted to the minor wars and expeditions occurring between 1815 and 1861. Of these the war with Algiers and the suppression of piracy, and the expedition which opened Japan are most prominent and their history is accurately told. Part V. treats of the Civil War, giving an exhaustive account of all naval actions of that period. The history of the *Monitor* and its engagements, and Commodore Farragut's opening of the Mississippi, and of the *Kearsarge-Alabama* fight stands out with marked clearness. The last part of the work gives a thorough review of the navy of to-day bringing the account down to the year 1894. The work is a notable one both in its conception and execution.

That there was need for a new history of the United States might have been considered questionable had the inquiry been made beforehand; but that a history which forges straight to the van soon makes itself a necessary force is demonstrated in President Andrews' recent work.† It is a noble example of a history written along the modern lines which have reversed the old methods of subordinating the masses of the people to the ruling classes. It retraces in an original manner all the historical outlines of the country, and with remarkable clearness shows the relations which have existed and are now existing between the United States and other lands. The causes for the development of civilization whether rapid or restricted are carefully studied; social culture has received much attention; and financial conditions critically examined. The prosperity which has blessed and the insidious dangers which are threatening are both ably considered.

A work which emphatically endorses the opinion that there are two sides to every story and which openly undertakes to tell both sides is "The Story

of the Civil War."* To write from the standpoint of the two contending parties and to present both impartially is an extremely difficult and hazardous task, but the author has handled it remarkably well. He squarely faces all questions and blames or sustains fearlessly the side which he logically concludes was wrong or right. His main point is to show that the North and South did not "quarrel about the same things," but that the questions over which they differed assumed entirely different aspects to each. The correct representations of these aspects is the aim of the work. It is to be comprised in three volumes, of which the first is now ready bringing the history down to the Appomattox campaign of 1862.

Volume Second of that admirable work, "The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians,"† treats of the institutions of the country, and is divided into five parts bearing respectively upon the rural commune, the administration and police, municipalities, Russian law, the press, and revolutionary agitation and political reforms. All of these topics are most competently and exhaustively considered; the style of writing is at once vigorous and attractive. The present interest felt in all things Russian will be whetted by a reading of this timely work; and those desiring to obtain a plainer insight into the peculiar workings of this queer land can find no better opportunity than that presented by its pages. Russia is represented as a nation struggling earnestly and honestly to the full meed of what it considers its requirements; but as a nation which has fallen behind in the march of time and which really belongs to the past by several centuries.

M. Duruy has won an enviable reputation for his ability to draw in a brief space concise and graphic outlines of long continued periods of history. His "History of Modern Times,"‡ reaching from the fall of Constantinople to the French Revolution, is a noted specimen of this style of work. With bold strokes he defines all the leading events and then with rare skill connects each with the succeeding one or rather intertwines all together so as to present a clear and continuous record.

A work on a peculiar, interest-provoking plan is Von Holst's "French Revolution."§ It is given in the form of twelve lectures delivered at the Lowell Institute, Boston. The lecturer took as the central point from which to survey his theme the career of Mirabeau, "the ruling spirit of the Revolu-

* The Story of the Civil War. By John Codman Ropes. With Maps and Plans. Vol. I. 274 pp. \$1.50.

† The Empire of the Tsars and the Russians. By Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu. Translated from the French by Zénalde A. Ragodin. Part II. 566 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

‡ A History of Modern Times. By Victor Duruy. Translated and revised with notes by Edwin A. Grosvenor. 540 pp. \$2.00. New York: Henry Holt and Company.

§ The French Revolution. By H. Von Holst. Two vols. 522 pp. Chicago: Callaghan and Company.

* A History of the United States Navy from 1775 to 1894. By Edgar Stanton Maclay, A.M. Vol. II. 640 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† History of the United States. By E. Benjamin Andrews. Two vols. 731 pp. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

tion." The fearful heritage handed down to Louis XVI. by his predecessors is very vividly portrayed, and well directed satire frequently plays an efficient part against the *ancien régime*. A philosopher's study of a great statesman during one of the most critical periods of the world's history given by a sort of flash-light presentation perhaps best characterizes the method followed in the work.

A discriminating history of early Europe* covers the period extending from 814 to 1300. Prepared for school and college use it is written with that directness of statement which reduces to a minimum the difficulties involved in general histories, and at the same time it is so popularized as to make it a very interesting work.

One of those delightful histories, intended primarily for younger readers but in which adults find equal pleasure is, "The Days of Prince Maurice."† It closely and accurately follows in that eager manner of writing which rouses the enthusiasm of the readers, the fortunes of the war of the Netherlands against Philip of Spain from the time of the death of William of Orange until the close of the war.

Juveniles. A journey far into the realms of imagination, where a firm belief in the reality of the impossible is easy and from which alluring domain one returns unwillingly—such is "The Jungle Book,"‡ a classic of imaginative literature.

How much pleasure can be gained by a city child from a few days spent amid the unfamiliar sights of a country home is shown in the story of "Little Miss Faith."§ The only fault to be found with the book is the extremely poor drawings with which it is illustrated.

Seventeen short stories by one who knows well how to write for children are included in the little volume "Not Quite Eighteen."§

"Another Girl's Experience"¶ in leaving home to earn a living and how she found out what things are really "worth while," Leigh Webster has woven into a pleasant story of genuine merit.

The cause of the too often maligned stepmother is taken up with animation in "Wanted"*** and presented in a very interesting and convincing way. This

adds another to the long list of Pansy Books which have done so much toward lifting their readers into higher planes of thinking and living.

"Have faith in your purpose. Time will be your friend. Be willing to stand alone for the right." This is the lesson that cannot fail to be impressed upon the reader of "The Patriot Schoolmaster."* Samuel Adams is the hero, and the incidents are based upon truth, only such liberties being taken as are necessary to the movement of a story. There is a good fund of historical instruction combined with entertainment. The illustrations from wash drawings by H. Winthrop Peirce are admirably executed.

On reading the story† of the dogs Barney, Cosack, and Rex, it is hard to tell which one is the most lovable. The reviewer confesses a weakness for the first of the three, although the frontispiece corroborates the statement, "Barney was *not* beautiful." The faithful heart that beat beneath the ugly coat well deserved this gracefully written appreciation. The book ought to do for the dog what "Black Beauty" has done for the horse. Numerous illustrations by the author add to the attractiveness of this very delightful volume.

Stories, anecdotes, rhymes, puzzles, and pictures galore bound in richly illuminated covers form the tempting volume called "Sunday Reading for the Young."‡ Mrs. Molesworth's name leads in the list of contributors. It is just the kind of book that children will revel in.

Natural history is most accurately and scientifically taught in the form of a thrillingly interesting story in "The Butterfly Hunters in the Caribbees."§ A series of exciting adventures form the setting for lessons of the most painstaking and systematic character.

A stirring tale of the Civil War, in which two eager boys too young to enlist, obtained permission to accompany the army to help about the teams is told in "The Lost Army."§ The book awakens enthusiasm and teaches strong lessons of patriotism.

Miscellaneous. Short, invigorating, helpful articles on various themes make up the volume "The World Beautiful."¶ There is the genuine ring of the true philosophy of life about them,

* *Medieval Europe*. By Ephraim Emerton. Ph.D. 607 pp. Boston: Ginn and Company.

† *The Days of Prince Maurice*. By Mary O. Nutting. 370 pp. Boston and Chicago: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Society.

‡ *The Jungle Book*. By Rudyard Kipling. 303 pp. New York: The Century Co.

§ *Little Miss Faith*. By Grace Le Baron. 174 pp. 75 cts.

§ *Not Quite Eighteen*. By Susan Coolidge. 284 pp. \$1.25. —¶ *Another Girl's Experience*. By Leigh Webster. 278 pp. \$1.25. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

*** *Wanted*. By Mrs. G. R. Alden (Pansy). Illustrated. 342 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company.

* *The Patriot Schoolmaster*. A Tale of the Minute Men and the Sons of Liberty. By Heseekiah Butterworth. 233 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton & Company

† *Three of Us: Barney, Cosack, Rex*. By Mrs. Izora C. Chandler. 327 pp. \$2.00. New York: Hunt & Eaton.

‡ *Sunday Reading for the Young*. 412 pp. New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.

§ *The Butterfly Hunters in the Caribbees*. By Dr. Eugene Murray-Aaron, F.E.S., F.Z.S.E. 269 pp. \$2.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

§ *The Lost Army*. By Thomas W. Knox. 296 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Merrim Company.

¶ *The World Beautiful*. By Lillian Whiting. 194 pp. \$1.00. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

that philosophy which makes for real happiness, for righteouness. They present in so pleasing a manner the spiritual truths with which they are imbued as to make them forceful in giving an uplift to life.

The history of a month spent with Mr. Moody learning of his work and workers forms the theme of a late volume* which is very enthusiastic in its tone. The personal sketches are appreciative and show effectively where resides the working that has accomplished so much of good for humanity. The volume will meet the desires of many to know more of the methods of this great Christian leader and of the *personnel* of company of helpers.

"Costumes of Colonial Times"† is the result of much searching among the old records that are hard to trace. It contains a history of colonial dress, showing that in those early days and in the hard and wild surroundings of the new world, Dame Fashion ruled as imperiously as in more favored lands and times. The larger part of the work consists of what might be called a dictionary of costumes, good clear definitions being given to all material, articles, and styles belonging to dress.

A very vivid description‡ of traveling overland to California in the old days is given by one of the old pioneers who made such a journey. Trials, discouragements, suffering, and hair-breadth escapes make up the greater part of the story, and one wonders at the courage and heroism that could persevere to the end through such difficulties. It gives some striking glimpses into pioneer history.

The publication in 1858 by Mr. Graham of the "Handbook of Standard Phonography"§ was an epoch-making event in the art of shorthand. It contained all the excellences of preceding instruction, to which were added many and various features productive of speed and legibility conceived and harmonized by the author. It became the basis of quite a library of publications which were the necessary outgrowths of it. During more than thirty years in which the Hand-Book remained absolutely unaltered, the method of presenting instruction in popular text-books had materially changed; so Mr. Graham in 1893, the year prior to his death, made a thorough revision on modern text-book lines, the result of which reconstruction is the volume now presented, which promises even better things than were accomplished by it under its original form.

A very able work is one entitled "Defective

Speech and Deafness."* It takes the ground that many persons, especially school children, have a deficient sense of hearing often when they are not conscious of the fact; and shows the need of great watchfulness on the part of guardians and teachers to discover these troubles which may frequently be remedied if taken in time. It is very scientific in investigation, clear in statement, and helpful in suggestions.

Among the specialties in the book-making line is a volume on American football.† It is designed to meet the need of some source of definite information describing "the manner of executing the various evolutions, the methods of interference, and the more difficult and complicated points of the game."

A fine work also in the line of specialties is "Success with Poultry."‡ It treats of successful and profitable poultry raising and contains much valuable information for all those interested in the subject. It is profusely illustrated.

A dainty year-book for 1895 bears the name of "A Gift of Peace,"§ and gives for every day of the year a Bible verse containing the word peace or some of its derivations, followed by beautiful selections in poetry and prose bearing upon the same thought.

"The Chautauqua Booklet Calendar for 1895"¶ comes in very attractive, convenient form containing a Scripture selection and a quotation from some famed book or person for each day. An appendix gives the C. L. S. C. order of study, the mottoes, the C. L. S. C. directory and other items of interest concerning this great organization.

A very attractive calendar for 1895 is the one bearing as title the Scripture verse, "He Careth for You."‡ On twelve tablets, one for each month, there are fine reproductions of water color sketches, in soft tones, a Scripture passage and the calendar for the month.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of winter literature, see page 378-384 of the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

* Defective Speech and Deafness. By Lillie Eginton Warren. 116 pp. New York: Edgar S. Werner Publisher.

† Treatise on American Football for Schools and Colleges. By A. Alonzo Stagg and Henry L. Williams. 275 pp. New York: D. Appleton & Company.

‡ Success with Poultry. Written and compiled by Grant M. Curtis. Quincy, Ill.: The Reliable Incubator and Brooder Company.

§ A Gift of Peace. Chosen and arranged by Rose Porter. 253 pp. New York and Chicago: Flemming H. Revell Company.

¶ The Chautauqua Booklet Calendar for 1895. Compiled by Grace L. Duncan. Published at 112 East Fayette Street, Syracuse, N. Y.

‡ He Careth for You Calendar for 1895. \$1.00. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company.

* A Month With Moody in Chicago. By Rev. H. M. Wharton, D.D. 306 pp. Baltimore: Wharton & Barron Publishing Company.

† Costumes of Colonial Times. By Alice Morse Earle. 264 pp. \$1.25. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡ Death Valley in '49. By William Lewis Manly. 498 pp. \$2.00. San Jose, Cal.: The Pacific Tree and Vine Co.

§ The Hand-Book of Standard or American Phonography. By Andrew J. Graham, A. M. New and Revised Edition. 441 pp. \$2.00. New York: Andrew J. Graham & Co.

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THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XX.

FEBRUARY, 1895.

NO. 5.

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE.

CONTENTS

Charles H. Parkhurst, D.D., President of the Chautauqua Association.

REQUIRED READING

The Life of a British Soldier	Latent Corporal Seyler	101
English Morals and Christianity	David H. Wheeler, Esq.	102
What We Know about the Planets	Garrett P. Sereno	103
The Man with the Iron Mask	Frederic Van der Bruggen	104
Sunday Readings	From a poem by John Ingelow	110
The Beginning and the Ending	Michael John H. Vincent	111
The World's Debt to Electricity	Professor John Templeton, Esq.	112
Kingsley's "Westward Ho!"	Professor R. C. Weston, Ph.D.	113
Famous Bridges of the World	Robert Jamieson	114
Count Moltke, Field Marshal	SECOND ARTICLE, SERIES II, Volume 1	115

GENERAL READING

The Blue Bonnet. A Story. (Chapter I.)	Charles Burnside	116
Dr. Parkhurst and His Work	Andrew J. Wheeler	117
Aromatic Drinks	John Richmond	118
The Witch Hazel	Elizabeth May Fry	119
Journalism in the Congregational and Presbyterian Churches	William F. Butler, D.D.	120

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE

"For the Dearest," A Valentine Story	Emily Huntington Miller	121
The Semblance View of Marriage	Lacy Bernard Cobb	122
Women Fruit Farmers in California	Antonette Van Noyen	123
Washington	William F. Butler, D.D.	124
The Love Affairs of George Washington	Dr. William F. Butler	125
Birds of Passage	Dr. William F. Butler	126

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK

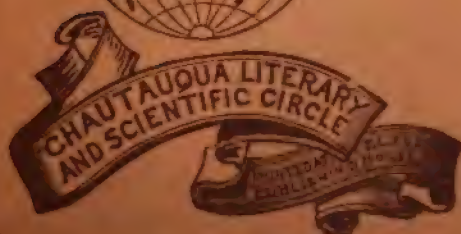
The Drama and the Novel: Are the Churches Neglecting the Poet?

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION

Death of Robert Louis Stevenson; Congress and the Reform of the Currency; The Passage of the Railroad Pool Bill; John Burns, the English Labor Leader, visits America; The Lexow Committee's Work in New York; Experts in Hypnotism; The Persecution and Imprisonment of Eugene V. Debs; The Criminal Record of 1894; Death of Sir John Thompson, Canada's Premier; Voting by Machinery; Fourteenth Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor; Repression of Socialism in Germany; The Successor of the Late Professor Swing; Is the Church Music Popular? Secret Societies and the Catholic Church; Summary of News.

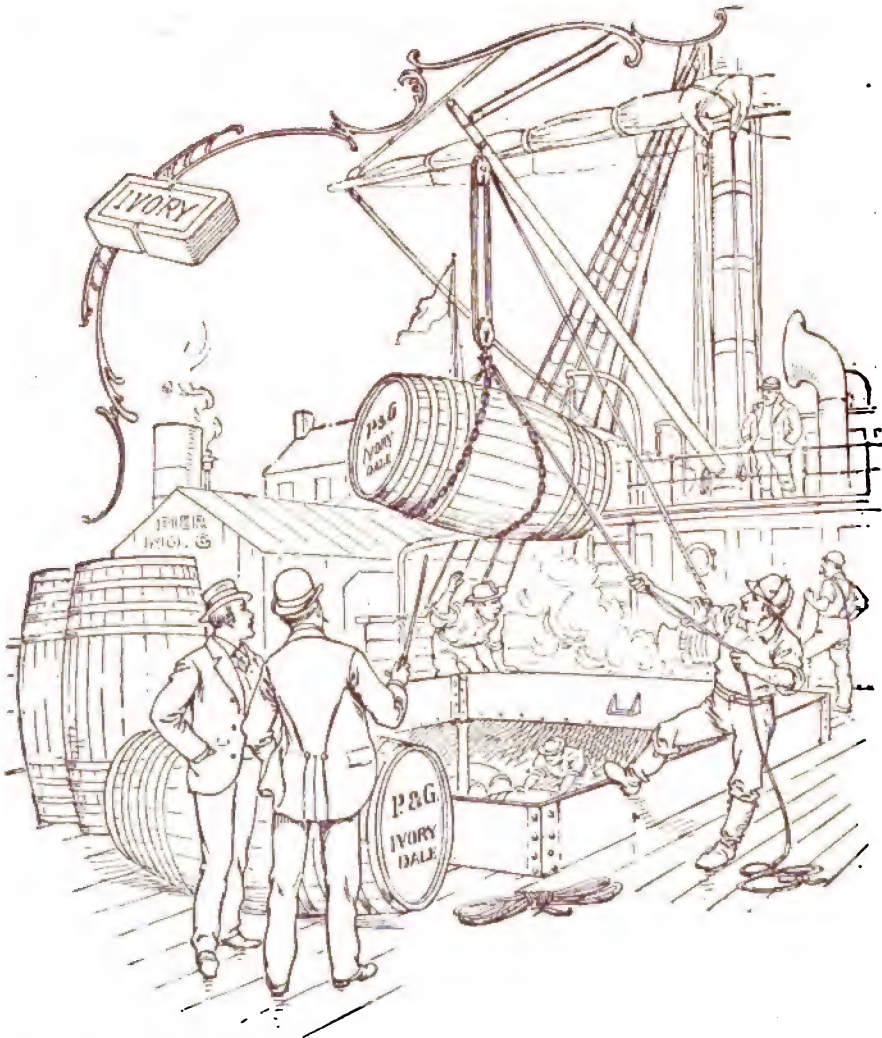
C. L. S. C. WORK

C. L. S. C. Outline and Programs	127
C. L. S. C. Notes and Word Studies	128
Questions and Answers	129
The Question Table	130
The C. L. S. C. Classes	131
Local Circles	132
Talk about Books	133
The Chautauqua Season for 1895	134
What Members Say of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle	135
Among Chautauqua College Students	136
The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle	137
The Chautauqua Correspondence College	138
Index to Advertisements	139



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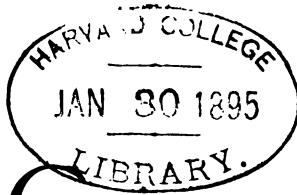




CHARLES H. PARKHURST, D. D.

From a photograph by Sarony, New York.

See page 573.



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VOL. XX.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.



COLONEL AND OFFICERS, 9TH LANCERS, DISCUSSING THE ROUTE.

THE LIFE OF A BRITISH SOLDIER.

BY LANCE CORPORAL SEYLEY.

THE ideas that we form of some particular subject comparatively unknown to us are in many cases utterly wrong ones and we find on acquaintance that the real is very different from the ideal. I think this is nowhere more apparent than in matters connected with the life of the British soldier. I am judging others by myself. I found that the few impressions

I had as to "Tommy Atkins'" life and character were quite wrong. I had an idea that a soldier's life was a perpetual grind from morning to night; I soon discovered that he could find time to retire to bed and indulge in a good sleep of some hours' duration, on at least four days per week. I expected to find Tommy as I had pictured him, a creature devoid of feeling, but I soon discovered how much I had wronged him.

Then again I had read so often of the officers "whom all the men worshiped" and

* The Notes on the Required Readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

naturally I looked for them but strange to say I have not found them, and I begin to think that those officers are few and far between. No officer I have yet met ever took much—I might say any—trouble, as far as I could judge, to win the love of his men, and Tommy's heart is not hard to win. I heard one captain described as a "real gentleman," for shut-

ward in seizing such opportunities. Let me mention one instance.

A member of one of our oldest families was orderly officer for the day and as the meat was served out, one of the men complained that it was unfit to eat; the officer ordered a piece to be cut off and gave it to his dog to eat. Of course the dog devoured it and our friend dismissed the complaint with the words, "What my dog can eat is quite good enough for you." I fancy he must have regretted that little incident though it was some long time afterwards. The battalion was ordered on the expedition to —, and with it went our friend. Food was scarce. Officers and men fared alike, everyone was half famished, and it so happened that



CLEANING UP AFTER
A FIELD DAY.

ting the door after him.

No amount of strictness on parade turns a soldier's heart against his master—he understands the saying, "Duty is duty," as well as any one, but what Tommy does object to, and being one myself I must agree with him, is being treated like a dog "off parade." It has



COOKS, 1ST GRENADIERS.

always seemed to me very shortsighted policy for an officer to make himself hated by his men for want of a little friendly civility toward them now and again. In time of war a soldier has dozens of chances of making things easier or the reverse for his officers and you may be certain he is not back-

ward in seizing such opportunities. Let me mention one instance. A member of one of our oldest families was orderly officer for the day and as the meat was served out, one of the men complained that it was unfit to eat; the officer ordered a piece to be cut off and gave it to his dog to eat. Of course the dog devoured it and our friend dismissed the complaint with the words, "What my dog can eat is quite good enough for you." I fancy he must have regretted that little incident though it was some long time afterwards. The battalion was ordered on the expedition to —, and with it went our friend. Food was scarce. Officers and men fared alike, everyone was half famished, and it so happened that

can't be good enough for you."

Let me describe how I took the queen's shilling. I had had an interview with the colonel of the —th and had told him what I wanted to do, and after trying hard to make me change my mind by painting a soldier's life in the reverse of glowing colors, he had promised, seeing I was determined to go on with my plan, to help me as much as he possibly could. I went to the orderly room punctually at 9 a. m. on a dreary cold morning and asked for the adjutant, an old friend of mine, and was taken into an inner room. Here I found all the officers assembled and after speaking to several whom I knew, I was put in charge of an orderly who took me to the regimental doctor. I waited about an hour in a chilly passage and was then taken into a room to be examined. How cold it was! My heart, lungs, and muscles were duly examined, my eyesight tested, and my teeth inspected. I was pronounced fit after being measured and weighed, and was then asked my age, birthplace, religion, etc.

Back I went to the orderly room and in the presence of the commanding officer, the adjutant, and sergeant major I took sundry oaths to defend Her Gracious Majesty to the



THE POSTMAN'S ARRIVAL IN CAMP.

best of my ability. After this I kissed the Bible and was duly declared to be a private soldier.

I was told I could go where I liked until "1st post" (9.30 p. m.). So I went back to my hotel, packed up my goods, took a long farewell of plain clothes, and reached my new abode in good time. I found myself expected and on opening the door of one of the rooms of my company was saluted with a shout of "Come in, chum, and sit near the fire." I did so and took a look at my new companions. I don't mind confessing their appearance did not tend to raise my spirits. Rough they were, very, and their talk! One evidently was a cockney from his accent, another I recognized as an Irishman from the richest of brogues. Three or four old soldiers were there; they rarely spoke but sat and smoked in silence. An officer's servant I noticed in all the glory of civilian clothes, and the rest of the twenty-five were in bed sleeping the sleep of the just. What a rowdy lot they seemed to me, but I afterwards discovered their hearts were in the right place and their loyalty to one another was wonderful. I was shown a bed near the door and informed that it was my special property. One of my comrades in arms kindly made it for me, and feeling a bit tired I soon turned in. At 9:30 p. m. the orderly sergeant came round to call the roll of men and see that all were "at home."



THE BARBER IN CAMP.

He then detailed the various parades and duties for the following day and retired to report to the sergeant-major at tattoo parade, at 10 o'clock. Every one was in bed by 10 and at 10:15 "lights out" sounded,



SERGEANT AND DRUMMER.
2ND SCOTS GUARDS.

talk dropped to a whisper and in a few more minutes every one was asleep (barring me) and the great building was wrapped in darkness except for the light of the moon, which streamed in through the window. How well I remember that night. The bed was so wretchedly hard it hurt my back, my pillow seemed made of wood; sleep was out of the question; so I lay and listened

to the stentorian snores of the men.

I had ample time to look round my new quarters. Twenty-five beds, two large tables, eight forms, a coal-box, an earthenware jar for bread, twenty-five plates and basins on a shelf, a rack for a rifle near each bed—pegs to hang the straps, belt, sword, etc., upon and above these a shelf running round the room for clothes to be put on, a cracked looking glass—and that I think is a complete list of the furniture I saw. As the night went on I grew sleepy and at last dozed off to dream that I was chained down on a stone floor and being kicked to pieces by an animal—species unknown.

I was awakened by the bugle sounding "reveille" (*rêv-a-lê'* it is always called in the army). The orderly sergeant came around and woke every one, and then confusion reigned supreme. Beds were rolled and strapped up, blankets and sheets folded, boots and leggings cleaned in no time, and by half an hour every one was on the square waiting for the "fall in" to sound. It was wintry weather, so we were taken for a run for about fifteen minutes and then dismissed; this I afterwards found to be the practice

in winter; in summer drill goes on as usual.

At 7:45 the breakfast bugle sounded and we sat down to refresh ourselves. A basin of tea or coffee or cocoa (I couldn't tell which it was meant for), a pound of bread, and about an ounce of butter were served out to each man as his daily ration. The orderly officer for the day came and enquired, "Any complaints?" The men replied, "None, sir," and we devoured our meal.

After breakfast the orderly man for the day—who does the work that would fall to the lot of a general servant in civilized life—brought the vegetables for dinner and each man peeled his share of potatoes ("spuds," they called them). This done every one lent a hand to clean the room and tidy things up before going on parade at 9.

Being a recruit, I had to attend four parades *per diem*, 7, 9, 11, and 2 o'clock. The "dutymen" (men who had been dismissed their drill) attended only two, 7 and 11 o'clock. I often think what a comical sight I must have been on the square in my plain clothes, marching and going through the hundred and one details of recruits' drill. I was dismissed at 9:45 with orders to parade again at 11 o'clock. Here I went through



DRUMMER, 2ND COLDSTREAM GUARDS.



SERGEANT DRUMMER. 1ST SCOTS GUARDS.

the same movements. A corporal was told off to drill me and as I was the only recruit he did not kill himself with hard work except when an officer happened to be near, and then you might have thought the life of that corporal depended on his making me as smart as possible. The adjutant drilled the battalion until 12 o'clock struck and then the parade was dismissed.

At 12:45 "cook-house" (the dinner bugle) sounded, the orderly men went to fetch the dinners, which consisted of roast meat, potatoes, and pudding (the latter only about three times a week). The orderly officer came round as at breakfast and the same routine was gone through.

What struck me as odd was the fact that there were no table cloths. I afterwards discovered that an attempt had been made to introduce them into the army but the men would have none of them. I think they were wise too, for each man has a playful habit of depositing on the table all he cannot eat.

At 2 o'clock I went on parade again until 3; and was astonished to find on my return that most of the men had gone to bed.

Tea came up at 3:45, a basin of tea—nothing else; the remains of the one pound

of bread are supposed to do for a man's tea and supper combined, but I need hardly say there is not much left of that after breakfast.

There is school at 4 o'clock for all who like to go among the men and for all non-commissioned officers who are not in possession of a second-class certificate of education. Any man not on duty I found was allowed to go out of barracks from 2 o'clock until 9:30. If a N. C. O. (non-commissioned officer) or a man with twelve months' service clear of all crime he was allowed leave of absence any night until midnight. Besides this any man could, I discovered, get a pass signed for one night for leave until midnight after he had been in the army a few weeks, as long as he is clear of all crimes.

That word "crime" puzzled me at first. It is in my humble opinion a wrongly used word in the army; it seems ridiculous to call it a "crime" to forget an order or to be a few seconds late. If a man has a "crime" marked against him, whether for being late or dirty on parade, or for inattention on parade, or for neglect of duty, or for drunkenness, or insubordination, or even murder, he is first of all made a prisoner. If the "crime" is serious he is put in the guard room. The next day he goes before his company's officer, who "tells him off," disposes of the crime if a trivial one, and if a serious one he puts him back for the commanding officer to see.

Before I enlisted, an officer told me that three fourths of the "crime" in the army was caused by the non-commissioned officers. I found it only too true. I have seen men given the stripe (promoted to lance corporal) who were utterly unfit to be placed in authority over their comrades. Consequently they bullied the men, the

OFFICERS.
1ST SCOTS GUARDS.

men, like the proverbial worm, turned at last, and this of course meant a serious crime for some one for "not complying with an order" or "speaking improperly to" or perhaps "striking a N. C. O."

A recruit can get dismissed his drill, if he takes an interest in his work, in about three months. Then he becomes a "dutyman" and takes his turn with the rest for "guards" and "pickets." The former duty consists of taking charge of barracks or camp, night and day, and the "picket" acts as a sort of military police and stops disturbances and drunkenness in the streets at night. When on guard each private soldier does in turn two hours' "sentry go," and his orders when on this of course depend to a

coal, cleaning up the officers' mess, sergeant's mess, canteen, recreation room, etc. In nine cases out of ten I found men preferred doing a "fatigue" to a drill. For a long time I wondered why, because as regards hard work the former is much worse. I solved the mystery by asking one man. His reason was simple enough: for the one you had to be clean, for the other you could go on dirty. Need I



CHANGING GUARD. 9TH LANCERS.



CHANGING SENTRY. ROYAL HORSE ARTILLERY.

have wondered which Tommy would choose?

Once a week the rooms are scrubbed out for the commanding officers' inspection; this generally happens on a Friday and here I added yet one more to the list of my accomplishments—the art of scrubbing.

A man who is fond of, and fairly good at, games, always gets on best in the army. By playing for the regiment, he keeps himself fresh in the memory of his officers and so

certain extent on the nature of his post. A Non Com's duties consist of guards, pickets, gate duties, and canteen duty, and when in charge of a gate he is responsible that no stranger enters it and that no soldier leaves barracks improperly dressed. When on canteen duty he must see that no disorder takes place. Beside the "duties" of course there are "fatigues" such as carrying

has a better chance of promotion. Added to this he gets off many unpleasant duties.

From October until April the route-marching season extends; about three days every week the battalion parades in full marching order and is taken for a tramp of from ten to eighteen miles. These route-marches always seemed to me one very strong reason for joining the cavalry rather

than the infantry. Of course the march is easy for a man dressed for walking with nothing to carry, but it is no joke doing a dozen miles with a valise (packed with shirt, towel, socks, and brushes) on one's shoulder, a rolled overcoat hanging in the small of one's back, a canteen on top of that, a haversack on one side, and a water bottle on the other, a belt with two pouches and a sword suspended from it, and a rifle to carry besides. To a man rigged thus, route-marching is not a pleasant duty. My only reason for going into the infantry rather than the cavalry was because promotion is so much quicker in the former and I have often wished it were otherwise.

Once a year the battalion is put through its annual course of musketry and unless a man subscribes to the rifle club and so gets private practice, he has no chance of becoming a good shot. Another annual institution is the three weeks' course of military training which every dutyman has to go through. This consists of a course of drill of all sorts and includes tent pitching, digging trenches and rifle pits, building forts and bridges.

I will conclude with mention of a twelve hours' voyage in a trooper. We were moving our quarters along the coast and H. M. S. *A*—— had been chartered to convey us to our destination. We were under orders to hand over barracks to our successors at 8 a. m. This meant turning out onto the square until the time came for us to embark. We were not to reach the ship until 3 p. m., which left us seven weary hours to kill. A longer day I have never spent—there was nothing to do but to loaf about. We could not sit down, as we had nowhere to sit. At last the "fall in" did sound and we marched off, the bands of all the regiments in the district playing us out. We arrived at the landing stage at 3 o'clock and there had to wait another three hours while the baggage was being shipped; then our turn came and we

were ordered on board to take off our accoutrements. We were about seven hundred and fifty strong and the vessel was not a large one. I should say it could have accommodated two hundred and fifty men comfortably below. After about twenty minutes' hard fighting we managed to get clear of our things and went on deck to see the last of our old quarters. At 6:45 we cast off and luckily for all of us the sea was not rough; had it been otherwise and any of the men ill in consequence I shudder to think what it would have been like. After tea, which consisted of raw tea and dry bread, one blanket per man was served out. After a stroll on deck I began to feel rather sleepy and at 9 o'clock went below to turn in. I had left quite two thirds of the men on deck but I found every inch of space below occupied. Upon deck again I went and lay down there, wrapped in my blanket. It was not unpleasant there, a bit cold perhaps but to me it was preferable to the stuffy atmosphere below. I fell asleep and should have slept like a top if the weather had only remained fine. I woke at midnight to find myself in a puddle of water. It was raining hard so I groped my way below. The scene that met my eyes was unique; as there was no room for us beside the men below we stood on top of them.

After about ten minutes of this I could endure it no longer and I went on deck again. The rain had stopped but the decks were soaked. I felt too sleepy to care, so I lay down once more, pillowed my head on a man's boots and was soon fast asleep. We breakfasted at 5 o'clock, tea as before, and after a feeble attempt at washing commenced unloading the vessel. We completed our work about 11 o'clock, said good-by to H. M. S. *A*——, and marched off to our new quarters. So ended my first voyage in a trooper. I have no doubt for an officer such voyages are not unpleasant but from any more such as plain "Tommy Atkins" takes may the fates ever defend me.

ENGLISH MORALS AND CHRISTIANITY.

BY DAVID H. WHEELER, LL. D.

IT has become almost an axiom to us that the morals of the English people, at home or in the United States and the British Colonies, present traits of superiority to those of any other people. This is perhaps not axiomatic to other nations. To confess inferiority is not an easy task for human nature. But it would be hard to find—even among our skeptics—a man who is really willing to exchange morals with any non-English people. We believe that we have a finer sense of justice, a higher standard of duty, a keener appetite for pure conduct, a more soundly educated public opinion in regard to duty and respecting the relations of the sexes; and that we have proved this by those constitutions and laws in which we have expressed our moral sense. Whatever is superior in English institutions has its excellence in the higher morality it displays or secures. And all the insignia of English greatness shine in moral light. Whatever defects we admit we refer to our failure up to this present to conform morals to the demands of our conscience.

The English have always been a Christian people, and their religion has never been divorced from morals. In the Latin countries the divorce of religion and morals is a conspicuous fact. Therefore, though the religion be Christian that religion has not had a free hand in shaping individual and social morality. Whatever point of view be taken, and however far below the standard our private and public conduct may fall, we shall find some note of superiority in a comparison, and the force which is at work elevating us will be found in our religion. Our moralities have been taught us by Christian teachers, inherited from Christian parents, incorporated in the Christian language of our books, and carried into our life by the perpetual work of the Christian Church. The high standard we recognize—even while confessing that we come short of it—cannot possibly be our standard by

force of any pagan or skeptical influence. Indeed, the one unassailed entrenchment of our religion is this lofty ideal of deity which it forever holds up before our moral vision.

English literature is a conspicuous monument of English morals, and for five centuries this monument has been growing more strenuously clean and morally stalwart. Much has been carelessly written about Chaucer's failure to maintain this standard; but Professor Henry Morley has shown us how our first great poet cleaned and polished the characters and situations he borrowed from Italian sources. His "Troilus and Cressida," for example, is a reconstruction of an ancient tale about a fair Cressid, and Boccaccio's form of the tale is the model upon which our poet worked. In the Italian original, sensualism pervades the story, and no hint of moral fitness can be found. In Chaucer the whole moral framework and the leading characters are worked over into wholesome art.

This cleansing process has been applied whenever our literary artists have repainted characters, situations, or whole dramas, taken by them from the galleries of the southern literatures. The writers who have dared to neglect this duty have failed of popular approval. The English public has required what the French call "prudery," and whoever has disregarded this requirement has fared ill at the hands of the reading public and lost all claim to the attention of posterity. I hope it is unnecessary to distinguish between the plainness of speech found in our older authors and the ingrained indecency and sensualism of French popular authors whose *words* do not offend our moral sense.

Having space to touch only upon some large lines of morals in English books, I must ask the reader to find for himself the illustrative proof that a high standard of character and duty is found everywhere in the spirit and tone and effect of English

poetry, romance, and history; our pure literature is morally pure in an unparalleled measure. Now, if two things be remembered, we shall see that a Christian influence has fashioned our literature. One thing is that the books themselves are full of allusion and quotation, showing that the writers have had a Christian education. Mr. Grant Allen has pictured a young woman who had not read a line of the Bible. As one result she is unfit for English society; the Bible is constantly quoted around her and she does not understand. Another result is that the woman is a stupendous moral failure. The picture is not a caricature. One may go farther and say that no one can succeed in English authorship unless his mind is saturated with this spirit in our noble religious books and songs. The other thing to be remembered is that pagan literature has also entered into our mental fiber. Horace and Homer have held free intercourse with most of the minds to whom we owe English literary greatness. But it is plain that Christian morals have held so supreme and unchallenged a sway over the creative intellect that pagan flaws have been worked out of the classic material. Some one has said that even Pope's Homer becomes in some sort a Christian poem by force of the English language. Our vocabulary of things noble and ignoble has been washed in Christian streams of feeling and tempered in Christian forges of thought. The English word *good* has no precise Greek or Latin equivalent; it is a higher term invested with a distinguishing spiritual capacity in expression.

To men unaccustomed to ask the source of the words they employ such reflections as we are here noting may seem idle or vague. But they are not idle or vague. We speak and write a Christian tongue whose moral vocabulary is built up out of Christian conceptions; old Latin terms have gained new senses, new energy, new and higher applications. Among a people non-Christian, whose scholars sat at the feet of Plato, whose poets revered as well as read Homer, no such outcome would be possible. We can account for the great books and the noble

moral dialect only by recognizing the control of the Christian factor. For five centuries—in a modified sense, for ten centuries—Christian feeling and thought have been pouring into our speech and our books. The best proof is the speech and the books themselves. Whatever superiority our literature presents by using a moral standard must be ascribed to the Christianity of the English people.

The notable failures of writers who have disregarded the English rule of decency confirms this judgment. A whole cycle of drama produced in the age of the Restoration, some of it produced by so great a master as John Dryden, lies buried where only scholars can find it; and it is buried there solely because it outrages the moral sense of the English people. A moral failure in the work or the character of an English author is marked and remembered; and genius is not permitted to flout our moral convictions. In recent years a half dozen eminent writers have tried to introduce French ways in literary art; they have not succeeded; and they have obscured their own fame. The impure may crawl about in secret ways, but it cannot march boldly in the light and in honor. It is under the ban.

Two great moral headlands are presented by English character: the love of truth and devotion to duty. Speaking the truth and living it—it is not merely an ideal, it is an end attained in no small measure. That "industrial life has caused it" is an untenable theory; for countries only less industrial show a relative failure. Truth speaking has been taught in Christian homes and Christian pulpits for centuries, to an extent and with an emphasis beyond all comparison. In this respect also our religion has had a free hand and all groups of Christians have agreed in upholding the majesty of truth in word and life.

Nelson's famous signal, "England expects every man to do his duty," is an intensely national order of the day. We should be astonished beyond measure if an admiral of any non-English people had displayed such an order from his flagship on the eve of a battle. "The great source of the Anglo-

Saxon national virtues," says Lecky in his "History of European Morals," "is the sense of duty, the power of pursuing a course which they believe to be right, independently of all considerations of sympathy or favor, of enthusiasm or success." But the sense of duty is not merely the source of national virtues; it is the source of private virtues as well. If one is convinced that he ought to do this or that, the conviction is likely to break out into conduct. Such a man may commit grave mistakes (such as persecution) for lack of enlightenment, but when the light comes he will follow it. And so it has come to pass that public and private conduct have gone hand in hand along the highways of reform. We seek to be just men. Teach us that persecution, or slavery, or any other thing is wrong and we will set about removing the evil thing from our life. The invincible argument for any reform is the simple justice of it; make that plain and we shall begin to seek out a way to justice.

And no enlightened Christian doubts that such morals flow directly out of the New Testament. A singular delusion prevails among some critics of English theology. These writers seem to believe that for centuries the English pastors have preached nothing but dogmatic theology; that, as one has recently expressed it, only now are we beginning to hear about conduct when we go to church. But in point of fact English and American pulpits have always and for the greater part made duty, conduct, justice, and charity their constant themes. It is a fatal error to suppose that a few dogmatic and controversial clergymen have filled all the pulpits of England. Even the printed sermons should save intelligent critics from such grave errors.

Truth and duty are English battle-trumpets because they have been sounded in the ears of the people for centuries. If Christian pastors had neglected to teach duty no other force could have taught it. The efforts to explain the character of Englishmen by their pursuits, their race, their peculiar history, their accidents, and other such influences, flout all logic and defy our common sense. Other peoples have had every-

thing but the stalwart moral teaching of English Christianity. If our Christianity had not been aggressively moral, race, pursuits, and the accidents would have ruined us long ago. Industrial life, for example—are we not learning it in these days?—creates a strain upon moral character of an unparalleled strength and intensity—a strain so great that we should expect to go to wreck but for inbred moralities, bred in us by Christian fathers and mothers.

If our faith fails, it is because we dread the power of men among us belonging to other than Anglo-Saxon stocks. The clamor for restricted immigration is a practical expression of our faith in ourselves and a compliment, the more valuable for its indirectness, to our type of Christianity. We feel capable of settling all our practical controversies on lines of justice, and we care not where justice may lead us, but we fear the influence of lower types of moral character upon our industrial and civic life.

Turn to another test of our moral fiber. What kind of men are our heroes? No morally weak man stands high on our English and American rolls of honor. Temporary success such have had; great genius keeps some of them out of oblivion. But even great genius withers in fame. In the world of action, the bad character surely kills fame; in the world of letters, we hang out a warning sign when a Byron or even a George Eliot passes by. We do not dare to forget Shelley's moral failures, and we refuse him the full measure of what his poetic gifts earned.

An effective contrast is shown between the fate of the French George Sand and the English George Eliot. This contrast is the more effective because the moral delinquencies of the French woman pervade her greatest works, while not a trace of her own great social mistake can be found in the works of the English woman. Yet George Sand is greater rather than less in honor for her moral weakness, while George Eliot is already paling in our literary heavens; hardly a single critic dares ask us to forget that she lowered by her example the standard of English womanhood. The French

call it "prudery" in us; but it is in our very lifeblood. A Napoleon, selfish, vicious, brutal, would be impossible in Angledom. A Washington is impossible in France. God is hardly greater in the common mind of France than the memory of the Great Emperor who had not a single personal virtue that we can profess to admire. Lecky writes: "It is the merit of the Anglo-Saxon race that beyond all others it has produced men of the stamp of a Washington or a Hampden; little careful indeed for glory, but very careful of honor; who made the supreme majesty of moral rectitude the guiding principle of their lives, who proved in the most trying circumstances that no allurements of ambition, no storms of passion, could cause them to deviate one hair's breadth from the course they believed to be their duty."

A reference only to English charity. It has but one fault—that of excess. Unstinted giving reacts upon weak poverty by teaching what Horace Greeley called the most awful lesson: "that there is an easier way to obtain a dollar than to earn it." Our hardest task in the years just before us may be the regulation of our charity, so that it may cease to increase the poverty it seeks to relieve. And no non-English people has any such call for reform.

That I may not be accused of skipping the hard places, I turn to a common and loose criticism of our attitude as Christian peoples to the right side of conduct. I shall be pointed to the vicious classes in our cities; and the proof of a fallen world under our feet will be quoted from Christians who are crusading against London vice. A first reflection is upon the uniqueness of these crusades. Where else do honor, wealth, beauty, genius, and purity unite to wage battle for the lost thousands of the cities? Nor is this all; the miserable spectacle is itself a proof of a virtuous society around it. The conditions of death are supplied by unexampled wealth; but the sad procession, sad as it is, is so little imposing in relative numbers as to furnish incontestable proof of moral health in the English people.

One terrible moral failure meets our view

in every rich human society—the union of luxury and vice. To a greater or less extent every human society encounters this kind of moral peril. Wealth affords the resources and weak humanity uses them in luxurious expenditure and upon vicious inclinations. In London as in Babylon, Rome, or Paris, this development of a dreadfully imperfect manhood seems to come almost as a natural sequence from vast wealth. That is to say, *some* of this evil will be found in all rich centers of human life.

It does not follow that the English capitals of wealth are as bad as any other capitals of wealth known to the student of history. On the contrary, taking into account the vast wealth and vast population of London, the vice factor is amazingly small. Wealth is used to corrupt character to a very limited extent; whether we look at the vastness of the wealth or the immense population, any comparison with other historical capitals will show us the greater social purity of the English metropolis. English wealth grows at a phenomenal rate because so little of it is wasted by the rich in the various forms of social indulgence. The whole land is covered with the proofs of the self-restraint and cleanness of the lives of Englishmen who are rich; nay, their line has gone out into all the earth and shines wherever English capital builds its Greater Britain.

Freely conceding the disgusting features of depravity revealed by any investigation of London vice, we shall enumerate several alleviations of the picture. (1) It is largely poor, the rich contribution to it being the smallest (relatively) known to history. (2) It is largely foreign. The larger half of the demoralized classes are not in any proper sense English. (3) There is no excuse, palliation, or condoning of vice in the organs of public opinion. Not even in politics is moral failure tolerated. This fact is a novel one in the history of a vast, rich, and powerful city. Paris with three fourths the people and perhaps five per cent of the wealth presents a striking contrast. To a Parisian, English "prudery" is the most offensive British trait of character. (4) Whenever social demoralization is threat-

ened, some reforming agency springs into existence and arrests the downward movement. In a decade, we have seen half a dozen brilliant public men sent to the rear for social delinquency. Extemporized societies have arrested the incoming tide of French manners at the point when social vice is most dangerous; and the protection of English girls, while it is not complete, is not allowed to be forgotten or neglected. These moral "crusades"—one of which, against the music halls, is in progress while these words are written—are a peculiar and vigorous outgrowth of English morals.

The truth is that English morals have saved England from being ruined by wealth. Rich beyond all precedent, possessing the means to follow the base courses of other peoples who have had a modicum of their money power, the English as a body have disdained luxurious vice, maintained their moral sturdiness, and employed their gold in building up the material civilization of the world. If we ask ourselves why wealth has to so small an extent corrupted English life, we shall, when we are candid, recognize the Christian fashioning of English morals.

WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THE PLANETS.*

BY GARRETT P. SERVISS.

THERE is a branch of astronomy which is sometimes called geography of the heavens, since it treats of the relative positions of the stars and their division into constellations.¹ But there is also another sense in which astronomy may be regarded as a kind of geography. Just as geography teaches us the location and principal characteristics of the various continents and makes us understand the bearing and relation of our own country to the other parts of the earth, so from astronomy we learn to locate ourselves in space and to comprehend the scheme of the solar system of which the earth is a comparatively insignificant member. When the astronomer strives to discover the physical condition of Jupiter or Mars he is doing something very like what the geographer does who seeks to penetrate the mysteries of an unexplored continent. As no person can be called well-informed or educated who is ignorant of the principal facts about the different countries of the earth so no person should be regarded as well-informed or educated who does not know the principal facts about the different members of the solar system.

In the eyes of the universe the solar system rather than the earth is our place of

abode. If we could visit the stars the only passport recognized there would be one bearing the stamp of the sun, for, except to Omniscience, the earth must be unknown, as it is unseen, beyond the borders of the sun's empire.

Let us, then, briefly review some of the things we have learned about that empire. The solar system consists of one star, which we name the sun; of eight planets, Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune; of twenty-one satellites revolving around the planets, and of which one, called the moon, belongs to the earth; of an unascertained number of little planets named asteroids, nearly four hundred of which have thus far been separately distinguished; and of an indefinite multitude of meteoric bodies and comets, traveling in variously situated orbits, both singly and in groups and swarms. The plan of the present article includes only the planets with their satellites.

We begin with Mercury, nearer to the sun than any other planet, and also the smallest of the planets. Its diameter is about 3,000 miles, and it revolves around the sun at an average distance of 36,000,000 miles in a period of about 88 days. A very curious fact stands out at once; Mercury's orbit is so eccentric² that at one point in it the

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

planet is as much as 43,400,000 miles from the sun, while at the opposite point the distance is only 28,600,000 miles. The difference amounts to nearly 15,000,000 miles.

It follows from this great eccentricity of its orbit, exceeding that of the orbit of any other planet, that Mercury must undergo extraordinary changes in the amount of heat and light which it receives from the sun. To be convinced of this it is only necessary to remember that light and heat increase or diminish inversely as the square of the distance from their source. On the average Mercury gets about six and two thirds times as much solar heat and illumination as the earth gets, but this amount is not uniform.

When Mercury is nearest the sun, or in perihelion,³ the effect of the sun's rays upon it is more than two and one quarter times as great as when the planet is at its greatest distance, or in aphelion. We can better appreciate what this means, perhaps, when we recall that the annual variation in the earth's distance from the sun causes the amount of light and heat it receives at perihelion to exceed the amount at aphelion by only one fifteenth part, so that the variation on Mercury is some thirty-four times as great as that on the earth. We hardly notice the change on the earth, because winter in the northern hemisphere occurs when we are nearest the sun, and summer when we are farthest from it, and so the effect of the variation in distance is masked. But if the change were as great for the earth as for Mercury there would be no masking or concealing of its effects.

Moreover the changes on Mercury occur with great rapidity, for, as I have stated above, the year of that planet, or the period of its revolution around the sun, is barely equal to three of our months. Think of a world which when farthest from the sun is heated more than four times as much as the earth, and when nearest more than ten times as much, while the period that elapses from one extreme to the other is only six weeks. Is any imagination bold enough to picture inhabitants, manlike creatures, dwelling upon that swift-footed little planet, and whirling with it, like a moth about a flame, now

plunged into the very blaze of the god of day and now rushing a little out of the fiercer rays, sometimes scorched and always smoking with the heat, yet never able to escape?

It may be thought that a cool, cloud-filled atmosphere would guard the surface of the planet against the effects of such extreme temperatures. But, unfortunately, observation shows that Mercury's atmosphere is very rare and probably cloudless.

There is another result of recent studies of Mercury to which I must briefly refer. Schiaparelli,⁴ the distinguished Italian astronomer, is convinced that the planet instead of rotating on its axis once in about 24 hours, as it was formerly supposed to do, actually turns only once on its axis in making a revolution around the sun, or once in 88 days. The consequence is that Mercury keeps always one side toward the sun just as the moon forever presents the same face to the earth. In some respects this is the most astonishing discovery about a planet that has ever been made. If Schiaparelli is not mistaken (and his observations seem to have been very carefully conducted) on one side of Mercury perpetual day reigns while on the opposite side broods unending night.

If it would be difficult for beings resembling ourselves to endure the great heat and the tremendous variations of temperature on Mercury with night succeeding day there as upon the earth, what opinion can we form of the pitiable situation of such creatures placed under a sun that never sets but is immutably fixed above their devoted heads? On the night side of the planet, where the sun is never seen, the cold must be so intense that life would there be destroyed by frost, as on the opposite side by fire.

Owing to the great eccentricity of its orbit Mercury has two lune-shaped⁵ regions, one on the east and one on the west, between the light and the dark hemispheres, which are alternately turned to and from the sun, and where consequently the latter does rise and set once in a revolution. In these regions, which together cover about one quarter of the total surface, the conditions affecting life might be somewhat less

inhospitable than elsewhere on that planet.

If any revelation to man had assured him that a planet is wasted unless it is habitable we might feel compelled to believe that life is maintained on Mercury though some extraordinary adjustment of physical and physiological conditions to its peculiar environment there. But science has discovered no such revelation, and Scripture contains none, so that we really have no reason to assume that because a planet carries no inhabitants it is useless in the scheme of creation. Accordingly we need not trouble ourselves, for the sake of peopling Mercury, to invent fantastic and humanly impossible creatures, capable of being broiled without discomfort, of facing an immovable sun without danger of blindness or apoplexy, or of discovering the delights of life amid the chill and gloom of long periods of darkness or the murk of never-ending night. Instead, we can tranquilly look upon Mercury as a little sun-struck world whose motions present us with entertaining mathematical problems, and which fulfills some destiny unknown to us as it glances in and out of the solar rays.

Let us turn to Venus. This planet is, in size, almost the twin of the earth, its diameter being about 7,700 miles. It revolves around the sun at an average distance of 67,200,000 miles in a period of about 225 days. Its orbit is more nearly a circle than that of any other planet, the eccentricity being so slight that Venus' distance from the sun varies to the extent of only 940,000 miles. We have just seen that Mercury's distance varies nearly 15,000,000 miles. The earth's varies 3,000,000 miles. There is, then, a remarkable uniformity in the amount of light and heat received from the sun by Venus. Its ratio to the amount received by the earth is almost two to one. It follows that Venus is a warmer and brighter planet than the earth. Being the earth's next neighbor on the sunward side Venus sometimes approaches us closer than any other of the planets. Its distance when it is nearly in a line between the earth and the sun becomes less than 26,000,000 miles. Yet the telescope has been able to reveal very little of the surface pe-

culiarities of Venus. The planet, indeed, shines, with such dazzling luster that it has been supposed that its atmosphere is almost constantly filled with clouds and mists reflecting the sunshine. The observation of faint markings on its surface has led to the conclusion that it turns on its axis, like the earth, once in about 24 hours; but Schiaparelli thinks its period of rotation is much longer and may even, like that of Mercury, correspond with its time of revolution around the sun. This latter supposition, however, is very improbable, and cannot be accepted as correct without further evidence.

We are not certain in just what direction the axis of Venus points, but there is good reason for thinking that it is nearly perpendicular to the plane of its orbit. In that case Venus may not have an alternation of seasons between the northern and southern hemispheres as the earth has, but may enjoy practically unchanging climate so that at any given place on its surface a nearly uniform temperature prevails all the year round.

There is overwhelming evidence that Venus possesses an atmosphere resembling the earth's, and the spectroscope^e has proved the presence of watery vapor in it. In fact the atmosphere of Venus reveals itself in a very striking and beautiful manner when the planet passes across the disk of the sun, as was shown during the transit of 1882. As Venus was advancing upon the edge of the solar disk, and when rather more than half of it was seen, projected on the sun suddenly there appeared a little silver-hued arc surrounding that part of the planet which was yet off the disk. This arc was due to the illumination of the atmosphere of Venus which, possessing like our air the property of refraction bent the sunlight from behind round the side of the planet and thus brought it into sight from the earth. Afterwards a light halo, due to the same cause, was seen surrounding Venus as she slowly crossed the face of the sun.

The dimensions, so like the earth's; the atmosphere, the clouds, the equable climatic conditions, and the genial temperature of Venus all seem to point to the conclusion

that that globe, which adorns the heavens with its beauty and salutes us alternately as the star of the evening and the star of the morning, is probably a suitable abode for intelligent creatures. That the sun shines twice as hot there as it does here is not a fatal objection, since in this case the temperature is uniform and a canopy of clouds would shield the face of the planet. Besides we should remember that the touch of the sunbeams is the talisman⁷ of life.

The study of the earth, the planet that follows Venus in the order of distance from the sun, belongs properly to the sciences of geology and geography, but we may pause a little to consider the earth's attendant orb, the moon. When Galileo⁸ saw that the moon was covered with hills and valleys he thought it was a smaller earth. He did not know, as we to-day do, that the moon has practically no atmosphere and no water. If it ever had them in perceptible quantities they have disappeared. If it was ever inhabited its life-bearing period long ago ceased, and its races have perished. When we are in a mood to feed our minds with fancies we can easily populate the barren plains and jagged mountains of the moon. But when we reason on a basis of scientific fact we are compelled to exclude the lunar globe from the list of possibly inhabited worlds.

As a telescopic object the moon is perhaps the most startling thing in the sky: landscapes from dreamland, white as chalk, and inexpressibly wonderful, gigantic, black-throated craters fifty miles across, mountains that gleam like stacked up crystals, needle peaks in rows stabbing the airless heavens, broad drab-green flats, where ancient oceans, vanished ages ago, may once have hidden their victims, and every hour a change of scene, a revelation of fresh grotesqueness, as the sunlight climbs the rugged mountain slopes and falls upon the fissured crater floors. Were these once volcanoes? How stupendous! The great earth has nothing to compare with them. But some astronomers deny that they were ever volcanoes; the future may tell us.

We pass on to Mars, a globe about 4,200

miles in diameter, situated at an average distance of 141,500,000 miles from the sun, and performing its revolution in 687 days. Of late years Mars has become the most talked-of planet on account of the discoveries made on its surface. Unlike Venus, Mars does not hide his face with an atmospheric veil. With powerful telescopes his surface is seen to be permanently marked with differently-colored regions, which are generally believed to be continents, oceans, and snow-covered areas. The so-called continents have generally a reddish tint; the parts supposed to be oceans, lakes, and water-courses are dusky, and the snow areas are brilliantly white. The latter surround the poles of the planet, and the most convincing proof that it is really snow which makes them white is furnished by the undoubted fact that they grow smaller, and sometimes almost completely disappear, when, as summer advances in one of the Martian hemispheres, the sun daily sends its rays more and more perpendicularly upon them.

The disappearance of a white cap around the southern pole of Mars was watched with interest by all who studied the planet with telescopes during its oppositions in 1892 and 1894. Some observers believed that the melting of the polar snows produced great floods and inundations the effects of which, they thought, were visible in the darkening of some of the lands, which indicated that they had been overflowed with water.

The most mysterious phenomena visible on Mars are the "canals." These were first discovered in considerable numbers by Schiaparelli. He has mapped scores of them, and has noticed that at particular seasons many become double. They vary in length from a few hundred to one or two thousand miles, their width averages 75 or 80 miles, and they cross the continents and intersect one another in every conceivable direction. Schiaparelli has detected more of them, perhaps, than anybody else, but many other observers have seen and studied the canals. It has been suggested that, notwithstanding their great size and number, they are artificial channels intended to con-

duct and control the surplus of water sent down in deluges by the melting of the polar snows, and to utilize it in the irrigation of the land! If Mars is inhabited by people capable of achieving works like these it is an immense pity that we have no means of making their acquaintance, and learning from them how to subdue nature to our will.

The question of the habitability of Mars is closely connected with that of the nature of its atmosphere. Professor Campbell's spectroscopic studies at the Lick Observatory during the past year have shown that Mars' atmosphere cannot be more than one quarter as extensive as the earth's. Could human beings exist in air as rare as that? We know that we can live in air half as dense as the atmosphere to which we are ordinarily accustomed, because on mountains three and a half miles high the air possesses but 50 per cent of its sea-level density, and men have climbed higher than three miles and a half. Some of the elevated plains in Asia are covered with air of the degree of rarity just mentioned, and yet people can live there. It is therefore conceivable that, while men taken directly from the earth to Mars might perish like fish thrown out of water, yet a slight modification of our vital functions would suffice to suit our bodies to maintain life in the atmosphere of Mars.

Of the two insignificant little moons of Mars I have not room to speak.

We hasten on to Jupiter, the largest of all the planets, in fact much larger than all the others put together, and equal in bulk to thirteen hundred earths. Its diameter from pole to pole is 83,000, and from side to side through the equator, 88,200 miles. It thus appears that Jupiter is very much flattened at the poles, the difference in the two diameters being 5,200 miles. The earth is also flattened at the poles but the corresponding difference in its case amounts to only 27 miles. The remarkable flattening of Jupiter results from its swift rotation. Although Jupiter is so much larger than the earth it turns on its axis once in every ten hours. The precise period is about 9 hours and 55 minutes, but it is not the same for all parts of the planet. Near the equator the rotation

is a little more rapid, near the poles a little slower, than the average. When we think of it we can see at once that no solid globe could rotate in such a manner as that. A place on the equator of the earth could not turn round in a shorter time than a place in the latitude of New York. It must all move together at the same angular velocity. But the surface of Jupiter does not all move together in that manner, wherefore the surface of Jupiter is not solid.

This conclusion is confirmed by the slight density of Jupiter. Take a piece of Jupiter equal in size to the earth and the latter would outweigh it four to one. In other words the average density of Jupiter is only one quarter of that of the earth. Jupiter may have a solid kernel within, but that is not probable. It is more than likely that Jupiter is in a liquid or vaporous condition throughout its mass. It is probably kept in that condition by heat. But its heat must be leaking away into space and the time may come when the great planet will have a solid shell as the earth has. In the meantime the wonderful spectacle presented by its richly colored and cloud-covered disk is a source of delight to all owners of telescopes.

Jupiter's average distance from the sun is 483,000,000 miles. This is variable to the extent of 42,000,000 miles, but in so large an orbit the effect of this variation does not play as important a part as it does in the case of a planet near the sun like Mercury. Jupiter's period of revolution round the sun is 11.86 years.

We shall not stop to discuss the five satellites of Jupiter, merely remarking that the fifth one, which is the nearest to the planet, is a mere speck beside the others and was not discovered until 1892, although the four larger ones had been known since 1610. One of them is of the same size as our moon, three others are considerably larger, while the fifth is probably not more than 100 miles in diameter.

Saturn, with an average diameter of 73,000 miles, and a polar flattening amounting to 7,000 miles, is situated next beyond Jupiter at a mean distance from the sun of 886,000,000 miles, which is variable to the ex-

tent of nearly 50,000,000 miles. Its period of revolution around the sun is $29\frac{1}{2}$ years, and it rotates on its axis once in about ten hours. Its immense rings, suspended in a concentric series above its equator, are the most astonishing objects in the solar system, their outside diameter is 168,000 miles, while their average thickness is probably not above 100 miles. They are certainly not solid rings, and probably consist of countless swarms of little bodies like meteorites. Outside the rings Saturn has no less than eight moons, one beyond the other. One of these moons, Titan, is larger than the planet Mercury.

The surface of Saturn is covered with belts, not so conspicuous as those of Jupiter, but doubtless, like them, produced by clouds. The lightness of Saturn is very surprising, its average density being only one eighth that of the earth. In fact it is so light that it would float in water. In proportion to size it is the lightest of all the planets. Like Jupiter it is probably yet in a heated and vaporous condition.

Very little is known of the two outermost planets Uranus and Neptune except their sizes, distances, etc. Uranus is about 32,000 miles in diameter. Its average distance from the sun is 1,782,000,000 miles and its period of revolution is 84 years. Its distance from the sun varies to the extent of over 80,000,000 miles. Its time of rotation is not positively known. It has four satellites, the most remarkable fact about which

is that their orbits are tipped over in such a way that they may be said to revolve backward around the planet; that is to say from east to west, instead of from west to east, the direction in which all of the planets revolve around the sun as well as that in which all other satellites, with one exception presently to be mentioned, revolve around the planets.

Neptune is 35,000 miles in diameter and situated at an average distance of 2,791,600,000 miles from the sun. This distance varies to the extent of 50,000,000 miles. Its period of rotation, like that of Uranus, is unascertained. It has one satellite which also rotates backward, or from east to west, but its orbit is tipped much farther over than are the orbits of the satellites of Uranus, so that its backward motion is more conspicuous than theirs; in fact they revolve nearly at right angles to the plane in which Uranus itself moves in going round the sun.

This backward revolution of the satellites of Uranus and Neptune was once thought to be fatal to Laplace's⁹ celebrated nebular hypothesis of the origin of the solar system, but recent modifications of that hypothesis have practically removed the difficulty.

Uranus and Neptune both exhibit a remarkable lack of density although they are not quite as light in proportion as Jupiter, and are 50 per cent denser than Saturn. The general conclusion is that there is no solidified and no habitable planet beyond Mars.

THE MAN WITH THE IRON MASK.

BY FRANTZ FUNCK-BRENTANO.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE HISTORIQUE."

THE Man with the Iron Mask! What interest, what legends, his mysterious imprisonment has given rise to! What floods of ink have been poured out in clearing up the true history of his career! Marius Topin, writing on this inexhaustible subject in 1870, stated that since the time of Voltaire no less than fifty writers had striven to untangle the threads of conjecture

which had wrapped him about. And Topin forgot at least a dozen, and did not pretend to enumerate the monographs on the subject, which are still in manuscript in our archives, nor the authors of general histories—not to mention the dramas, novels, and poems. Since 1870 many more works on the unknown captive have appeared, more scientific, more scholarly than their predecessors, but all to

no purpose. It would seem that Michelet's conclusion, "The story of the Man with the Iron Mask, will probably be never known," was not far out of the way. Yet unexpectedly, within the last year, documents have been brought to light which appear to offer a final solution of the much-vexed problem.

Of all the books which have been written regarding this inmate of the French prisons of state, the following extract from the diary of the warden of the Bastille is the origin and foundation: "On Thursday, September 18, 1698, at three o'clock in the afternoon, Monsieur de Saint Mars, governor of the fortress of the Bastille, came to take command, coming from his former post at the Saint Margaret Islands. He brought with him, in his chair, a prisoner whom he had at Pignerol, and whom he always keeps masked; whose name is never spoken. And on alighting from his chair he immediately placed him in the first room of the Basinière tower. At nine in the evening I, with Rosarges, one of his own keepers, led him to the third room of the Bretauidière tower, a chamber I had fitted up several days before his arrival at the order of Monsieur de Saint Mars. This prisoner will be attended by Rosarges and fed from the governor's table."

Some years later this same warden, Du Junca by name, recorded the death of the captive: "On Monday, November 19, 1703, the unknown prisoner, always masked with a mask of black velvet, the one Monsieur de Saint Mars brought with him from the Saint Margaret Islands, and whom he had watched for many years, having been somewhat ailing yesterday after mass, died to-day at ten in the evening without suffering much. Monsieur Giraut, our chaplain, confessed him yesterday, but, surprised by death, he did not receive the sacraments. The chaplain exhorted him a moment as he was dying. The unknown was buried in St. Paul's cemetery. On the register of deceases a name unknown to me was given him, and the register was signed by Rosarges and the doctor, Arreil." In a note on the margin of this leaf he adds: "I have since learned

that the name on the register was Monsieur de Marchiel."

The curiosity excited among the jailers and officials of the prison may be assumed as proportionate to the amount of secrecy employed in concealing the unknown's identity. The memory of the Iron Mask (we see it was a black velvet one in reality) was cherished by them, enriched with what few details they could gather, and some decades later the tradition of this mysterious stranger, handed down from his contemporaries to their successors, found its way into print in various forms. The most direct and least exaggerated shape it took was the addition of such facts as may very well have existed, such as the deference shown him by the governor, his burial in new clothes, white in color, furnished by the governor, and the burning and melting of everything which his room contained after his death.

There are also indications of the interest aroused outside of prison walls by the masked captive, as well as the testimony of his jailers, and these were gathered together by a grandnephew of the governor, Saint Mars, and addressed to the French public through the journal *l'Année littéraire*. The writer, Palteau, relates that Saint Mars, on his way to the Bastille, visited his ancestral estate with his prisoner. The peasants naturally went out to welcome their lord. They saw Saint Mars eating with his prisoner, whose back was turned to the dining room windows opening on the court.

"The peasants I questioned," continues Palteau, "could not see whether or not he ate with his mask on. But they noticed that Monsieur de Saint Mars, who was opposite to him, laid two pistols by the side of his plate. A single valet served them and kept the door of the room carefully closed. When the prisoner crossed the court he had on his black mask. The peasants could see his lips and teeth. He was tall, with white hair."

In the same letter Palteau tells of a nobleman who tried to satisfy his curiosity in the matter, by mounting guard under

the prisoner's windows at the Saint Margaret Islands. From his post of observation "he had examined him all night. He could see him very well. He did not wear his mask. His face was white, his body large and well built, his limbs rather too heavy, and his hair white, though he was still in the vigor of years. He passed almost the entire night walking to and fro in his room."

This letter of Palteau was published in 1768. But already the makers of legends were at work, starting with the statements of Du Junca's diary, and aided powerfully by Voltaire's influence. The latter had been sent to the Bastille in 1719, and again in 1726, and could speak with some show of authority. In his "Age of Louis XIV." he improves on what he heard while sojourning in the fortress, and begins his account of the Man with the Iron Mask with the year 1662. At that time Voltaire states that a man of commanding stature and noble and handsome countenance was sent to the island of Saint Margaret. His name was unknown to his guards, but he had on a mask, with a "mouthpiece moved by steel springs, so that he might eat with his mask on. He was to be killed if he took off his mask." These poetical fancies were enhanced by the respect shown him by the great minister, Louvois, "who remained standing in his presence," and by the luxury with which he was surrounded after his transference to the Bastille (which Voltaire puts in 1690). There "he was refused nothing he desired. His great passion was for the finest linen and lace. He played the guitar. He had the best of fare and the governor rarely sat down in his presence."

The historian cites the words of the physician attached to the prison in regard to the prisoner's physical appearance. He [the physician] said that he never saw his face, although he had often examined his tongue and the rest of his body. He was admirably formed, the physician said. His skin was somewhat swarthy in color. He excited interest by the very tone of his voice, never complained of the situation in

which he was, and never gave a hint as to who he could have been.

Various legends were formed regarding the attempts of the prisoner to reveal his identity to the world outside, and one of these is cited by Voltaire, rather in contradiction to what the physician had told him. When the Mask was at Saint Margaret, "one day he wrote with a knife on a silver plate, and threw the plate out of the window, toward a boat which was near the shore, almost at the foot of the tower. A fisherman, to whom the boat belonged, picked up the plate and carried it to the governor. The latter, amazed, asked the fisherman: 'Have you read what is on this plate, and has anyone seen it in your possession?' 'I don't know how to read,' he answered, 'I have just found it and no one has seen it.' He was detained until the governor had assured himself that he had never been able to read and that no one had seen the plate. 'Go!' said he to him, 'it is very fortunate for you that you don't know how to read.'"

Another form of this legend current in the south of France, was more tragic in its ending than the one Voltaire had cited. A writer named Papon says: "I found in the citadel an officer of the volunteers, seventy-nine years old. He told me his father, who had served in the same company, had often narrated that a member of the company saw one day, under the prisoner's window, something white floating on the water. He got it and carried it to Monsieur de Saint Mars. It was a shirt of fine linen, carelessly folded, on which the prisoner had written from one end to another. Saint Mars, after having unfolded it and read several lines, asked the soldier, while laboring himself under very great embarrassment, whether he had had the curiosity to read what was on it. The soldier protested time and again that he had read nothing, but two days later he was found dead in his bed."

Both of these legends, Voltaire's and Papon's, had some foundation in fact, though they were not at all connected with the Iron Mask. The proof is in Saint Mars' own words, who, in a letter to a

friend in 1692, complains of certain Huguenot pastors imprisoned at Saint Margaret, and the trouble they made him by singing at the top of their voices, and writing on their tin plates and linen, so as to make themselves known to their friends outside. By this interesting transference of characteristics from one person to another we see how the Man with the Iron Mask profited by all the unusual doings of his age.

Of course the active minds and the busy tongues of the legend makers in old France did not content themselves with enlarging and distorting the references they could gather from contemporaries of the silent captive. They strove to explain the secrecy which surrounded him, and in so doing magnified immeasurably his importance in the world of affairs. Voltaire, whose fanciful narrative had been favorably received, was emboldened by his success to advance the theory that he was masked on account of his resemblance to some one. This was in 1770. In 1771 the same writer, basing his supposition on the Mask's alleged fondness for lace and fine linen, in turn rested on the simple statement of the white burial shroud—claimed that the prisoner was a son of Anne of Austria (renowned for her liking for lace and linen) and the Cardinal Mazarin. He would thus be a half-brother of Louis XIV., and his elder in years. He would have been brought up secretly, but after the cardinal's death Louis would have discovered the truth and imprisoned and masked the tell-tale countenance.

The ball once set rolling, other explanations of the mystery were in order. The memoirs of the Duc de Richelieu, published in 1790, pretended to have Saint Mars himself as authority for the statement that the Mask was the younger twin of Louis XIV., and was shut up for reasons of state. Better than this, the papers left by the Baron de Gleichen affirm that the Mask was the true heir to the throne, and was set aside for the son of the queen and cardinal, the historical Louis XIV. In this way the Bourbon family from Louis down would have no right to rule. But even De Gleichen was improved upon by ardent Bonapartists,

and many pamphlets were circulated under the Empire which endeavored to prove that this lawful heir, while confined at Saint Margaret, had married the daughter of one of the wardens, and had begotten the head of the house of Bonaparte. Thus the claims of Napoleon on the crown of France would rest on his being the true representative of the old Bourbons!

We all know the old saw regarding the comparative vitality of truth and error. The identification given the Mask by Voltaire, though abandoned a hundred years ago by all students of history, has become the popular one. For this we are to thank, first of all the general desire of mankind to make the unknown illustrious, and also the cleverness of Alexandre Dumas, who owed to it part of the story of his "*Vicomte de Bragelonne*." The playwrights of the French theater have had their share in its diffusion as well. This hypothesis of royal blood was founded on the supposed deference shown the Mask by the highest dignitaries of the crown. That he was carefully looked after is clear; but a letter of Saint Mars, written in 1696 from Saint Margaret, proves that no unusual respect was awarded him, but that he waited on himself, even to returning his dishes to his keeper after meals.

Side by side with the tradition that the Mask was a brother of the Great Monarch, existed other traditions of his royal lineage. One was that he was Louis de Bourbon, son of Louis XIV. and the unfortunate Mlle. de la Vallière. The reason given for his imprisonment was a blow he had struck the dauphin. This legend was floated in a book published in 1745, and for a while was the favorite explanation of the mystery. Later, by twenty years or so, it was argued that the Man with the Iron Mask was the Duke of Monmouth, who had raised the standard of revolt in England against James II., for which offense he had presumably perished on the scaffold. Still a third offshoot of kingly stock came forward further to confuse the complicated question. This was the grandson of Henry IV. and Gabrielle d'Estrées, the Duc de Beaufort,

who really died at the siege of Candia in 1669. All of these claimants found more or less credence among the common people.

But scholars did not stop here. Investigating and conjecturing they unearthed, after popular interest in the matter had somewhat subsided, no less than nine other individuals who might have been the fated prisoner. Of both low and high degree were these newcomers, ranging from an Armenian patriarch, abducted and confined because of his persecution of the Catholics, to an ignoble valet, Eustache Dauger by name, who was indeed with Saint Mars at Pignerol and Saint Margaret, but does not seem to have been transferred to the Bastille, a prison reserved for captives of a better grade than he. Yet the fact that this man was so long with Saint Mars has made the probability of his identity with the Iron Mask greater than that of any other, save one. And this one can be hereafter considered beyond a doubt as the uncomplaining captive of the Bastille.

In 1770 a letter written by Baron Heiss, an Alsatian of literary reputation, affirmed that the man in question was Mattioli, secretary of state to the Duke of Mantua. This view was based on an Italian pamphlet, published by a friend of Mattioli about 1682. Heiss' reasons attracted supporters, both in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. His side was the scientific, the documentary side. But his arguments availed nothing against Dumas and his "Vicomte de Bragelonne." So new conjectures on the part of investigators took the place of Heiss' evidence, until the year 1894 brought further light to bear upon this obscurity of two full centuries.

Mattioli, as minister of the Duke of Mantua, had agreed to deliver to Louis XIV. the stronghold of Casale, for cash. Master of Pignerol and of this place, Louis could dominate all Northern Italy. The details were agreed to at Venice in 1678, the night of a ball, by Mattioli and the French ambassador, who were both masked with Venetian half-masks or dominos. In the next December the treaty was formally signed in Paris by Mattioli and the French

minister, Louvois, who immediately began preparations to seize Casale. But scarcely had two months passed when the courts of Austria and Spain were in an uproar over the news. The French envoy was arrested in Milan. Mattioli had sold his master and the French king to the Austrians. In revenge it was resolved to abduct the treacherous Italian. He was tricked to the frontier and on May 2, 1679, found himself at Pignerol, in the hands of Saint Mars. Mattioli was then thirty-nine years of age.

This violation of international law was surrounded by the greatest secrecy. Only the leaders in the abduction knew the name of the prisoner, and the Italian pamphlet of 1682 states expressly that he was masked. The rumor was spread that he had died of an accident while traveling, and his wife consequently took the veil. The Duke of Mantua knew the truth of the matter, but being in Mattioli's power in regard to the treaty with Louis, he was rather relieved than otherwise, and showed no desire to regain his minister. He ceded Casale in fact to Louis in 1681 and the chief reason for anger against Mattioli was thus removed. His birth and breeding would naturally procure henceforth good treatment, though it was still as important as ever that his fate should not be known.

The prisoner staid at Pignerol after Saint Mars had gone to another post, but in 1694 was transferred to his care again at Saint Margaret. With the transference his name was dropped, conformably to general orders for all prisoners in Saint Mars' keeping. His designation is henceforward "my (your) former prisoner." In 1698 he went with Saint Mars to the Bastille and was there made welcome as we have seen. He was at liberty to walk in the garden, attend mass, and was accorded the best treatment possible for a captive. But in public he always kept his mask, whether for reasons of state, to escape the reproach of having violated the law of nations, or from habit or preference on his part, is not known. Other prisoners wore masks in transit from one stronghold to another and it was the fact that this one wore his all the time which attracted popular

attention and excited the curiosity of those wardens who did not come into personal relations with him.

The register of his death referred to in Du Junca's diary was preserved in the archives of the city of Paris until 1871, when it was destroyed by fire, during the Commune. But a facsimile of it exists and reads as follows: "The 19th (1703), Marchioly, about forty-five years of age, died in the Bastille. His body was buried in St. Paul's churchyard, his parish, on the 20th, in the presence of Monsieur Rosage, major of the Bastille, and Monsieur Reglhe, head surgeon of the Bastille, who have signed."

If we remember that "Marchioly" should be pronounced, after the Italian manner, "Markioly," that Saint Mars, who furnished the name, wrote it in 1680 "Marthioly," that the major of the Bastille was called "Rosarges" and not "Rosage" and the surgeon "Railh" and not "Reglhe," we shall not be rash in assuming that the name on the church register is the name of the Mantuan minister.

And thus we have confirmed Louis XV.'s statement to Mme. de Pompadour, who re-

peated it to the Duc de Choiseul, that the Mask had been an Italian minister, as well as Louis XVI.'s remark to Marie Antoinette that he had been assured by Maurepas, that the prisoner was a subject of the Duke of Mantua, who had been lured to the frontier, and confined first at Pignerol and afterwards in the Bastille.

So the story of the Iron Mask is seen to be of very little importance. The legend which had involved even the throne of France, is found void and empty. But such was its hold, that the books and articles written on the subject since the time of Voltaire would fill a library. Curiously enough all serious historical works (with two or three exceptions) for more than a century, have reached the same conclusion, the right one. Yet at every fresh effort of science, legend, made more active by the passions aroused by the French Revolution, set itself at work again. But with the discovery of the name of the Mantuan minister on the register of St. Paul's, science has gained the final victory, and has revealed to the world under the famous mask of black velvet, the face of Antonio Hercules Mattioli.

SUNDAY READINGS.

BROTHERS AND A SERMON.

FROM A POEM BY JEAN INGELOW.

[February 3.]

"THEY ring for service," quoth the fisherman;
"Our parson preaches in the church to-night."

"And do the people go?" my brother asked.

"Ay, sir; they count it mean to stay away, He takes it so to heart. He's a rare man, Our parson; half a head above us all."

"That's a great gift and notable," said I.

"Ay, sir; and when he was a younger man He went out in the lifeboat very oft, Before the *Grace of Sunderland* was wrecked. He's never been his own man since that hour; For there were thirty men aboard of her,

Anigh as close as you are now to me,
And ne'er a one was saved.

They're lying now,
With two small children, in a row; the church
And yard are full of seamen's graves, and few
Have any names.

She bumped upon the reef;
Our parson, my young son, and several more
Were lashed together with a two-inch rope,
And crept along to her; their mates ashore
Ready to haul them in. The gale was high,
The sea was all a boiling seething froth,
And God Almighty's guns were going off,
And the land trembled.

"When she took the ground,
She went to pieces like a lock of hay

Tossed from a pitchfork. Ere it came to that,
The captain reeled on deck with two small
things,

One in each arm—his little lad and lass.
Their hair was long, and blew before his face,
Or else we thought he had been saved; he
fell,

But held them fast. The crew, poor luckless
souls!

The breakers licked them off; and some
were crushed,

Some swallowed in the yeast, some flung up
dead,

The dear breath beaten out of them: not one
jumped from the wreck upon the reef to catch
The hands that strained to reach, but tum-
bled back

With eyes wide open. But the captain lay
And clung, the only man alive. They prayed,
'For God's sake, captain, throw the children
here!'

'Throw them!' our parson cried; and then
she struck:

And he threw one, a pretty two-years child;
But the gale dashed him on the slippery verge,
And down he went. They say they heard him
cry.

"Then he rose up and took the other one,
And all our men reached out their hungry
arms,
And cried out, 'Throw her, throw her!' and
he did:

He threw her right against the parson's
breast,

And all at once a sea broke over them,
And they that saw it from the shore have said
It struck the wreck and piecemeal scattered it,
Just as a woman might the lump of salt
That 'twixt her hands into the kneading pan
She breaks and crumbles on her rising bread.

"We hauled our men in: two of them were
dead—

The sea had beaten them, their heads hung
down;

Our parson's arms were empty, for the wave
Had torn away the pretty, pretty lamb;
We often see him stand beside her grave:
But 'twas no fault of his, no fault of his.

"I ask your pardon, sirs; I prate and prate,
And never have I said what brought me here.

D-Feb.

Sirs, if you want a boat to-morrow morn,
I'm bold to say there's ne'er a boat like
mine."

"Ay, that was what we wanted," we replied;
"A boat, his boat," and off he went, well
pleased.

We, too, rose up (the crimson in the sky
Flushing our faces), and went sauntering on,
And thought to reach our lodging, by the
cliff.

And up and down among the heather beds,
And up and down between the sheaves, we
sped,

Doubling and winding; for a long ravine
Ran up into the land and cut us off,
Pushing out slippery ledges for the birds,
And rent with many a crevice, where the wind
Had laid up drifts of empty eggshells, swept
From the bare berths of gulls and guille-
mots.¹

[February 10.]

So as it chanced we lighted on a path
That led into a nutwood; and our talk
Was louder than beseemed, if we had known,
With argument and laughter; for the path,
As we sped onward, took a sudden turn
Abrupt, and we came out on churchyard
grass,

And close upon a porch, and face to face
With those within, and with the thirty graves.
We heard the voice of one who preached
within,

And stopped. "Come on," my brother
whispered me;

"It were more decent that we enter now;
Come on! we'll hear this rare old demigod:
I like strong men and large; I like gray heads,
And grand gruff voices, hoarse though this
may be
With shouting in the storm."

It was not hoarse,
The voice that preached to those few fisher-
men

And women, nursing mothers with the babes
Hushed on their breasts; and yet it held them
not:

Their drowsy eyes were drawn to look at us,
Till, having leaned our rods against the wall,
And left the dogs at watch, we entered, sat,

And were apprised that, though he saw us not,
The parson knew that he had lost the eyes
And ears of those before him, for he made
A pause—a long dead pause—and dropped
his arms,
And stood awaiting, till I felt the red
Mount to my brow.

And a soft fluttering stir
Passed over all, and every mother hushed
The babe beneath her shawl, and he turned
round

And met our eyes unused to diffidence,
But diffident of his; then with a sigh
Fronted the folk, lifted his grand gray head,
And said, as one that pondered now the words
He had been preaching on with new surprise,
And found fresh marvel in their sound,
“Behold!

Behold!” saith He, “I stand at the door
and knock.”

Then said the parson: “What! and shall
He wait,

And must He wait, not only till we say,
‘Good Lord, the house is clean, the hearth
is swept,

The children sleep, the mackerel-boats are in,
And all the nets are mended; therefore I
Will slowly to the door and open it;
But must He also wait where still, behold!
He stands and knocks, while we do say,
‘Good Lord,

The gentlefolk are come to worship here,
And I will up and open to Thee soon;
But first I pray a little longer wait,
For I am taken up with them; my eyes
Must needs regard the fashion of their clothes,
And count the gains I think to make by them;
Forsooth, they are of much account, good
Lord!

Therefore have patience with me—wait, dear
Lord!

Or come again?”

What! must He wait for THIS—
For this? Ay, He doth wait for this, and still,
Waiting for this, He, patient, railleth not;
Waiting for this, e’en this, He saith, ‘Behold!
I stand at the door and knock.’

O patient hand!
Knocking and waiting—knocking in the
night

When work is done! I charge you, by the sea
Whereby you fill your children’s mouths,
and by

The might of Him that made it—fishermen!
I charge you, mothers! by the mother’s milk
He drew, and by His Father, God over all,
Blessed for ever, that ye answer Him!

Open the door with shame, if ye have sinned;
If ye be sorry, open it with sighs.

Albeit the place be bare for poverty,
And comfortless for lack of plenishing,
Be not abashed for that, but open it,
And take Him in that comes to sup with thee;
‘Behold!’ He saith, ‘I stand at the door
and knock.’

“Now, hear me: there be troubles in this
world

That no man can escape, and there is one
That lieth hard and heavy on my soul,
Concerning that which is to come:—

I say

As a man that knows what earthly trouble
means,

I will not bear this ONE—I cannot bear
This ONE—I cannot bear the weight of you—
You—every one of you, body and soul;
You, with the care you suffer, and the loss
That you sustain; you, with the growing up
To peril, maybe with the growing old
To want, unless before I stand with you
At the great white throne, I may be free
of all,

And utter to the full what shall discharge
Mine obligation: nay, I will not wait
A day, for every time the black clouds rise,
And the gale freshens, still I search my soul
To find if there be aught that can persuade
To good, or aught forsooth that can beguile
From evil, that I (miserable man!
If that be so) have left unsaid, undone.

“So that when any risen from sunken
wrecks,

Or rolled in by the billows to the edge
Of the everlasting strand, what time the sea
Gives up her dead, shall meet me, they
may say

Never, ‘Old man, you told us not of this;
You left us fisher-lads that had to toil
Ever in danger of the secret stab

Of rocks, far deadlier than the dagger:
winds

Of breath more murderous than the can-
non's; waves

Mighty to rock us to our death; and gulfs
Ready beneath to suck and swallow us in:
This crime be on your head: and as for us
What shall we do?' but rather—nay, not so,
I will not think it; I will leave the dead,
Appealing but to life: I am afraid

Of you, but not so much if you have sinned
As for the doubt if sin shall be forgiven.

The day was, I have been afraid of pride—
Hard man's hard pride; but now I am afraid
Of man's humility. I counsel you,
By the great God's great humbleness, and by
His pity, be not humble overmuch.

See! I will show at whose unopened doors
He stands and knocks, that you may never
say,

'I am too mean, too ignorant, too lost;
He knocks at other doors, but not at mine.'

[*February 17.*]

"SEE here! it is the night! it is the night!
And snow lies thickly, white, untrodden
snow,

And the wan moon upon a casement shines—
A casement crusted o'er with frosty leaves,
That make her ray less bright along the
floor.

A woman sits, with hands upon her knees,
Poor tired soul! and she has nought to do,
For there is neither fire nor candle light;
The driftwood ash lies cold upon the hearth;
The rushlight flickered down an hour ago;
Her children wail a little in their sleep
For cold and hunger, and, as if that sound
Was not enough, another comes to her,
Over God's undefiled snow—a song—
Nay, never hang your heads—I say, a song.

"And doth she curse the alehouse, and the
sots

That drink the night out and their earnings
there,

And drink their manly strength and courage
down,

And drink away the little children's bread,
And starve her, starving by the self-same act
Her tender suckling, that with piteous eyes
Looks in her face, till scarcely she has heart

To work, and earn the scanty bit and drop
That feed the others?

Does she curse the song?
I think not, fishermen; I have not heard
Such women curse. God's curse is curse
enough.

To-morrow she will say a bitter thing,
Pulling her sleeve down lest the bruises
show—

A bitter thing, but meant for an excuse—
'My master is not worse than many men';
But now, ay, now she sitteth dumb and still;
No food, no comfort, cold and poverty
Bearing her down.

My heart is sore for her;
How long, how long? When troubles come
of God,
When men are frozen out of work, when
wives

Are sick, when working fathers fail and die,
When boats go down at sea—then nought
behooves

Like patience; but for troubles wrought of
men

Patience is hard—I tell you it is hard.

"O thou poor soul! it is the night—the
night;

Against thy door drifts up the silent snow,
Blocking thy threshold: 'Fall,' thou sayest,
'fall, fall,

Cold snow, and lie and be trod under foot,
Am not I fallen? Wake up, and pipe, O wind,
Dull wind, and beat and bluster at my door;
Merciful wind, sing me a hoarse rough song,
For there is other music made to-night
That I would fain not hear. Wake, thou
still sea,

Heavily plunge. Shoot on, white waterfall.
O, I could long like thy cold icicles
Freeze, freeze, and hang upon the frosty cliff
And not complain, so I might melt at last
In the warm summer sun, as thou wilt do;

"But woe is me! I think there is no sun;
My sun is sunken, and the night grows dark;
None care for me. The children cry for
bread,

And I have none, and nought can comfort me;
Even if the heavens were free to such as I,
It were not much, for death is long to wait,
And heaven is far to go!

“And speak'st thou thus,
 Despairing of the sun that sets to thee,
 And of the earthly love that wanes to thee,
 And of the heaven that lieth far from thee?
 Peace, peace, fond fool! One draweth near
 thy door
 Whose footsteps leave no print across the
 snow;
 Thy sun has risen with comfort in his face,
 The smile of heaven, to warm thy frozen
 heart,
 And bless with saintly hand. What? is it
 long

To wait and far to go? Thou shalt not go;
 Behold, across the snow to thee He comes,
 Thy heaven descends, and is it long to wait?
 Thou shalt not wait: ‘This night, this night,’

He saith,
 ‘I stand at the door and knock.’

“It is enough—can such an one be here—
 Yea, here? O God forgive you, fishermen!
 One! is there only one? But do thou know,
 O woman pale for want, if thou art here,
 That on thy lot much thought is spent in
 heaven;
 And, coveting the heart a hard man broke,
 One standeth patient, watching in the night,
 And waiting in the daytime.

What shall be
 If thou wilt answer? He will smile on thee;
 One smile of His shall be enough to heal
 The wound of man's neglect; and He will
 sigh,
 Pitying the trouble which that sigh shall
 cure;
 And He will speak—speak in the desolate
 night,
 In the dark night: ‘For me a thorny crown
 Men wove, and nails were driven in my
 hands,
 And feet: there was an earthquake, and I
 died;
 I died, and am alive for evermore.

“‘I died for thee; for thee I am alive,
 And my humanity doth mourn for thee,
 For thou art mine; and all thy little ones,
 They too, are mine, are mine. Behold the
 house
 Is dark, but there is brightness where
 the sons

Of God are singing, and behold, the heart
 Is troubled: yet the nations walk in white;
 They have forgotten how to weep; and thou
 Shalt also come, and I will foster thee
 And satisfy thy soul; and thou shalt warm
 Thy trembling life beneath the smile of God.
 A little while—it is a little while—
 A little while, and I will comfort thee,
 I go away, but I will come again.’

“But hear me yet. There was a poor
 old man
 Who sat and listened to the raging sea,
 And heard it thunder, lunging at the cliffs
 As like to tear them down. He lay at night;
 And ‘Lord have mercy on the lads,’ said he,
 ‘That sailed at noon, though they be none
 of mine.’

For when the gale gets up, and when the
 wind
 Flings at the window, when it beats the roof,
 And lulls, and stops, and rouses up again,
 And cuts the crest clean off the plunging
 wave,

And scatters it like feathers up the field,
 Why, then I think of my two lads: my lads
 That would have worked and never let me
 want,

And never let me take the parish pay.
 No, none of mine; my lads were drowned
 at sea—

My two—before the most of these were born,
 I know how sharp that cuts, since my poor
 wife

Walked up and down, and still walked up
 and down,

And I walked after, and one could not hear
 A word the other said, for wind and sea
 That raged and beat and thundered in the
 night—

The awfulest, the longest, lightest night
 That ever parents had to spend—a moon
 That shone like daylight on the breaking
 wave.

Ah me! and other men have lost their lads,
 And other women wiped their poor dead
 mouths,

And got them home and dried them in the
 house,

And seen the driftwood lie along the coast,
 That was a tidy boat but one day back,

And seen next tide the neighbors gather it
To lay it on their fires.

Ay, I was strong
And able-bodied—loved my work ;—but now
I am a useless hull : 'tis time I sunk ;
I am in all men's way ; I trouble them ;
I am a trouble to myself ; but yet
I feel for mariners of stormy nights,
And feel for wives that watch ashore. Ay, ay !
If I had learning I would pray the Lord
To bring them in : but I'm no scholar, no ;
Book-learning is a world too hard for me ;
But I make bold to say, 'O Lord, good Lord,
I am a broken-down poor man, a fool
To speak to Thee : but in the Book 'tis writ,
As I hear say from others that can read,
How, when Thou camest, Thou didst love
the sea,
And live with fisherfolk, whereby 'tis sure
Thou knowest all the peril they go through,
And all their trouble.

As for me, good Lord, .
I have no boat ; I am too old, too old—
My lads are drowned ; I buried my poor
wife ;
My little lassies died so long ago
That mostly I forget what they were like.
Thou knowest, Lord ; they were such little
ones
I know they went to Thee, but I forget
Their faces, though I missed them sore.

O Lord,
I was a strong man ; I have drawn good food
And made good money out of Thy great sea :
But yet I cried for them at nights ; and now,
Although I be so old, I miss my lads,
And there be many folk this stormy night
Heavy with fear for theirs. Merciful Lord,
Comfort them ; save their honest boys, their
pride,
And let them hear next ebb the blessedest,
Best sound—the boat keels grating on the
sand.

"I cannot pray with finer words : I know
Nothing ; I have no learning, cannot learn—
Too old, too old. They say I want for
nought,
I have the parish pay ; but I am dull
Of hearing, and the fire scarce warms me
through.

God save me—I have been a sinful man—
And save the lives of them that still can
work,
For they are good to me ; ay, good to me.
But, Lord, I am a trouble ; and I sit,
And I am lonesome, and the nights are few
That any think to come and draw a chair,
And sit in my poor place and talk awhile.
Why should they come, forsooth ? Only the
wind
Knocks at my door, O long and loud it
knocks,
The only thing God made that has a mind
To enter in.'

"Yes, thus the old man spake :
These were the last words of his aged
mouth—
BUT ONE DID KNOCK. One came to sup
with him,
That humble, weak old man ; knocked at his
door

In the rough pauses of the laboring wind.
I tell you that one knocked while it was dark,
Save where their foaming passion had made
white

Those livid seething billows. What He said
In that poor place where He did talk awhile,
I cannot tell ; but this I am assured,
That when the neighbors came the morrow
morn,
What time the wind had bated, and the sun
Shone on the old man's floor, they saw the
smile

He passed away in, and they said, ' He looks
As he had woke and seen the face of Christ,
And with that rapturous smile held out his
arms
To come to Him !'

"Can such an one be here,
So old, so weak, so ignorant, so frail ?
The Lord be good to thee, thou poor old man ;
It would be hard with thee if heaven were shut
To such as have not learning ! Nay, nay, nay,
He condescends to them of low estate ;
To such as are despised He cometh down,
Stands at the door and knocks.

[February 24.]

"Yet bear with me.
I have a message ; I have more to say.
Shall sorrow win His pity, and not sin—

That burden ten times heavier to be borne?
What think you? Shall the virtuous have
His care

Alone? O virtuous women, think not scorn,
For you may lift your faces everywhere;
And now that it grows dusk, and I can see
None though they front me straight, I fain
would tell

A certain thing to you. I say to *you*;
And if it doth concern you, as methinks
It doth, then surely it concerneth all.

I say that there was once—I say not here—
I say that there was once a castaway,
And she was weeping, weeping bitterly;
Kneeling, and crying with a heart-sick cry
That choked itself in sobs—‘O my good name!
O my good name!’ And none did hear her
cry!

Nay; and it lightened, and the storm-bolts fell,
And the rain splashed upon the roof, and still
She, storm-tost as the storming elements—
She cried with an exceeding bitter cry,
‘O my good name!’ And then the thunder-
cloud

Stooped low and burst in darkness overhead,
And rolled, and rocked her on her knees,
and shook

The frail foundations of her dwelling-place.
But she—if any neighbor had come in
(None did): if any neighbors had come in
They might have seen her crying on her
knees,

And sobbing, ‘Lost, lost, lost!’ beating her
breast—

Her breast forever pricked with cruel thorns,
The wounds whereof could neither balm
assuage

Nor any patience heal—beating her brow,
Which ached, it had been bent so long to hide
From level eyes, whose meaning was con-
tempt.

“O ye good women, it is hard to leave
The paths of virtue, and return again.
What if this sinner wept, and none of you
Comforted her? And what if she did strive
To mend, and none of you believed her strife,
Nor looked upon her? Mark, I do not say,
Though it was hard, you therefore were to
blame

That she had aught against you, though your
feet

Never drew near her door. But I beseech
Your patience. Once in Jerusalem
A woman kneeled at consecrated feet,
Kissed them, and washed them with her tears.

What then?

I think that yet our Lord is pitiful;
I think I see the castaway e’en now!
And she is not alone: the heavy rain
Splashes without, and sullen thunder rolls,
But she is lying at the sacred feet
of one transfigured.

“And her tears flow down,
Down to her lips—her lips that kiss the print
Of nails; and love is like to break her heart!
Love and repentance—for it still doth work
Sore in her soul to think, to think that she,
Even she, did pierce the sacred, sacred feet,
And bruise the thorn-crowned head.

“O Lord, our Lord,
How great is Thy compassion! Come, good
Lord,

For we will open. Come this night, good
Lord;

Stand at the door and knock.

“And is this all?—
Trouble, old age and simpleness, and sin—
This all? It might be all some other night:
But this night, if a voice said, ‘Give account,
Whom hast thou with thee?’ then must I reply,
‘Young manhood have I, beautiful youth
and strength,

Rich with all treasure drawn up from the crypt
Where lies the learning of the ancient world—
Brave with all thoughts that poets fling upon
The strand of life, as driftweed after storms:
Doubtless familiar with Thy mountain heads,
And the dread purity of Alpine snows,
Doubtless familiar with Thy works concealed
For ages from mankind—outlying worlds,
And many moonèd spheres—and Thy great
store

Of stars, more thick than mealy dust which
here

Powders the pale leaves of Auriculas².

This do I know, but, Lord, I know not more.
Not more concerning them—concerning
Thee,

I know Thy bounty; where Thou givest much
Standing without, if any call Thee in
Thou givest more. Speak, then, O rich and
strong:

Open, O happy young, ere yet the hand
Of Him that knocks, wearied at last, forbear;
The patient foot its thankless quest refrain,
The wounded heart forevermore withdraw."

I have heard many speak, but this one man—
So anxious not to go to heaven alone—
This one man I remember, and his look,
Till twilight overshadowed him. He ceased,
And out in darkness with the fisher folk
We passed and stumbled over mounds of moss,

And heard, but did not see, the passing
beck.

Ah, graceless heart, would that it could re-
gain

From the dim storehouse of sensations past
The impress full of tender awe, that night,
Which fell on me! It was as if the Christ
Had been drawn down from heaven to track
us home,

And any of the footsteps following us
Might have been His.

THE BEGINNING AND THE ENDING.

A FEW WORDS ABOUT PERSEVERANCE.

BY BISHOP JOHN H. VINCENT.

THAT alone is truly well begun that in the end is truly well done. The quality that insures the last act of a series must inhere in the first act to make it perfect as an initiative, just as the first stone of an arch must have the curved line which determines its place and which renders it of real value only when the completed arch is firmly established by the keystone. The chain that is to span one hundred feet of empty space must have the first link firm and the last link firm and all the intervening links as firm as the last and the first.

It is easy to begin a good work with enthusiasm. Ideals shine from beyond, and one's purpose is strong; the end already gives gladness to the beginning. It is as one girding on his sword rejoicing at the time as though he were putting it off, the victory having been already gained.

It is easy to start but it is as easy to stop; to find force oozing out of the hands that had so eagerly grasped tool or sword. One may "look back" and "give up" and "sit down" and forever forfeit the rewards, the hope of which had filled the first effort with the assurance of triumph.

Unfortunately human life is full of these endings just after the beginning; so that there is in such cases no honorable or successful ending at all. We find this in the church where men desire goodness and decide in its favor and start out before God

and angels and men to gain it. They continue for a season but do not continue to the last. They are "ever learning and never able to come to the knowledge of the truth." The plow is in the furrow, the face is set toward the utmost bound of the field, but soon the muscles relax and the backward look leaves the furrow forever unfinished. What pitiful stories do the archives¹ of the church contain concerning men and women who weep in penitence, make confession before men, and record vows that seem to touch the eternities, who losing fervor forget the pledge, neglect the sanctuary, and return to the old low life burdened by broken promises and the evil effects of vacillation and irresolution, their "aspirations quenched in tears, the tears of impotence and self-contempt."

In political life what wrecks are found, of men who pledged themselves in good faith on their part to stand for principles; when, alas, they soon after fall an easy prey to policies and bribes and compromises. If they had gone on in the wise and righteous way which they trod for a time only, self-respect and the commendation of good men would have crowned them, but, alas for them and theirs, the good they might have done remains undone and their instability has brought ruin!

In educational life the same lack of persistency leaves the ambitious dreamer superficial and undisciplined. The first weeks of

the first term at school give promises which the last week of the same term annul. The first volume of a series is read with delight; the pages are turned in rapid succession; the subject is of thrilling interest; plans are quietly laid in the reader's imagination for fuller and exhaustive investigation; an article on it is already planned or an address; and a decade is to be devoted to its development, when lo! the reader loses his enthusiasm and never even finishes the second volume.

To begin is well; to go on is better; to persevere is best. That word perseverance is a strong word. It reminds one of an auger that grinds its way *through*, and of the stroke of the woodman's ax that rings through the forest hour after hour, till the thunder of the falling tree tells all the mountains that the deed is done. To *persevere* is to keep at one's plan and work till it is accomplished. It is to *continue*, that is, to keep doing the same thing—doing to the end as he has been doing from the beginning. It is to *persist*—having a determination not to give up, whatever opposition he may encounter. It involves *assiduity*,² that is literally a sitting down to the task till it is ended. It is *pertinacity*³—the holding on with a stubborn will.

Persevere comes from *per* and *severus*. Severe means strict in judgment and discipline, earnest to the end. It is the rigidly methodical devotion to a principle and policy which keeps a man at a thing until he has completed or mastered or conquered it. It is the persevering "patience" which Buffon says "is genius." It involves industry and continuance. It was the rule of the great violinist who gave as his secret of success: "Twelve hours a day for twenty years together." Demosthenes, Robert Peel, and Henry Clay were made orators by it. William Carey the shoemaker became the successful missionary by it and did more for English supremacy in India than any minister of state ever sent by the crown to the Orient. By this same perseverance Sir Joshua Reynolds became a painter and Audubon the eminent naturalist, and Palissy the immortal artist in pottery. A recent compiler of the

records of genius says: "Gibbon worked twenty years on his 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire'; Noah Webster spent thirty-six years on his Dictionary; George Bancroft spent twenty-six years on his 'History of the United States'; Newton rewrote his 'Chronology of Ancient Nations' fifteen times; Titian wrote to Charles V: 'I send Your Majesty "The Last Supper" after working on it almost daily for seven years.' He worked on his 'Pietro Martyn' eight years. George Stephenson was fifteen years perfecting his locomotive; Watt worked twenty years on his condensing engine; Harvey labored eight years before he published his discovery of the circulation of the blood." Ralph Waldo Emerson quotes a painter as saying: "There is no way to success in our art but to take off your coat, grind paint, and work like a digger on the railroad all day and every day." Burke says, "Never despair, but if you do, work on in despair."

Perseverance is necessary to the preservation of our ideals. It empowers its possessor so that he can command the weak and turn their spasmodic efforts to the ends which he is determined to accomplish. It saves a man from becoming, as Emerson puts it, "a victim of gravity, custom, and fear." It secures self-discipline and self-command. It enriches a man and enables him to enrich society. Blessed is the man who beginning—perseveres!

Is there a field of endeavor where the first lessons of perseverance may be so easily practiced and success secured so promptly as in the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, where busy people turn from the ordinary vocations of life to an avocation which shall test and reward their endeavors? Many people persist in their daily affairs who need the training and discipline promoted by intellectual and literary activity. And former occupations command the full power of a man, but he is more easily diverted from the incidental pursuit—the reading, the study, the writing, the review made necessary by a simple course in literature, science, and art. A person who would not neglect trade or domestic duty would easily neglect his books; therefore the persistent study of

the book is important in the development of his manhood that he may be more than a tradesman, more than a machine—a thinker and scholar, a helper in his home and society in the nobler pursuits of life.

The Chautauqua course of reading thus promotes intellectual discipline; the accumulation of knowledge; refinement of taste; the higher tone of life; the increase of personal influence; the perfect self-mastery which gives one command over others, and, higher than all, the promotion of religious conviction and stability.

There are many readers of the Chautauqua Circle who begin well but soon drop out of the ranks; they come to think that they have undertaken more than they have power to accomplish. And this is never true. The work of the circle is so limited that the busiest man or woman may complete it if a

little time be every day given to it. And the best result of the course is not in the knowledge and taste acquired, but in that steady habit of perseverance which reacts on character and strengthens a man for the better performance of every duty in every relation of life.

The New Year has begun. A month of the year has passed. During the month some reader who began well when the bell rang the Old Year out and the New Year in, is beginning to relax his hold and to decide that New Year resolutions cannot last long to him. We say with Dr. Holmes at the opening of the second month of the New Year and the fifth month of the Chautauqua Year:

"Never give up: for the wisest is boldest,
Knowing that Providence mingles the cup;
And of all maxims the best, as the oldest,
Is the stern watchword of 'Never give up.'"

THE WORLD'S DEBT TO ELECTRICITY.*

BY PROFESSOR JOHN TROWBRIDGE, SC.D.

OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

TO OBTAIN a realizing sense of this debt one must reflect upon certain conditions of life in the civilized world before the invention of the telegraph, the telephone, and the dynamo machine. In 1830 it took three weeks to send a message from New York to Liverpool, and three months to Calcutta. Now a message can be sent and an answer obtained from Calcutta in less than five hours.

I lately heard an old East India merchant discussing the revolution in the method of conducting business which is due to the use of the telegraph. "Valuable information," said he, "was confined to the few who, by fast clipper ships and by energetic agents, could control the foreign trade. There was room for the exercise of sagacity, powers of combination, and the knowledge of available sources of supply, which characterized the great merchants of the world. In those days men went down to the sea in great ships. It was a noble

thing to be a merchant. Now all is changed. The East India merchants have passed away, and in their place are innumerable brokers who use the telegraph, and even their office boys can give you the quotations of goods in Calcutta. The street has the information which once made or marred the fortunes of a few."

The change in the methods, due to the use of the telegraph, is not greater in business than in warfare. Napoleon forced a passage over the Alps, and descended like an eagle upon the plains of Italy before the Italians and their allies heard of his coming. In those days it took the fastest horse three days to run from Milan to Rome. To-day Napoleon would find it impossible to attempt such a surprise. The telegraph and the telephone would inform the entire continent, and a multitude of men of mediocre ability, by using the medium of rapid interchange of ideas and by quick concentration, could oppose the attempt of genius. Electricity has made

*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

impossible a Napoleon's career.

There are even now pessimists¹ who mourn the good old time when stately East India merchants flourished and when there were romantic episodes such as the ride of Paul Revere. Certainly a "Hello" to Concord from a central station is less romantic; but it leads to a prospect of international arbitration for settlement of difficulties rather than a resort to war. Imperfect communication and misleading information have often, in the past, been the causes of nations' resorting to arms. To-day the telegraph and the telephone bring people into close communication, and they are forced to reason together.

I believe, however, that in order to understand our entire indebtedness to electricity we must reflect upon the vast increase in the population of our great cities since the time of Napoleon, and upon the importance of electricity in insuring the safety of the inhabitants of these great centers from fire and from the lawlessness of the criminal classes. In the time of Napoleon, Paris contained 712,000 inhabitants. Now it contains 2,447,957. London had then barely a million of people; now it has over four millions. Berlin and Vienna had hardly as many people as a suburb of London. New York was not larger than Cambridge is at present, and Chicago was a swamp. With the increase of population has grown also the criminal class. To-day, the thief who leaves London for New York finds an officer on the wharf in New York awaiting him. The burglar in flying from city to city feels no security in traveling at the rate of forty to sixty miles an hour, for he knows that electricity travels infinitely faster.

The telegraph fire alarm system also is one of the greatest safeguards to life and property; by its aid hundreds of fires are extinguished before they have reached a dangerous stage. We could replace it possibly by a multitude of messengers, ready to mount and ride to central stations, where the engines are kept, but the mere contemplation of the small army of watchmen that would be required to do the work of

the economical telegraph system enables us to obtain a conception of one of the debts we owe to electricity.

In most cities the telephone has also been added to the equipment of the police service. At certain hours, every policeman is required to report at a signal box, which is in telephonic communication with the nearest police station. Thus the great city, which is full of dangers from fire and accidents and thieves, is kept under control by means of electricity.

By means of the dynamo streets and dark places are flooded with the electric light. People are carried to and fro by electric cars. Hundreds of artisans are provided with electric power. Places of amusement are brilliantly lighted, and contrasts of tint and combinations of color are made possible to a degree once only imagined by the reader of the "Arabian Nights."

In the case of war with a foreign power America would soon realize her obligations to electricity, for the chief defense of the harbors would consist in properly placed torpedoes which could be fired by electricity. Then, too, her enormous extent of territory could be kept in touch with the central government only by the use of the telegraph. In general, electricity facilitates military operations, but it also tends to prevent them altogether; for it can make war terrible by means of dynamite. It can direct submarine torpedo boats which are capable of destroying the most powerful cruisers. It throws a searching light upon belligerent vessels and gives neither the advantage of darkness. We are already seeing the comforting spectacle of intelligent men conferring with each other on international difficulties around a friendly board and receiving telegrams from their respective nations which direct their deliberations for peace. Electricity may be said to be at its best in this benevolent service to mankind. It is facile however and can be made the agent by means of which far reaching destruction of lives and property is accomplished.

The great deeds of electricity seem to be in the accomplishment of the transmission

of intelligence around the world with the speed that realizes the boast of Puck³ in "Midsummer Night's Dream," the lighting of great cities and the transmission of power. There are, however, humbler deeds which have had great influence upon the work of mankind. In the arts I need only mention that of electroplating and electrotyping. The saving in labor by the use of nickel-plated articles is immense. Formerly a great army of workers were occupied in polishing and burnishing iron and steel implements, which are now protected from the corroding effect of rust by nickel plating. In the extraction of ores also electrolysis⁴ plays an important part; and the humblest citizen can have his electroplated silver service, which is more serviceable than that made of solid silver, for it abides with him longer. The multiplication of books and newspapers depends largely upon the art of electrotyping.

Among the minor changes which electricity has wrought in our daily living is the substitution of electric bells for the old-fashioned bell wire. Most house-holders have had painful experience with the latter: a vigorous pull has left a foot of wire protruding at the front door; rust has eaten away the iron wire in the dusty recesses of the cellar; its tension has been relaxed and no amount of pulling would ring the bell. The electric bell is much simpler and easier to put in, for the wires can be led anywhere, around corners, or doubled on themselves with perfect ease, and the battery needs but little care. No modern house is now provided with the mechanical bell attachments which were universal forty years ago. This change has had an important influence in diminishing the number of haunted houses, and I therefore feel justified in referring to it in a dignified article on *The World's Debt to Electricity*. In the old system of bell ringing, rats creeping under and over the wire often set the bells to ringing. Electricity has changed all this, rats are powerless, and the ghostly bell ringing in haunted houses has disappeared.

In sudden emergencies electricity is at its best. By its help the ambulance corps is speedily summoned to the scene of an acci-

dent and the sufferers have the aid of the best surgical skill, often within the space of ten or fifteen minutes. These minutes frequently mean the saving of life. To obtain a realizing sense of this beneficent service of electricity picture yourself sitting by the bedside of a friend in Old Boston in the year 1775—a friend whose life is ebbing away from a cut artery. It often took hours then to find a surgeon. "Yes," the critic may say, "then too there were no electrical cars to run you down, the aged and children could cross the streets with safety: for that thing which Dr. Holmes calls the 'purring cat' was not ready to pounce upon them." The blame should not be laid at the door of electricity; to do this would be like condemning the work of the surgeon's sharp knives which some bungling practitioner has left where children could get at them; or the pranks of the wild horse uncontrolled by the untrained driver.

Electricity has taught mankind the value of quick action in emergencies. It is like the tonic of military training to a country bumpkin. The pessimist—annoyed by the constant ringing of the telephone bell, the calls upon his attention from bores, the constant reception of telegrams, and worn by the nervous strain of all this—may maintain that the world is no happier than it was in the days it took Washington nearly a week to transmit orders from Cambridge to New York. "All philosophical use of the mind is prevented," I hear him exclaim. It is true, I believe, that we must habituate ourselves to the new conditions of intellectual work which are due to the use of the telegraph and the telephone. If we cannot immure ourselves as Kant⁴ did at Königsberg, and after forty years of philosophical thinking, proclaim as the result that time and matter had no real existence—in which postulates, he strangely foreshadowed our modern thoughts in regard to electricity—we can set ourselves to the definite work of understanding the possibilities which are offered to us in the use of electricity. We have not yet mastered the intellectual weapon which electricity gives us. A touch of the telegraph key will prick a philosophical ab-

surdity which otherwise might have a century's existence.

Electricity can prevent fires and it can also cause them. It can kill men or save their lives. This dual nature demands increased intelligence in man to cope with it and subdue it so that it can minister to him. In this demand I see an educating factor of the highest value and I believe that the greatest service electricity has rendered mankind resides in its educating power, through the newspaper. The average man in towns far from the great centers of intelligence, towns which can be reached from New York or Chicago only by a week's travel on the swiftest trains, still can read in his evening paper the last speech of Gladstone on Home Rule, the account of the crowning of the czar, or successful treatment of diphtheria by anti-toxine.

Every one can appreciate the quickening of intelligence which is due to electricity; but there is a more subtle intellectual awakening which has arisen from the study of this subject. I suppose that the investigation of no branch of science has done as much as electricity to make us aware of the great laws which underlie the transformations of energy which constitute life. Some years since Tyndall published a book on "Heat as a Mode of Motion" which was epoch making, in the sense that it made men see the truth of the great law that heat had its exact equivalent in motion. Light and heat came to us from the sun and were trans-

formed into motion and the motion could be retransformed into light and heat. This is the doctrine of the conservation of energy. Electricity stood one side like a mysterious servant ready to help in the great hospital of the world, but whose origin and connection with the great agencies of light and heat were little understood. To-day the strange servant has become the master and directs all the transformations in the workshop of the world: for we believe that we have found the antecedents in the sun and that all the energy that vivifies the world in the guise of light and heat is merely a manifestation or transformation of electrical waves which come from the sun.

The study of electricity has led us to abandon one intellectual superstition after another and to mount to the loftiest conceptions of the possibilities of the transformations of electrical energy. When we compare the thoughts of a Goethe⁵ on the mysteries of the transformations of light with the thoughts of Helmholtz,⁶ we can almost picture to ourselves the mental effect of a resurrection.

The debt the world owes to electricity is in the new revelation which has come to man. Of the possibilities he has in taking advantage of the transformations of electrical energy which have been offered since the first kindling of the stars and the creation of man, but which have not been availed of until within fifty years.

KINGSLEY'S "WESTWARD HO!"

A ROMANCE OF THE STRUGGLE WITH SPAIN.

BY PROFESSOR R. G. MOULTON, PH. D.

OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

CHARLES KINGSLEY was at the same time a university professor of history, a leading type of English Broad Churchism, and a story-teller of front rank. His "Westward Ho!" may be regarded as an ideal example of the historical romance, so equably is a story of private life interwoven with public history. An imaginary individual is made the hero; and

those with whom he is brought into contact, whether from family and local connection or as affording material for development of the plot, are in a natural way illustrative of the various social and national elements, the union of which made up Elizabethan England. The plot may be summarized as a deadly feud of two individuals becoming involved in a life and death struggle between.

two nations and national ideals.

The period is the middle phase of the great contest that was "to lift the medieval world into the modern," the struggle between the church of tradition and the claim for religious freedom had died down into a practical toleration for all but extremists. But it was becoming dimly seen that the England so constituted, the England that was turning its attention from religious controversy to mercantile enterprise, must sooner or later reckon with the external power of Spain, which by the right of discovery claimed the New World as its own exclusive possession, and through its Inquisition was prepared to assert the dominion of the old church over all persons of whatever nationality it could lay its hands upon.

The domestic struggle for political equality that was to mark the next era had hardly become apparent. Accordingly, throughout our romance a note of aristocratic leadership prevails. It is a local aristocracy. Devonshire led England in the days of Elizabeth; and the Grenvilles, Carys, Coffins, Fortescues, St. Legers, Leighs—still the leading names in the west of England—figure in our story as "tall and stately men, and fair ladies, worthy of the days when the gentry of England were by due right the leaders of the people, by personal prowess and beauty, as well as by intellect and education."

The hero is a Leigh: in person a giant, and with the giant's simplicity and force. He realizes completely the ideal Kingsley was always preaching, which has come to be nicknamed "muscular Christianity." Kingsley gives us pages of satire on introspective religion, showing, as usual with satirists, how little he understands what he attacks. Still, he is right in selecting this type of character, active and not reflective, to make a center for an age of action.

With the hero are linked other individuals, recalling to us other aspects of the age. His father—one of those men "who possess almost every gift except the gift of the power to use them"—reminds us of the restlessness of the first period of the

Renaissance. His mother had been once about Queen Elizabeth's court, but had found court life incompatible with the sadness she had inherited from her mother, who had clung to Protestantism through the Marian persecutions, and seen Anne Askew¹ burned at the stake.

But it is the elder brother, Francis Leigh, who draws into the story the whole stream of strangely compounded elements that make the Renaissance: minute learning, elegant and traveled fashion, delicate poetic fancy, fastidious personal honor, deep-seated seriousness of character, and brilliant play of wit. It is Frank who arranges the pageant to grace Amyas' return; posing the beautiful maidens of North Devon as classical nymphs, writing Latin epigrams, and exchanging thrusts of euphuism with the superfine Lady Bath; not forgetting the rougher figures in the masque, whose clumsiness gives scope for the comic business of "putting the blue ochidore² to maister's poll!" We seem to catch a breath even of medieval chivalry when Frank forms the brotherhood of the Rose. And he shows himself a knight of more than medieval devotion when he plunges into the expedition, for which he was so little fitted, in order to bring aid to Rose on the mere doubt whether she had gone freely away; while the mysterious course of events crowns his devotion with the final sacrifice of his life to comfort his first love, as the two are led to martyrdom by the Inquisition. English fiction contains no more exquisite piece of workmanship than this figure of Francis Leigh.

But there was another branch of the Leigh family, that had remained Catholic when the greater part of England turned Protestant. This makes a door through which enters into the story another typical activity of the times—the intrigues of the omnipresent Jesuits. Eustace Leigh had been "sent to be made a liar of at Rheims; and a very fair liar he had become." Jesuitism is of course the very antithesis of all that Kingsley worships; he paints his Jesuits as sincerely devoted—winning souls in the bogs of Ireland and the neglected

bandit regions of England—but absolutely incapable of honesty. Eustace Leigh is the villain of the story; and through him, directly or indirectly, nearly all the mischief is made.

One figure more must be mentioned. Rose, the heroine, whose beauty drives all the youth of North Devon wild—is no aristocrat, but a merchant's daughter. Here we get another of the forces of the age; old Salterne, and the men who in his parlor exchange respectful defiance with the Spaniard, represent an errantry of mercantile adventure which had succeeded to the place of the knight errantry of the middle ages. While Spain dominated the seas these merchant adventurers, with a secrecy often savoring of piracy, were getting finger-tips into the sources of wealth of the New World; with every decade they grew bolder, and at last constituted the sinews of war with which England wrested from the Armada the magna charta of an open sea.

These are the personages of the story, each illustrating some aspect of history. But besides the train of incidents which constitutes the plot itself we have a number of other stories appearing from time to time as episodes in the romance. In the opening scene we have Mr. Oxenham's story of how Drake led himself and other lads of Devon to the mouth of the world's treasure; and how they left their treasure to save their wounded hero. Amyas' apprenticeship to the sea is the celebrated voyage of Sir Francis Drake round the world in the *Pelican*, disputing Spanish supremacy upon the sea and seizing Spanish galleons without the formalities of a declaration of war.

Later we have Salvation Yeo's long narrative of Oxenham's ill-fated expedition; here a romance of love and jealousy is added to the usual adventures by field and by flood, and the "little maid," the fruit of this intrigue, is cruelly cast out into the woods by the Spaniard, to reappear in marvelous wise in the course of our plot.

Then we listen to Raleigh's eloquent pictures of the Golden City, that was the chief bait for western adventurers. Last

of these episodes we have the disastrous expedition of the high-souled Sir Humphrey Gilbert, sent out under royal auspices to settle Newfoundland; we hear of the bickering and insubordination under a general not rough enough for his task, and get a glimpse of the tragic end, when just before the ten-ton *Squirrel* capsizes, the general is seen "sitting abaft, with a book in his hand," and reiterating his cry, "We are as near heaven by sea as by land." These successive episodes make an atmosphere for the plot itself, emphasizing the mutual attitude of Spain and adventurous Britain, as rallying points of domination and liberty.

Ireland is the point at which Spaniards and British are first brought into direct conflict; a body of Spaniards (without formal authorization from their king) have come over to assist the Irish rebels. Amyas Leigh has a share in the task of chastising them, when—by virtue of the distinction between licensed war and piracy—the whole force is refused mercy and massacred. This same Irish campaign brings together the two individuals whose conflict was to make the plot of the story. Amyas takes prisoner Don Guzman Maria Magdalena Sotomayor de Soto. He is of the bluest blood of Spain, and can show royal quarterings; Spanish loftiness is in him refined by cosmopolitan experience. Of course he shares his nation's idea that the insolent British must be swept from the seas, but he has sense to see that the task is one which will strain all the force his country possesses. His devotion to the Catholic Church is unquestioning; but in character he is a man of scrupulous honor. In the incidents of the story he cannot be shown to have given any real handle against himself; his English foes simply suspect the worst. But he is typical of his nation in having to bear the responsibility of wrongs done by his church and its Inquisition, which—as the commandant is made to tell us in whispers—the Spanish laity hate, yet have not moral courage to oppose.

Don Guzman remains as a prisoner in

Devonshire. The real movement of the story commences when, in Kingsley's expressive phrase, old Salterne baits his hook with his own flesh. The beauty of Rose is such that even the Spaniard is attracted; and the shrewd merchant is not loth to encourage his visits, and so pick up from Don Guzman the mercantile secrets of his travels. We expect a course of Spanish gallantry; but in fact the simple dignity of the Devonshire girl keeps the foreign nobleman at his due distance. Meanwhile her heart has been touched by this most splendid of all her admirers; and when the prisoner is ransomed, and the prospect of parting after long estrangement softens her, she yields to his suit, and the lovers are seen together by jealous rivals, who jump to the conclusion that dishonesty is intended. There is an explosion; the Spaniard leaves in dudgeon; Rose has to feel her father's violence, and is driven to think of the Spaniard as her sole protector. A few weeks and she is gone; while mysterious strangers have been seen between Lundy Island and the mainland. None can tell whether she has gone as voluntary wife or captive. The brotherhood of the Rose, at all costs, will follow on her track, and ascertain the truth, or, if needs be, attempt the rescue.

So we reach the grand expedition of the good ship *Rose*, with its strange mingling of private and public enterprise, an expedition equally against the queen's enemies and the supposed betrayer of the Devonshire maiden. We follow it through scenes of tropical beauty, and reckless fight against odds, to La Guayra, of which Don Guzman is governor. They find their purpose known, and force is impossible. But on this "highest wall on earth, rising seven thousand feet out of the sea," takes place the memorable night adventure: The brothers stand in the darkness, only a yard or two from the woman they are seeking, surrounded by her sleepy guards; overhear the conversation that shows them all is well between Rose and her husband; recognize in the one who speaks to her their Jesuit cousin, and catch the hint of the Inquisition threatening

in the background. There is the surprise, the retreat under fire; and Amyas wakes from his swoon to find his high-souled brother a prisoner, and no rescue possible.

The expedition is now drawn into the general current of Westward Ho adventure. First there is a chance against the Spaniard, with the odds of only three to one; the brilliant sea-fight is a type of the coming climax, English perfection of seamanship against Spanish mass and pomp. Then scenes pass before us like a panorama; ship abandoned in a pestilential river—encampment and battle in a mighty ceiba³ tree—four years searching for the golden city—river pictures and simple native life—the mysterious Indian maiden who follows Amyas like a dog and will not be shaken off—captures of gold trains, and finally of the great Spanish galleon. But here a crisis is reached. On that ship they find evidence telling how Rose and Francis Leigh have been burned alive by the Inquisition. Amyas hangs from the yard-arm both bishop and inquisitor, and swears a mighty oath:

"God do so to me, and more also, if as long as I have eyes to see a Spaniard, and hands to hew him down, I do any other thing than hunt down that accursed nation day and night!"

It is in vain that the homeward voyage is marked by the sudden identification of the Indian maid with the abandoned child of Yeo's story; the spectacle of a savage life awaking to civilization, and offering her store of young love on the shrine of Amyas, has no power to soften him; he can only recollect that she has Spanish blood in her veins.

So the historical matter of the romance reaches its great climax; the twelve days' epic "which was to determine whether popery and despotism or Protestantism and freedom were the law which God had appointed for the half of Europe, and the whole of future America." But Amyas enters into the conflict no longer single-minded; as he leads the *Vengeance* in the sea-fight the thought of England and Protestantism is obscured by the search for the *St. Catherine*, on which Don Guzman commands. The hugest armada of history

comes on in all its pomp; the sea-dog commanders of Plymouth finish their game of bowls before they go out to the attack. Day after day the armada is progressing up channel, the English hanging on their heels, pounding one huge ship after another into a wreck, and always getting the wind of the enemy. One Sabbath of awful suspense, the women of England praying, their husbands and brothers lining the cliffs, and then in the night the queen's masterstroke has turned the scale: the fire-ships running down the wind produce a panic, and the vast armada is broken never to re-form.

Through all these days Amyas has been finding and losing his foe; in the black storm drawn down by the "floating volcano" the *St. Catherine* is hopelessly lost. All round Scotland Amyas pursues. At last—just as Lundy Island, scene of the elopement, is emerging through the gloom, the prey is secure.

"Safe as a fox in a trap. Satan himself cannot take him from us!"

"But God may."

The thunder bursts, and the lightning reveals the vast ship, amid shrieks of its hapless crew, crashing on the Shutter rock,

and dashed to pieces. In wild rage Amyas cries shame on providence and throws his sword into the sea. The next flash—and his vow will be kept, for he has no eyes to see Spanish enemy any more.

The historic crisis is over. The private feud has ended in death and blindness. But the final note is that of reconciliation. The helpless giant is seated alone, with his face turned toward the spot where his foe had disappeared.

"And I saw him sitting in his cabin, like a valiant gentleman of Spain; and his officers were sitting round him, with their swords upon the table, at the wine. And the prawns and the crayfish and the rockling, they swam in and out above their heads: but Don Guzman he never heeded, but sat still and drank his wine. Then he took a locket from his bosom; and I heard him speak, Will, and he said: 'Here's the picture of my fair and true lady; drink to her, Señors, all.' Then he spoke to me, Will, and called me, right up through the sea-weed and the sea: 'We have had a fair quarrel, Señor; it is time to be friends once more. My wife and your brother have forgiven me; so your honor takes no stain.' And I answered, 'We are friends, Don Guzman; God has judged our quarrel, and not we.' Then he said, 'I sinned, and I am punished.' And I said, 'And, Señor, so am I.' Then he held out his hand to me, Cary; and I stooped to take it, and awoke."

FAMOUS BRIDGES OF THE WORLD.

BY ROBERT JAMISON.

IGNORANCE and Enmity are convertible terms. When in the slow advance from savagery to civilization men first began to move about from place to place all the world was in a state of chronic war. Tribes met tribes and a battle followed on the general principle that strangers must be enemies. It is thought that the first great migrations of men were from the interior of continents to the sea along the rivers, for the water meant at once food and road. The rivers were the first highways and, at the same time, they were the first boundaries between tribes, nations, and races. The sea, in like manner, was a road and also a limit.

A river, while it is a highway along its length, is an obstruction across its width.

The first rude rafts could drift down the current, but the same current made it difficult to cross the river from side to side. People on opposite sides of a river thus remained ignorant of each other and as a result were enemies. There could be no trade, because no chance to exchange goods and ideas. So it was that the desire to exchange the fruits and game of one district for those of another led to the first rude attempts to cross a stream by means of a bridge. The shallow ford suggested stepping stones, a fallen tree suggested the laying of a log from bank to bank or from one heap of stones to another. Over the bridge strangers passed, mutual acquaintance created confidence, and trade at once followed peace.

Thus the bridge became one of the greatest factors in the ascent of man from savagery to civilization. The defense of a bridge or its loss decided battles and fixed the fate of nations. The very term "bridge" has become woven into the poetry and proverbs of every language. With the advent of the railroad the bridge has suddenly assumed an overwhelming importance and its size and cost have increased enormously. Without the modern bridge all Europe would starve and the union would be impossible. More curious still, that ancient highway, the river, has also assumed an increased importance. At first, it was thought that the railroad would ruin the canal and river as a road. This today is recognized as a mistake and it is now definitely settled that the boat has no rights the locomotive need not respect. The boat, in fact, has the right of way and the engine must wait for the boat. As it cannot wait, the bridge must be lifted high in the air that the masts of the commonest trading boat have free sailing under the road bed of the fast express. These things give the bridge a new and commanding interest and make its study and construction one of the greatest of modern arts.

The first bridges were no doubt logs on heaps of stones laid in a river bed. Bridges of wood are mentioned as early as 1200 B. C. Homer refers to them also and the first bridge built in Rome appears to have been built about 600 B. C. These early bridges were probably simple pile bridges such as may be seen over many small streams in this country. The oldest bridge in existence in England is believed to be a bridge in Dartmore. It consists of simple masonry piers with flat slabs of stone for beams on top and is thought to be about 2,000 years old. Arched bridges of solid masonry were built by the Romans all over Europe. One of these built at Alcantara,¹ Spain, about A. D. 104 still shows by its ruins that it must have been in its day a very famous bridge. It was 670 feet long and 210 feet high and consisted of a series of six arches of different sizes. The many great aqueducts² built by the Romans were true bridges and in their very ruins testify to the

skill and courage of their great builders. The contest between the bridge and the boat is probably very old, for the Romans learned the art of making drawbridges (which were simple lifts) to allow boats to pass the bridge. The Chinese were also great bridge builders since the very earliest times. The records of their great bridges are not very definite, yet it is clear they knew how to make masonry arches of great height and span.

After the Roman bridges there came many others of both wood and stone. A masonry arch bridge founded by St. Benedret at Avignon in A. D. 1177 consisted of 18 arches, the bridge being bowed upstream to resist the current. It was many years in building and like nearly every old bridge in Europe was destroyed in some war. Old London Bridge was regarded as one of the wonders of the world. It had nineteen stone arches and was covered with buildings, except at the middle where the draw was placed. It was commenced A. D. 1176 and was not completed till thirty-three years after. The longest single span arch bridge is said to have stood at Tresso. The bridge had a span of 251 feet and was 87 feet high. It was built in 1380 and was a famous bridge in its day. Nothing now remains except a small portion of the arch.

These are examples of the old bridges of Europe. There were a great many of them erected at different times, but all have disappeared except a few of the stronger stone bridges and are to-day simply curious as showing the skill of their builders. When we consider that all the labor was done by hand and that the stone bridges implied the use of massive false works³ built up with carpenters' hand tools they were indeed famous bridges. Indeed, the false works used in the last (modern) London Bridge were regarded as quite as remarkable as the now famous bridge itself. Among the stone arched bridges of Europe perhaps the most famous of all is the small stone bridge spanning a narrow passage way between two buildings in Venice and known as the Bridge of Sighs. It is famous for its use between a courthouse and prison and has given its name to similar bridges in our own cities.

In like manner, bridges have become famous for battles and their fame is preserved in ballads, novels, and histories.

With the advent of the railroad came an increased demand for bridges. The new iron horse was very particular about his footing and would not travel except on a level road. The coach horse went up hill and down dale and crossed rivers or bridges only a few feet above high tide. The locomotive was far heavier than a whole team of horses and it must cross upon a level. This and the necessity of allowing boats to pass under the bridges made it necessary to build very high and very strong bridges. Stone and brick arches seem to have early been in favor with the railroad builders and particularly in England where long brick arch viaducts^a were used in approaching cities, one of these early viaducts being over three miles long and consisting of about a thousand brick arches of an average span of 18 feet and 22 feet high, the cost being over a million dollars a mile. In this country a few masonry bridges were built and some are still used. The Conemaugh viaduct on the Pennsylvania Road and the Carrollton viaduct on the Baltimore and Washington Road were regarded at one time as famous bridges.

In this country, however, the great length of our roads early made it necessary to use wood for railroad bridges and there sprang up in this country a whole series of modern bridges that immediately made American bridge builders famous and set the type for the new bridges that have since become famous round the world.

So important was the outcome of the application of modern science and modern tools to bridge building that the masonry bridges so much used at first in England sink into insignificance and even our remarkable wooden bridges, famous in their day, are now seen to be only steps in the grand march of progress toward the steel bridge of to-day. The masonry arch was evolved out of crude experiments in building, the failures pointing the way to success. The old builders knew nothing of the science of bridge building. They put in by guess work enough material to carry the load and were

satisfied with the result without much regard to its cost. The law of strains, wholly unknown to the old masons, was first studied out by the builders of the modern railroad bridge. The strength of materials was merely guessed at by the old masons. Now every member of a bridge has its known duty and its known limit of endurance under its duty, its own factor of safety under strains.

The history of wooden bridges in this country, short and transitory as it was, would well repay careful study did time permit. Many famous bridges were built all over the eastern part of the country and almost all have disappeared or will soon disappear before the advance of the steel bridge. They served a good purpose as the school of the bridge builder, but they were too dangerous and were destroyed by fire or replaced for fear of fire. The wooden bridge, however, in its essential features is still visible in the modern steel bridge and it is among these we find the truly famous bridges of the world.

The transition from wood to iron was gradual. Cast iron began to be used in connection with wood, particularly in this country. Some of the famous wooden bridges also contained wrought iron tension members and tie rods. Cast iron bridges were suggested by Italian engineers as early as the sixteenth century and in 1755 an attempt was made to build a cast iron bridge at Lyons, but it failed on account of the cost. A French engineer designed in 1779 a wrought iron arch bridge, but the first iron bridge erected was built in England in 1777. Iron bridges increased in number rapidly all over Europe and appeared to be somewhat in advance of our own work in this direction. The enormous length of our railroads made it necessary to use wooden bridges in preference to stone or iron. It was often cheaper to build very long pile bridges over shallow streams and marshes than to build stone viaducts or even to build embankments of earth. The brick arch viaducts of London would have been simply foolish in this country until within a very few years and even now can be used only in great cities and no doubt steel would be

found cheaper and better than brick.

When our engineers had passed through the school of the wooden bridge with its exact scientific treatment of old problems, when the testing machine began to give us new data on which to work, bridge building became a science. Science knows no nationality and European engineers united with our own in friendly rivalry. The famous bridges are in every country and it is difficult to say which new bridge is the most famous. They differ only in height and span within comparatively few feet. The next great bridge will not be enormously larger than the last. Size now depends on cost and cost on traffic and interest. Low interest has made great bridges possible and enormous traffic has made them profitable.

In looking over the gigantic structures erected within the past twenty years it is difficult to say which is the most famous. Britannia Bridge in its day was world famous. To-day it seems insignificant and almost foolish in point of cost and weight. Why make a huge iron box when a spider-web structure of steel would carry the same load at far less cost?

A bridge may be famous for its unusual construction, like the great Pontoon⁶ Bridge over the Hoogley at Calcutta. It is 1,530 feet long and is supported on 28 iron boats coupled together in pairs, the roadway being carried on timbers erected on the decks of the pontoons. The bridge was erected in 1873 and is justly regarded as the most important floating bridge in the world.

Another may be famous for its great length and immense traffic, the Elevated Railroad in New York (which is a true bridge) being an example.

Another may be famous for its bold and rapid erection, as the celebrated Kinzua viaduct on the New York, Lake Erie, and Western Railroad. This bridge is 2,052 feet long and 301 feet high and is supported by 20 open work towers of iron. The 1,750 tons of iron posts, struts, and braces were distributed over the steep rough valley, erected by means of two steam derricks and a force of one hundred and twenty-five men, and the structure completed between May 5

and August 29. The entire structure, including the laying of the foundations, was built in eight and a half months, and the cost was \$275,000.

Comparing this with the celebrated railroad masonry viaduct over the Göltzsch Valley on the Saxon Bavarian State Railroad we find that the German bridge, which is 1,900 feet long and 263 feet high, cost \$1,680,000 and over five years of labor. There can be no question as to which is the cheaper and better in a commercial sense. The Göltzsch bridge would be by many regarded as the more beautiful and the more permanent, yet it must be observed that the airy thread-like structure of the Kinzua Valley has a strange, fascinating beauty of its own and it may outlast the big stone viaduct, for, in an earthquake, the stone bridge would come down first. Regarded as simple bridges it is plain that the stone bridge will not be the type of the future bridge—cost settles that. The railroad bridge is for the people and the people must be transported cheaply.

The Pecos River Bridge on the Southern Pacific Railway is famous as being one of the two or three highest bridges in the world. It is mounted on lofty steel towers precisely like the Kinzua, except that cantilevers^a are used upon the central towers. This bridge is 2,180 feet long and 320 high and was erected by a force of 67 men in 87 working days. The erection was done from a "traveler"⁷ on the top of the bridge that was advanced as the work was carried on. On completing one half, the "traveler" was taken apart, carried round over another road and being put together again moved out over the bridge as far as completed till the two parts met in the middle. A bridge similar to these two, erected in Bolivia in 1889, is interesting as being six feet higher than the Pecos Bridge, and a bridge, having a steel arch in the middle, erecting in Germany on the Solingen-Remscheid Railway is reported to be 1,640 feet long and 351 feet high.

In many parts of the United States notable bridges—iron and steel bridges—of great height have been erected on the same general lines of the Pecos and Kinzua and similar bridges are becoming common in South

America, Europe, and Australia. The railroad has spread over every continent and the erection of some new lofty bridge has ceased to be a wonder. A few feet more or less in height or length does not make a bridge famous and we may turn to other types of bridges to find anything that can be called famous and even then we shall find that quite a small bridge may be as interesting as any cantilever monster that may spin its airy webs against the sky.

Among suspension bridges Niagara and Brooklyn Bridges easily lead the world. Brooklyn Bridge is perhaps the most famous, yet the Niagara Suspension was, at the time it was built, justly regarded as a famous great bridge. The height of Brooklyn Bridge is not to be compared with that of Pecos River Bridge and yet it far exceeds it in every other particular. It has already been described many times. It is perhaps of all bridges the most world famous as it is also one of the most beautiful. Its situation between two great cities has, as it were, brought it forward into universal notice as the Great Bridge and while others even larger may some day cross the same waters it will long be known as the king among highways.

One of the most interesting bridges finished recently is the Tower Bridge at London. This bridge is a combination of suspension bridge and draw or "bascule" bridge. Two enormous piers were erected in the river only two hundred feet apart. The shores are connected by suspension bridges, the cables being carried on enormous stone clad towers standing on the piers. The cables cross in a straight line from tower to tower 140 feet above the water. Above this part of the cable is a permanent foot bridge from the top of one tower to the top of the other. The lifts, or bascules, form the real bridge. When open they stand upright against the towers and when lowered they form the roadway. To enable foot passengers to cross when the draw is open elevators in the towers carry the passengers up to the high level bridge above. The towers are really built of steel, but the outside is closed in with stone work. This was merely for appearance and it is confessed the bridge fits

its place, for it is near the old London Tower. The bridge cost \$5,000,000, and it took eight years to build it. It is a very open question whether it is worth the time and money. Opinions differ on this point. It is picturesque, if not quite beautiful, and London can afford to build it.

In curious contrast to this is the South Halstead Street Bridge, recently completed at Chicago. Like the London Bridge it consists of two steel towers, but, in place of the two-leaved bascules, there is a direct lift, precisely as if the bridge itself were the car of a gigantic elevator. Here everything is frankly exposed. The steel towers are plainly steel towers and not the slightest attempt is made to give them any other appearance. The traffic did not warrant a costly show of pretended stone towers and while the structure is severely plain it has the beauty of truth and simplicity. It is a large lift bridge—not one of its members is unnecessary or in the wrong place—its form follows the laws of strains as found in nature: It is the truth about work—and truth has its own beauty. The little huts on the tops of the towers may have been intended for ornaments. They might have been omitted with advantage.

Steel is the bridge material of the future. Whether it takes on the graceful curves of the suspended cable or the airy balance of the cantilever or the cobweb construction of our Pecos and Kinzua it will have its own beauty. The science of bridge building clearly points the way to the art of bridge building—which is simply—truth. We are rapidly learning to accept new ideas of the strength of materials. We admired the Roman arch because it showed mass and strength in a strong material. We are beginning to grasp the idea of lightness and strength combined in the steel cantilever. In a solid beam men neither saw nor imagined the lines of strain. In a steel bridge the lines of strain are accented by the bridge members—all else is omitted as useless waste of material and space. The engineer and bridge builder already recognize that within the limits of their science they may find a high art and that truth and beauty have a commercial

value as well as work and duty. Every bridge has its own duty—it may have its own beauty.

To illustrate the new use of material in old forms we have two grand bridges, the St. Louis Bridge and the new Washington Bridge over the Harlem in New York. The early English builders in iron with characteristic conservatism built iron arches first and our own builders appear to have preferred to copy the many truss forms of our wooden bridges. Now the truss, the arch, cantilever, and suspension cable are quite as freely used by all bridge builders.

The St. Louis Bridge consists of twenty-four steel arches, the longest span being 522 feet, and the bridge was erected without false works, the arches being supported by temporary towers on the piers, each half of a pier forming a cantilever. The total cost was ten millions. The Washington Bridge consists of two magnificent steel arches each of 510 feet span, the crown of the arches supporting the roadway being 135 feet above the river. The total length of the bridge, including abutments, is 2,375 feet and the cost was \$2,700,000. Close beside it stands the famous High Bridge, a stone arched bridge built over fifty years

ago. It consists of 13 granite arches 116 feet high, the length being 1,460 feet. The contrast between these two beautiful bridges, standing as they do side by side, is very instructive.

The Forth Bridge is justly famous as the greatest cantilever ever erected. The total length of the bridge is 8,296 feet and the longest spans are 1,710 feet with a clear height above the water of 150 feet. This splendid piece of work was all done without false works, the cantilevers being built out from the center in both directions into the air till the ends of the levers met. As a piece of engineering work it is, like the Brooklyn Bridge, world famous. As a bridge it lacks the airy grace of the Great Suspension and yet it has, in the minds of some, a peculiar beauty of its own. They probably mean impressiveness rather than beauty.

The most famous bridge is still on paper. If the Hudson is spanned by a six track railroad bridge we may have a splendid cantilever of four hundred feet longer span than the Forth Bridge and quite as high above the water. It is possible that the bridge may be another suspension. Whatever form it ultimately assumes it will be the famous bridge of the world.

COUNT MOLTKE, FIELD MARSHAL.

BY SIDNEY WHITMAN.

SECOND ARTICLE.

WITH regard to Moltke's genius as a strategist, the popular mind could never rid itself of the dual conception of the schoolmaster in the strategist. And to those who know something of the duties of a Prussian chief of the staff in times of peace—in many ways akin to those of a lecturing professor—there would seem to be ample grounds to explain it. Thus the idea that Moltke previously worked out his strategical problems, and had only to take down a plan of campaign from a pigeon-hole in order to set an army in motion, and by an inevitable

development of events to strike the enemy hip and thigh, is still to be met with and finds its expression in the beautiful German term: *Der Schlachtendenker*, "the battle-thinker." And yet the conception is a fallacious, or rather an incomplete, one, as several significant passages in Moltke's own writings, published since his death, abundantly prove; notably the one in which he states that, as a rule, it is practically impossible for a commander to foresee the development of a campaign even for a limited number of days in advance.

To a relative who asked him how he would best define the essence of strategy

Moltke replied: "Common sense." In reference to the place of a campaign, he said it was possible to decide only the preliminary marching into position of an army (*der Aufmarsch*). Everything else depended upon the movements of the enemy. But this preliminary disposition of the troops constituted a matter of supreme importance. Moltke worked out plans of such for all possible contingencies, which he left as a legacy to his successors.

Moltke's favorite motto: *Erst wäge, dann wage*, "First weigh, then dare," may have lent currency to the idea that "weighing things" was the paramount feature which distinguished this great leader of hosts: a sort of Fabius Cunctator¹ on a nineteenth century scale. But as so often, in our time of rapid and incomplete impressions, a half truth has to do duty whilst the other half is lost sight of, so also here.

Dann wage, "then dare." Therein lay the kernel of Moltke's greatness as a leader. The bold daring of the man was as stupendous as it was icy cold—cold as if sprung forth from beneath the helmet of Pallas Athene.²

I hold it on the most unimpeachable authority, that Moltke was one of the most daring strategists that ever lived; that if his methods were open to criticism, it was their too daring boldness which called it forth. This vulnerable spot in the placid schoolmaster! No man ever faced the responsibility of suddenly sending fifty thousand men to their account with a more unflinching will than he. "And if the whole brigade remains stretched on the sod (*auf der Strecke*) it will have accomplished its purpose—that of arresting the enemy for ten minutes, and will thus have done its duty!"

With all respect for the judgment of the typical popular general, there is always an indefinite "something" in the composition of these rare types of genius, which are destined to lead mankind in hecatombs³ to the slaughter house, which no mathematical, chess-player's,* or whist-player's talent, no

mechanical thinking powers, and, above all, no genius for self-advertisement can suffice to account for. In great leaders of men there is "something" reflected in the expression of the eye, something genuine, bare of all histrionic taint, which tells of death and eternity, the capacity to face these calmly and to force legions to do likewise.

Moltke was endowed with this dæmonic "something" to an extraordinary degree. It is not a product of the reflective faculties, but rather an ingredient of the blood, the beating of a strong heart, a supreme effort of will power. Moltke may have lacked the imagination of a Hannibal,⁴ he probably did not possess the fertile fancy of a Frederick⁵ or a Napoleon. His serene intellect was more akin to that of a Cæsar; a comparison which seems borne out by the sober conciseness of the writings of both these great men. The imposing grandeur of the "*dann wage*" is characteristic of both in singularly striking similitude. Cæsar, at the battle of Munda, leading the Tenth Legion against Pompey's sons to the cry: "Are you going to give way to a parcel of boys?" is paralleled by the thrilling episode of the 18th of August, 1870, when Moltke gave those terrible orders which resulted in hurling back the French under the bloodstained walls of Metz.

The king was in a sad state of nervous depression at the thought of the dreadful slaughter. Moltke had quietly ridden away to avoid the pestering questions of the Duke of Coburg and other decorative figures on the staff. In the meantime, the victory was won. In the evening, the question was mooted, what would take place if the French were to attack again on the morrow. Count Roon was lamenting the valuable lives that would be jeopardized. Moltke, in his icy manner, merely replied: "If the French attack again to-morrow, there will be another battle, that's all." Beneath the self-contained manner of this silent man, there were nerves of steel, and a daring compared to which the dash of the cavalry leader is, after all, but poor stuff.

Essentially conservative and proud by

*As a matter of fact, neither Napoleon nor Frederick the Great nor Moltke was an exceptional mathematician or chess-player.

nature and training, it was a matter of comparative indifference to Moltke in what estimate his work was held by the world at large. Thus he allowed the myth of Königgrätz,⁷ which in a large measure was calculated to detract from his own share of work on that occasion, to obtain almost universal acceptance. Had he not himself laid down the dictum, that it was not always for the interest of the world at large to know exactly how things had taken place, or rather, who was exactly responsible for them?

But though personally indifferent, as far as he himself was concerned, it was not a matter of indifference to him in which form historical events reached posterity. The historian must know the truth, at all hazards. Thus, nearly twenty years after the battle of Königgrätz, he sat down and wrote an exact account of the origin and course of that momentous day expressly for the private information of Heinrich von Treitschke, the Prussian historian. It was not necessary to inform anybody that, owing to the bickerings of the crown prince and Prince Frederick Charles, the battle of Königgrätz might have been jeopardized—that, in fact, the crown prince *did* start later than pre-arranged—but the historian should know, at least, that the battle itself was not a hap-hazard chance, which only the fortunate arrival of the crown prince had turned into a victory. It was a part of Moltke's plan, of his most precise dispositions, carefully taken the previous evening in good time, that the crown prince should come. He was bound to put in an appearance, and that at a specified time, not earlier nor, if possible, later. He had received distinct orders from his superior in command to come, and he came as in duty bound—nothing more nor less. So certain was he to come, that several hours before the crown prince's arrival, when the king asked Moltke how things were going, the latter replied: "Your Majesty will gain to-day not only the battle but also the campaign." In writing with reference to the above episode many years afterwards, he added laconically: "It could not have been otherwise."

Similarly with regard to the question of personal responsibility on a broader scale, Moltke let public opinion retain its own conception of facts, until, just before the fall of the curtain, a short postscriptum to his history of the '70 war revealed the startling fact that, from first to last, neither in the campaigns of 1866 nor '70-71 was there such a thing as a council of war ever held. There were "listeners," but no "councilors." This silent man with the eagle eye was responsible for all.

As is well known, this question of the council of war occupied a deal of public attention at one time. It is perhaps less generally known that Moltke was always a decided opponent of councils of war in any shape or form.

At the beginning of the sixties a description of the Franco-Austrian campaign in Italy (1859), edited by the Prussian general-staff,⁸ but in reality written by Moltke himself, appeared in Berlin. In it, it was sought to show that the disasters of the Austrians were principally caused by the fact, that the Austrian general-in-chief, Count Gyulai, was not allowed to act independently, but had to refer to a permanent council of war, sitting in Vienna. Moltke's ideal was that the monarch himself should be the commander-in-chief and only take council with the chief of his staff, the right choice of whom, of course, must be the supreme crucial responsibility of the ruler. Therefore, it was always Moltke's endeavor, even in times of peace, to see that the generalstaff was kept independent of the ministry of war. In this he met with a deal of opposition—latterly and principally on the part of General Caprivi.

Moltke had particularly the future in mind when he insisted on the undivided responsibility of one man. He feared that days might come for Germany in which a monarch, however naturally gifted, might at a given moment be more susceptible to outside influences than was William the Victorious and than would be consistent with benefit to the community, when indecision in the leader of an army might be fatal. Thus Moltke's decided conviction and ex-

pressed opinion on this matter of the pernicious effect of councils of war may well be taken to be a solemn legacy of warning, which he left to the military authorities of his country.

Moltke's injunctions possess an additional value for his countrymen, because of the faculty of prescience, with which he was gifted in a remarkable degree. His letters abound in shrewd surmises with regard to the course events were destined to take. To cite but one instance of Moltke's remarkable foresight. On March 4, 1871, he wrote from Versailles:

"The greatest danger now for every country lies, I suppose, in socialism. The relations that are springing up with Austria I consider very good. Like Austria formerly, France will of course snort for revenge; but when she recovers her strength she is more likely to turn against England than against the mighty Central Power that has been formed in Europe. England will then reap the fruits of her short-sighted policy."

The literal fulfillment of the words of the last sentence remains to be seen; but there can already be no doubt about the application of the preceding ones; as also that not one man in a thousand would have shared his views in 1871, when they were expressed. When everybody was thinking of France's revengeful hatred for Prussia, Moltke calmly foretold that she would be likely, sooner or later, to turn against England, almost a fit subject for humorous banter at the time; but scarcely one for laughter now.

Many are the anecdotes—the quaint sayings—related of Moltke, most of them bearing the distinct stamp of his individuality. The following, told to me by an eye-witness, has, as far as I know, never been in print. It was during one of the later days of August, 1870. The whole German army had changed its front and was marching toward Sedan, the echo of its tread sounding the death knell of French preponderance in Europe. A Prussian infantry regiment passed Moltke and his staff on the high road. A casual incident may have led the general to exchange a few friendly words with some of the officers of the regiment, for one of them was bold enough to ask His Excellency how

matters stood. "All goes well," he replied, not unpleasantly, in his laconic way; "the trap is shut and the mouse is inside." (*Die Klapp ist zu und die Maus ist drin.*)

Moltke was an enthusiastic traveler, even in his old age, and always traveled in a plain dark suit and billycock hat, in which attire it was, as already suggested, very easy to mistake him for an old schoolmaster out for a holiday. On one occasion being in a South German town, the news had leaked out that the great general had arrived. Sitting in the dining room of a hotel, somebody addressed him, saying that he had heard that Moltke had arrived and that he wondered what he looked like. To which Moltke ingenuously replied: "What should he look like? Why, like one of us."

Moltke's private life was marked by an austere, almost ascetic, simplicity. The very bread at the table of the field marshal was the same *Commis-brod* eaten by the common soldier. A bottle of *vin ordinaire* did endless duty at table, it being quite an exceptional favor if a younger member of the family participated in a glass. In fact, long after the crowning mercies of 1870, which brought Moltke a handsome donation, the scale of living in his family was such that it was not an impossible contingency to rise hungry from dinner. Three hundred marks (seventy-five dollars) a month was all that was allowed for housekeeping purposes, even at Creisau where the family gathering often consisted of eight to ten persons. Out of this sum the eggs, butter, and milk had to be paid for; although they were furnished from the estate, yet they were charged for in the separate account kept of the farm produce.

Having been a poor man the best part of his life—a fact and its hardening effects on character which Moltke touchingly refers to in his correspondence with his wife—when comparative affluence came, it found him too old to change him. What would have doubtless degenerated into the vice of a miser in a smaller man was, however, redeemed in him by the capacity for rising occasionally above his penurious habit. He could be generous at times, as many of his

relations have still cause to remember.

But a trait of earlier years of grinding poverty is even more to his honor. He had earned 60 thalers (£9)⁹ by doing some translation, and sent the money to one of his poor relatives, deploring that it was all he had and that he was only sorry he could not see any possibility of being able to make it a yearly allowance, as work was so hard to get. On another occasion, as is well known, he had agreed to translate the whole of Gibbon's "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," for the sum of £80. When he had translated seven of the nine volumes, the publisher failed and he got nothing.

These experiences doubtless contributed to sour his temper, which could at times, as already hinted, be irritable to a degree. Yes, for all his cultured love of flowers, music, painting, and literature, Moltke was hard, even when not intentionally so. Thus the task of living with him was one continual strain on the nervous system. It was like being gradually ground to powder. The fear that anybody should be favored in his career through being a connection of his was almost an *idte fixe*, a monomania, with him. In fact, it was rather a hindrance, as far as lay with him, than an advantage to be able to claim kinship with the great strategist. Also, when he retired from active service and the present emperor bade him retain his nephew, Major von Moltke, as his personal aid-de-camp, it was some time before the crotchety old disciplinarian could get over his uncomfortable humor (and the luxury of showing it) caused by such gross favoritism.

In his country house at Creisau Moltke received the visits of his relatives—among whom were some lovely nieces, with their children, who brightened up the house by their presence. The old widower delighted in their presence, for he could be gallant and attentive to a degree when in the humor. I possess a photograph of Moltke in the center of a group of his nephews and nieces and their children in the grounds of Creisau. Their faces are all in broad laughter, for the venerable field marshal is standing behind a cannon (one of those taken in '70 and

given to him by the emperor) wearing a lady's straw hat, and his face is quite a study of droll humor. Moltke always wore a wig for he was perfectly bald. One day an intimate friend ventured to ask him why he wore such a very shabby one. "*Ach Gott,*" he answered, "*die hat ja 8 mark gekostet.*" (Remember, it cost two dollars.)

His great delight was gardening, and for hours together he was to be seen in an old straw hat and a gardener's holland suit handling the pruning knife or the gardener's scissors. Once when on a visit to his brother-in-law, Major von Burt, at Blasewitz near Dresden, the news had got about that the great strategist was staying there. A stranger, seeing one who seemed to be an old gardener in the grounds, asked him when would be the best chance to see Moltke. "Oh," said the gardener, "about three o'clock," whereupon the stranger gratefully gave his informant a mark. What was his surprise when, on returning in the afternoon, he saw the field marshal—the old gardener of the forenoon—surrounded by his friends. Moltke held up his hand: "Ah, I have got your mark."

It is still in the memory of all how every honor was heaped on the old paladin¹⁰ during the latter years of his life, wondrously verifying the application of the words: *Semper felix, faustus, augustus.*¹¹ His ninetieth birthday called forth the panegyrics¹² of the whole civilized world, the journalistic testimonies of which were collected at the time and bound in two huge volumes.

The last time I saw Moltke, he was lying in state, officers of all denominations—mostly men of huge stature, as if chosen for their untainted descent by a hundred generations from the giants of the German primeval forests—stood with drawn swords guarding the bier. The finely chiseled head, without a vestige of hair, the aquiline nose standing out abnormally prominent against the sunken face—the cruelly hard lips closed like a chasm to all eternity—it was not unlike a Roman Cæsar's head in death. Clad in a plain cotton shirt, his arms crossed in front of him, holding violets and laurel, there he lay in peace.

THE BLUE BONNET.*

BY CHARLES BARNARD.

CHAPTER I.

ELEANOR BROWN was one of those unfortunate persons who do not understand the meaning of life. Having everything she had nothing. Young, independently rich, and almost completely alone in the world she had, as it were, just stepped upon the threshold of a brilliant and happy life. The world, as it appears to the rich in New York, seemed spread wide before her wherein to choose. What would she choose? What would she do with her fortune, her life, her heart, and herself?

She came down stairs in the old-fashioned New York mansion, built by her father near Memorial Arch, handsome, at ease with herself and all the world, and on pleasure bent. The solemn butler held the door open for her and the housekeeper stood at the foot of the stairs ready for any parting orders.

"Is the carriage ready, Graham?"

"Yes, miss, it's at the door."

"Tell Gabriel to drive fast, as I am very late. Mrs. Griswold's."

The butler spoke a word or two to the footman at the door and his mistress turned to the housekeeper.

"I may not be home till quite late. Have a light supper ready for me about twelve."

"Yes, miss."

"You need not sit up for me, Mrs. Ring. Let the others go to bed, except Howard, Ellen, and Graham."

Then she turned to the door, went down the high flight of steps called the "stoop," and drove rapidly away in the gathering twilight, for it was early spring. The heavy, old-fashioned carriage seemed to slide over the silent asphalt like a swiftly moving train. It is not well to be in the way of my lady's carriage on these slippery pavements when my lady is late to a dinner party.

The butler, Graham, said something to

this effect as he closed the door. Mrs. Ring mildly dissented from this opinion and yet there was in her mind, as she often remarked afterwards, something of a vague, indefinite alarm. She entered the great, dim drawing room with its white Corinthian columns dividing the room into two parts. The place was crowded with rich and artistic furniture and the walls were lined with costly paintings. She paused a moment to note that the wrought iron standard supporting its little copper kettle and lamp stood by the tiny table whereon a tea service was spread for the light midnight supper. Then she looked at a large full length portrait in oils that hung on the wall. It had hung there for years and yet that very day, unknown to her mistress, the rusty cords had broken and the picture had fallen to the floor. Mrs. Ring, with the butler's assistance had replaced the picture on the wall and all was as before—and yet not as before. In Mrs. Ring's narrow range of experience the unexpected fall of a picture was full of meaning. Mrs. Ring turned the gas lower and stood in the darkened room with just a shiver of apprehension. The house was silent, dark, chilly. Even the faint murmur of talk and laughter from the basement, where simpler and happier lives were spent, had ceased. The house seemed to be waiting for some one. The portrait on the wall seemed to be listening as if some expected guest would soon knock at the door.

She moved out into the hall and, in spite of herself, stopped to listen—why, she knew not. It seemed to her as if the old house held its breath in expectancy, as if the mansion which had seen all of life from births to deaths was alive—and was waiting for some one.

Suddenly the appalling silence was startled by the sound of a key rattling in the lock and the front door was flung wide open and there stood her mistress—white, haggard, terrified.

*The right to dramatize is reserved by the author.

"Oh! Mrs. Ring. Call Graham! Call every one! Oh! It was terrible. The horses were furious. I was in such a hurry to get to Mrs. Griswold's. Turn up the light. This darkness frightens me."

She brushed past the housekeeper into the drawing room and turned up the gas herself and began with trembling fingers to take off her outer garments. Meanwhile, the butler followed by a troop of frightened girls had entered the hall.

"Shut the door, Graham! Keep the people out! No! no! Don't shut her out. Have the girl brought right in here. Do not let them call an ambulance. Oh! Mrs. Ring, it was all my fault. She was right in the way. Oh! I couldn't look at her there on the ground. Go yourself, Ring. See that she is brought into the house at once."

With a gesture of impatience she threw her cloak on a chair by the door and opened a small desk and began to write a note in nervous haste.

"My dear Mrs. Griswold:

"I have had a frightful accident in the street. Am not hurt myself. The police have arrested my driver. I cannot be with you to-night.

"ELEANOR BROWN."

As she signed it the butler came to the door.

"They have come, miss, and the policeman says——"

"Have this note sent to Mrs. Griswold's at once. I will see the policeman myself."

"Yes, miss."

The man meekly took the note and disappeared, and Eleanor Brown stood up to receive her guests. A strange, pitiful party. A gray and dignified officer, calm, polite, and authoritative, supporting by one arm a young woman—white, helpless, and stained with the dust of the avenue. On the other side a young man with a torn coat and with blood dropping from one hand on the velvet carpet. He had no hat and his abundant hair was disordered and falling over his forehead. Mrs. Ring followed them, carrying a man's silk hat in her hand.

"Mrs. Ring, send some one for a doctor."

"Pardon me. I am a physician," said the young man.

"Oh! I am so glad. Here. Place her upon the sofa."

With ready skill the two men laid the helpless girl upon the sofa. The policeman took off his hat and looked quickly about the room, seeing everything, noting everything, as if to remember the place, if the need came.

"Shall I call an ambulance, miss? New York Hospital is nearest."

"Thank you, no. I will take care of her myself."

"Miss Brown, I think."

"Yes, sir. I am Miss Eleanor Brown. This is my house. I will be responsible for this person."

"Very well, miss. It seems to be all right. This is my beat and I must report the accident."

"Certainly, sir. Do whatever is required in the matter. I shall be at home if inquiries are made."

The man looked once more about the room critically and then saw the portrait.

"Your father, miss?"

"Yes."

"I knew him—once—time of the bank ——"

He suddenly stopped and said no more. Meanwhile the young physician had been bending over the girl on the sofa and now he said briefly, "A glass of wine."

"Bring some wine, Mrs. Ring."

Mrs. Ring placed the silk hat upon a chair by the door and disappeared.

"Take off her cloak and bonnet."

He spoke in a gently authoritative way and Eleanor Brown who had all her life directed others quietly began to unfasten the long blue cloak the girl wore and to remove the curious blue bonnet with its red ribbon. She laid the bonnet upon the sofa and spread out the cloak exposing a cheap and simple working dress. As she did so the girl slowly opened her eyes and looked about the room.

"Are you hurt anywhere?"

The girl shook her head in silence.

"Are you in any pain?"

"No—not now—only tired."

Here Mrs. Ring returned with a glass of wine upon a silver salver. The young man

took it and said gently,

"You must drink this."

She raised one thin white hand and quietly pushed the glass away.

"No. No wine."

"It is better for you to take it."

"No. I never take wine."

The officer who had been looking on then spoke, "Excuse me, Miss Brown. She seems to be in good hands. I will report at the station that she is all right."

"Thank you. Do whatever is proper on such occasions. I will be responsible for the girl to-night."

With this the officer quietly withdrew.

Eleanor Brown by this time had in a sense adjusted herself to this new and unexpected situation. Her horses had run down a young woman on the Avenue and she had brought her into her own house. Now that the immediate excitement of the accident was over she found herself face to face with a peculiar and perhaps serious problem. The young woman was a total stranger out of the streets, and the young man who had most opportunely come to the girl's rescue was plainly a beginner, a young doctor with perhaps only potential practice and fortune. The young man seemed to know his business, at least, for he quietly and quickly examined the girl's limbs and found no serious injury except perhaps to one foot that seemed very painful.

"Is it anything serious, doctor?"

"I think not. Still, she cannot be moved to-night. One foot is sprained."

"Mrs. Ring, tell Nora to get the back room next to mine ready."

Mrs. Ring disappeared, glad to escape to the house-mates and spread the news of the accident in all its details.

"Why, doctor, do look at your hand. It is bleeding."

The young man looked at his hand and then quietly wrapped his handkerchief about it.

"Why, so it is."

"How did it happen?"

"Oh. I remember now. I saw the Ensign fall and ran to her. Just as I reached her I found a drunken wretch going through

her pockets. I pulled the fellow off when a young hoodlum struck me from behind. I must have broken the skin of my knuckles on his front teeth. Could I have a little water and a piece of linen?"

"Certainly. Come this way."

With this she opened a door at the back of the room and pointed to the pantry next the dining room.

"You will find water there and I will send Mrs. Ring to you. I will take care of your patient till you return."

"Thank you. I'll return in a moment. She is not suffering now."

"Tell me, sir. Why did you call her Ensign? Do you know her?"

"Not personally. She was once pointed out to me on the street as Ensign Brown of the Slum Brigade."

"Oh! A Salvationist. Thank you. Mrs. Ring, get anything the doctor wants."

Mrs. Ring, who had returned, followed the young doctor to the pantry, and Eleanor Brown with a curious sense of relief went back to her guest. It was something to know what she was. She might have been a working girl or the wife of some clerk. A Salvationist was, at least, definite, and while she knew absolutely nothing of the work and life of the Salvation Army she knew that they were in some vague fantastic way religious people, or, as she expressed it to herself, "church people."

By the time she reached the sofa the girl had partially recovered and now sat up looking curiously about the room. She had a thin, delicate face, in singular contrast with her costume. As Eleanor Brown approached she turned her face toward her with a questioning expression. The look startled her. It seemed strangely familiar. It seemed, for an instant, as if they had met before—where—when? She came to the sofa and gently placing the blue bonnet aside sat down beside the girl.

"I cannot tell you how sorry I am that this accident happened. I feel it is my fault and you must stay with me till you are better."

"Oh, no! I must go on about the Master's business."

The answer spoken with such simple directness seemed foreign and unreal to Eleanor Brown, as if she had not heard them before in all her life. She had heard those very words before—and heard them not.

After a little embarrassed pause she said,

"No. You must rest now. Why not stay with me to-night? I will do everything I can to make you comfortable."

The girl turned her soft, wide blue eyes upon her for an instant, as if to read her face, and then she leaned back upon the sofa with a little sigh.

"I will abide with you to-night."

"That is right. Your room will be ready soon."

It seemed so trite and commonplace and yet that is all she could say. The girl accepted everything so truthfully and simply and without one word of thanks or one trace of the conventional phrasings of society that it seemed as if fitting words could not be found to meet such simplicity and truthfulness. For the first time in her life Miss Eleanor Brown, mistress of social usage and fluent in three languages, had not a word to say in any language. Then the girl spoke again.

"I feel sure that for some good reason I have been led of the Spirit to this house. I cannot tell what this call means. Ah, well! It does not matter. The Spirit will give us more light presently."

"I—I hope so."

Just then the butler appeared with a card upon a salver. Miss Brown rose, examined the card and said briefly,

"Ask him into the library. I will see him presently. And then you may return here, Graham." The man disappeared and his mistress turning to the young girl asked to be excused a moment while she changed her dress.

"Do not neglect any duty for me. I am content—"

"Content!"

"Yes, I am content. I have for some reason been brought through this trial. I will wait till light comes. Do not hurry for me."

"Oh, pardon my neglect. Will you not

have something to eat?"

"Yes, thank you. I have not partaken of food since the noon time."

"Graham," said Miss Brown to the butler, who had returned, "get something to eat quickly and serve it here." Then to the girl she said,

"I shall not be gone long and Mrs. Ring and the doctor will care for you presently."

"Do not hurry, friend—I am content."

Never in all her life had such simplicity of words so moved her. Content? What did the girl mean by that?

Friend. Why, friend? Marveling much over this she ran hastily up to her own room. Another friend, perhaps a dearer, had come. He it was she had hoped to meet at Mrs. Griswold's. That lady had probably explained her absence to her guests and this guest had called to see her. She would hurry at once to meet him.

The young girl left alone for a moment gazed wistfully about the beautiful room. In some strange fashion there had sprung up a hope in her breast—a vague, dim hope to solve perhaps the one dreadful problem of her young life.

"Why have I been brought here? What does this call mean? It cannot be for this sweet woman's salvation. And I am so strangely happy—so content—as if I had come home." Suddenly she saw the portrait upon the wall opposite and sat up, eager, questioning. Her fingers mechanically unfastened her collar and pulled out a ribbon that hung from her throat.

"I have always thought that some day I might—Oh, the face is so familiar, so like the miniature!"

Her nervous hands fell at her side, and her eyes were bent upon the torn ribbon.

"Oh, where is father's miniature? Oh, it is gone. It has been stolen from me."

She glanced in a frightened way about the room and began to pull over her cloak. Could it be in her pockets? Suddenly she was aware that some one had entered the room. She looked up and saw a young man in evening dress at the door. A rather short figure and full face—the face of a man who knows and rather likes the wild. He

seemed to discover her at the same instant for with a few quick and strangely silent steps he was at her side.

"Why, Emily Brown! How came you here? I thought you were in England."

"I came from England six months ago with the Army. I was run over in the street and brought in here, but, Oh, that does not matter now that I have found you again. Oh, Barry! Barry! Why did you leave me?"

"I could n't marry you. Our engagement was sheer folly. I had to come here—on business—in haste. It is impossible for you to stay here, Emily. Let me get your things and take you away."

"Barry, dear, I am hurt. I fear I cannot walk."

"Then I'll call a carriage. You must leave this house at once."

"Why?"

"Because, I'm ruined—Monmouth—and other places."

"But why should I leave this house?"

"Well. Because! I must marry money. If you really cared for me you would n't have joined a pack of Hallelujah Lassies. It was bad enough when you became a trained nurse, but when you joined a company of howling fanatics I considered myself free."

With an effort the girl rose and stood trembling before him.

"You are not married—to this woman?"

"What woman?"

"This woman who lives here."

He turned silently away, but she gave him no peace.

"Oh, Barry! You do not love her? You are not engaged to her?"

Still he made no reply.

The girl swayed slightly as if she would have fallen and still her unwavering spirit spoke clearly and steadily.

"I never saw this woman till to-night and yet light has come to me regarding her. I shall not leave this house till I have spoken with her concerning you."

Then with a low moan she fell in a confused heap upon the sofa.

The young man rang a little bell upon the

table and in an instant Eleanor Brown appeared at one door and the doctor and Mrs. Ring at the other.

"Why, what has happened, Mr. Ewing?"

The young man calmly replied,

"I came into the room not knowing any one was here and as I entered, the young girl fainted."

The doctor took charge of affairs without question or delay.

"She must have had a shock of some kind. She must be put to bed at once. I think, if your man will help me, I can take her up stairs."

Graham was called and the young doctor with his assistance calmly lifted the girl, leaving her poor stained and worn cloak on the sofa. Mrs. Ring led the way to the stairs and the unhappy procession disappeared.

"You must excuse me to-night, Mr. Ewing. I must look after this young girl."

"She is only a Salvationist. Why don't you send her home?"

"Send her home! What do you mean?"

"Do you know her?"

"No. What does that matter? She is my sister!"

"Your sister!"

"Yes. As all women in trouble are my sisters. I must go now. Call again—tomorrow."

"Excuse me just a moment. I heard of your accident, Eleanor, at Mrs. Griswold's and I could not rest till I had called to see if you were safe. You know how much your health and happiness are to me, Eleanor."

He had never before displayed so much feeling, never before used her Christian name. She was for the instant touched and softened.

"Call again—later—to-night, Barry. I shall be at home. Good-by for the present."

She gave him her hand and he kissed it—for the first time—and then she ran up the stairs and disappeared not daring to trust herself to further speech.

The young man paused and absently turned toward the library.

"I'm not engaged—but I'll make it true

before that lunatic can interfere. Curse the luck that brought that crazy fanatic to this house! What will she say—or do? I secure Eleanor to-night—and then she may say what she likes. Who will listen to a Salvationist?"

He looked at his watch.

"I can take in the Club and the Blue Elephant—and call again."

With that he softly opened the door and went out.

Half an hour later Eleanor Brown now arrayed in a simple house dress came down the stairs with the young doctor. They had never met before that night, yet work in a common cause had seemed to make them wonderfully well acquainted. As they talked the acquaintance grew. It seemed as if they had often met before and yet they were absolute strangers not knowing each other's names. As they came down the stairs Eleanor Brown could not help contrasting this stranger with the lover who had parted from her only a few moments before.

"She must be kept in bed for a week or more. The ankle is badly sprained."

"You have n't told me, sir, yet, to whom I am indebted for this timely help in my trouble."

"Oh, my name is of no consequence. I only did the duty nearest to me. The Ensign seems to be in good hands now, and, if you will excuse me, I will go, as I have other work to do to-night."

"Surely, sir, you don't work at this hour."

"Twice a week I give some of my time to the Working Girls' Protective League."

"What is that? I never heard of it before."

"We examine the claims of poor women who may have been unjustly deprived of their wages and, if necessary, defend them in the courts."

"Ah! I see. You are a brother to girls. Then you must know something about this Slum Brigade. What do they do?"

More than willing the young man lingered to talk to this beautiful girl who seemed so interested in his work.

For herself she was surprised to find that she was interested in talking about work.

The young man seemed to open to her a new world—a wider, more earnest world than that in which she lived, and did nothing. She had never met exactly such a man before. He had the enthusiasm of humanity and she listened with flattering attention to an account of things and lives and work of which she knew nothing whatever. She listened to this brief and yet appreciative account of the work of the Salvation Army and of his own work among the poor as a maiden might listen of old to the tales of adventure told by some returning knight.

"But surely, these Army girls do not go about at night without an escort."

"Certainly they do. Under the blue bonnet they know a woman is safe anywhere."

The words made a deep impression upon her. It was like the opening of a door into a new country. The idea that under a homely uniform a woman might walk abroad safe anywhere seemed to her something fascinating. She never in all her life could remember going anywhere alone. And yet this girl who she saw had all the instincts of a lady went everywhere unharmed under the shelter of a blue bonnet.

The minutes flew on golden wings. They were fast learning to know each other—these two who had never met before. He, a plainly dressed young doctor with a tattered hat and with a red stained rag upon his ungloved hand, and she, mistress of this palatial home. At last the conversation drifted back to the girl up stairs.

"You really must tell me your name, sir, in case I need your services again."

"Oh, my name is Armstrong, John Armstrong. I live on Sixth Avenue."

"And I am Miss Brown and very glad to make your acquaintance, Dr. Armstrong."

"Miss Brown?"

"Yes, plain Eleanor Brown."

And so they parted. He going away sure she could not be plain Eleanor Brown. Even when he reached the street and went on in the darkness the brightness of her beauty seemed to make the night light about him. She on her part wondered that he lived on Sixth Avenue and instantly forgot all about it. He must be above his home.

"The grasp of his hand is so different from that of the men I meet. If ever I am in trouble I shall—Why, should I talk like that? I never saw the man before, may never see him again. And yet—I wish—"

She returned to the drawing room and seeing the Ensign's cloak and bonnet on the sofa was on the point of sending them upstairs when the butler announced another caller.

"Send him in here. And, Graham, you may take the supper upstairs to the young person in the back room." Then aside to herself. "What can Mr. Hemmingway want at this hour?"

Mr. Hemmingway, an elderly gentleman of paternal aspect, came softly into the room as if unwilling to disturb its elegant repose.

"Oh! Good evening, Mr. Hemmingway. This is a rather unusual hour for such a business man as you to call. What has happened?"

He seemed nervous and worried and slipped into a big chair by the little desk opposite the portrait.

Miss Brown brushed the Ensign's things one side and sat down on the sofa, mildly curious to hear what her father's old legal adviser might have to say.

"I hardly know where to begin, Miss Eleanor, and I am very glad to find you at home and alone. I regret to say that I have this afternoon made a surprising discovery that demands immediate attention."

"Oh, I hope it is not about any tiresome business affairs."

All business to Miss Brown was tiresome. She knew nothing about it, cared nothing about it, provided her income was unimpaired.

"I really can't consent to any further reduction of my income. Twenty-five thousand is too small now to meet the demands of society and supply positive necessities."

"Necessities, Miss Eleanor! Don't say that, because you misuse the English language. Say you are unwilling to give up luxuries."

"Oh, let's not talk about money now. I cannot and will not consent to any reduction of my establishment. Let us talk about something else."

"We can't. And it is business brought me here to-night, because I must ask you to consider a very grave and serious matter. You know your father married early in life—some years before he married your mother."

"I knew all that. Father would never speak of his first wife."

"You know there was a child."

"Yes. What is the use of going over all that? It is dead and done with. Father would never speak of his first wife nor would he ever allow us to speak his child's name. The mother died before I was born and, as for the child, he forbade me to speak of her. Why should we rake the old matter up again?"

"Because of a very important paper found in your father's safe deposit box. I knew when your father died he had a box in the Norfolk Safety Deposit Company. To-day I learned, for the first time, he had also a box in the North Side Company. The rent came due and as it has been unpaid for a long time they sent the bill to me. Naturally I took possession of the box."

"What was in it?"

"Nothing but this paper signed by your father the week before he died."

"It's very strange he never mentioned any such safe deposit box to me."

"Yes, and he evidently had a feeling that he would rather not have it found too soon. This paper has lain in that box for three years unseen by any human being. The rent of the box had not been paid for two years, but the key was lost. We had to break the box open, and now I wish we had never found the box or the paper."

"Well, sir, what is the paper?"

"It's a confession."

"A confession—signed by my father?"

"A remarkable confession that I, as his lifelong friend and adviser, can hardly understand or believe, and yet there is undoubted evidence that he made out this paper in good faith and placed it where some day it must be found. I suppose you remember, Miss Brown, that the Half Dime Savings Bank failed a few years ago."

"Yes. Father was president, but I am sure no one was more sincerely sorry than

he that the bank failed. He did everything a man could, short of giving his own money, to repair the losses caused by the failure. He explained the whole thing to me at the time. He said it was all right—and of course, I've never thought of it since. I don't see why I should be troubled with such things now. Father left everything to me and I can't do anything about business matters that were settled and finished so long ago."

There had grown up suddenly in the woman's heart a vague dread of coming disaster and she selfishly began to ward off what she fancied might be some attack upon her personal comfort and well being. The old lawyer on his part seemed almost willing to defer the matter in hand to some other time. He still held the paper in his hand unopened.

"I'm glad you understand things sufficiently to enable us to have a plain business talk on this matter."

"Oh, I hate business! I don't want to have anything whatever to do with it. If the paper is not important, what is the use of reading it? Father could not have anything serious to confess."

"Unfortunately we must read it."

"Oh, very well. Father always was particular about little details of business. I suppose he forgot to pay somebody or overcharged some account. The confession, as you call it, must be some trifling affair of no consequence."

The paper was closely written and the lawyer adjusted his glasses and asked if the small table lamp might be lighted. She lit it for him without calling the servants and even put out the gas so that the low oil lamp was the only light in the room. Then she sat on the sofa opposite the portrait, prepared to listen. The reading did not take three minutes and yet in that space it seemed to Eleanor Brown as if all of a lifetime had passed. She started up in a passion of anger and mortification.

"I don't believe one word of it."

"Unfortunately, there is every reason to think it is true."

"Why, I cannot do it. It would take

every cent I have in the world."

"No. Not all."

"It will take hundreds of thousands."

"No. Perhaps tens."

"But why should I give all this money to those people? They have no legal claim on me?"

"No. Only a moral claim."

She made a gesture of impatience and said nothing. The old gentleman moved a little nearer the lamp as if to re-examine the paper. He was startled at her apparent resentment at any suggestion of a moral obligation, startled at the unconscious revelation of her intense selfishness. He lifted the lamp as if to move it when he put it back with a little cry of alarm. Something made him turn toward the sofa. She sat there rigid, white, with terrified eyes gazing at the portrait.

"Why, my dear Miss Brown. Are you—"

"Hush! Don't speak to me. It moved. I saw it move."

"What moved?"

"Father—the portrait. It moved."

"Calm yourself, Miss Brown. You are unstrung by this terrible news. It was my shadow on the wall."

"Yes, your shadow fell on the picture, but it wasn't that—it wasn't that. I saw his lips move. He wanted to speak to me."

She leaned forward gazing intently upon the canvas and speaking mechanically as if talking to herself—or to the dead.

"What is it, father? Is it about sister? Is it well with sister—or is it this miserable money?"

"My dear, you really must control yourself. We must face this matter calmly and see what can be done about it."

Still her thoughts seemed to be busy with other things.

"What is it about,—sister? Is she dead?"

"Really, Miss Brown, you must stop this excitement or you will be ill. The reference to your sister is so very slight that we need not pay much attention to it."

"He said I must find her."

"Yes. But it is utterly hopeless that we ever can find her. I always understood that she died years ago."

"He evidently thought she must be alive when he wrote that paper."

"Perhaps so, but that is three years ago."

Then her mind seemed to go painfully back to the contents of the paper.

"What did he say about the depositors?"

"That's right. Let us calmly look at the business aspect of the case."

"Who were they?"

"Who?"

"Why, these people father says he robbed."

"Oh! You mean the depositors."

"Yes. He says I must pay them back all they lost when the bank failed."

"Why, dear, he doesn't say must. He suggests. The paper is not mandatory. He suggests that you find these people and repay them."

"With interest?"

"No. He leaves that to you."

She sat silent for several minutes as if thinking deeply. Whatever passed in her mind she never once raised her eyes to the portrait. Deeper lines gathered about her mouth. A hardness seemed to come over her face and gave her an expression altogether foreign to her usual self-satisfied serenity. Her graceful beauty seemed to be melting into a sinister brilliancy. She was not less handsome, only less winning. At last she spoke slowly as if she had made up her mind decisively.

"I cannot do it, Mr. Hemmingway. It would ruin me."

"No. It's not so serious as that."

"I tell you it would ruin me. I never was taught to work. I cannot be dependent. Besides, these people will never know anything about it. They probably don't care either. Why should I give my fortune away to a lot of people who don't know me and who would, if I gave it to them, only beg for more?"

"Very well, Miss Brown. If that is your decision I have nothing more to say. There remains only this reference to your stepsister. The paper says that if she is found you must divide what remains of your fortune with her."

This seemed to touch deeper, for she lay back on the sofa, unconsciously taking the

same attitude taken by the poor girl who had so recently rested there. As if to heighten the contrast the girl's cloak slipped and its dull, dust-stained folds partly covered her own dress.

"What is that," said the lawyer pointing to the cloak.

"Oh! I forgot to tell you. My driver ran over a woman in the street—a woman of the Salvation Army—and I had her brought in here. She is upstairs now."

"Your good heart spoke then, Miss Brown. Now what shall we do about your sister?"

"I must find her—and that's the only item in the paper I shall pay any attention to. As for these depositors I can do nothing for them."

She paused and cast her eyes down as if afraid to look at the portrait. The lawyer quietly folded the paper and put it in a long envelope.

"Shall I put the paper into my safe?"

"No. Leave it on the table. I will take care of it myself."

Then he rose as if to go.

"Shall I call to-morrow?"

"No. There is nothing I want."

"I thought perhaps you might wish some advice concerning the search for your sister. It will be important to prove that she is either alive or dead for her heirs."

"Her heirs!"

"Yes. It is quite possible she married. She is six years older than you are."

"Well. You might call to-morrow—no, to-morrow I must attend Mrs. Demmig's reception and I have a theater party in the evening."

He mechanically laid the envelope upon the table and began to move toward the door. She followed him in silence and then, just as he was departing, she detained him.

"Tell me one thing. Who were those depositors?"

"Oh, men, shop girls, and others. Poor people mostly."

"They were all poor people."

"Yes, I dare say they were."

Then he coldly bade her good night and went away, puzzled, somewhat surprised

and not a little mortified at the action taken by his old client's daughter.

"She will learn—and the learning will cost."

He said this to himself as he left the great mansion and went on toward the Elevated Railroad to reach his uptown house in the new city west of the Park. He finally left the train at Eighty-First Street and paused upon the platform to look over the dark wooded hills of the quiet park.

"The air is purer in this part of New York."

And then he went to his house down by the Boulevard.

Eleanor Brown closed the door softly after her legal adviser had gone and then returned to the drawing room. Her eyes were bent upon the carpet till she reached the table. There lay her father's confession in its white envelope. Confession that he had robbed the depositors of the bank unknown to them—unknown to any one save himself—and now his legal man and his daughter. She took the paper up in both hands with an impatient gesture as if she would tear it to pieces.

Suddenly the marble clock on the mantle began to strike. She stopped to listen to it and count the strokes. She remembered that the clock was a gift from the officers of the bank to her father. How hollow its chime sounded. Every stroke seemed to ring with monotonous reiteration—thief—thief—thief—eleven times. She laid the paper down with a little shiver of fright and then slowly opened the drawer in the table and put the paper in it. Then she moved up to the window. It was late. She would draw the curtains, shut up the house, and go to bed.

"I am worn out, unstrung by that accident."

She paused by the window and looked out into the street.

"I wish that Dr. Armstrong had come back. If I could only tell him, only make him understand this terrible thing, he would help me. He would tell me what to do."

Just then a lonely and pathetic little figure passed on the opposite side with a single

folded newspaper under his arm.

"What a little fellow to be selling newspapers at this hour of the night! I wonder his mother does not take him home. Home! Perhaps he is one of them—the workingmen, shop girls, poor people. Perhaps the child's home was ruined by my father. Oh! if I were only sure he was one of them, I would go out and bring him in. He should sleep safe in my house! My house! It may be as much his as mine."

Just then a young girl, a slip of a thing, wandered aimlessly along the opposite walk. She, too, seemed homeless, forlorn.

"She may be one of them. Alone on the streets by night. Why do they rise against me? Do they pass my window to accuse me?"

She hastily closed the curtains and turned back toward the portrait. Then she seemed to address it fiercely and passionately:

"This is your work. These children are in the street because of your selfishness and I—I must pay for it. Oh! I will pay for it—one hundred cents on the dollar with interest compounded upon interest."

Nervous and unstrung she sat down upon the sofa before the portrait.

Just then some chimes in a neighboring steeple began to ring. The notes drifted over the housetops and fell down like a benediction on all the streets. They even invaded faintly this drawing room with their message. She leaned back, listening intently to the music of the bells. It was a familiar processional hymn, only the first line of which she could remember: "Onward Christian Soldiers."

Then her hand happened to touch the long blue cloak that lay upon the sofa. She tarried and looked at it and at the queer blue poke bonnet. Then she spoke to herself.

"She said, 'The Spirit will give us more light.' I wish I had her faith. 'Onward Christian Soldier'; Is this the light? And he said, 'Do the duty nearest you.'"

Then she took up the bonnet and looked at the lettering upon the ribbon.

"Salvation. Will it be mine if I—"

She lifted the bonnet and began to put

it on, but it would not fit. With a gesture of impatience she pulled the gold comb from her hair and then the blue bonnet fitted her head. She slowly tied the ribbon under her chin and then she took up the cloak, shook off the dust, and calmly put it on her own shoulders. Then she stood up and examined herself in the mirror. It clothed her completely and quite masked the dress under the cloak. She searched the pocket of the cloak thinking she might find some clue to the girl's identity. She found only a cheaply printed card: "*Ensign Brown. Headquarters Reade St., New York.*"

"Why, she has my name. So much the better. I have put on the whole armor of God. I will go and do this woman's work. I will find these people and help them. It is not enough to give one hundred cents on the dollar. I will give them myself. Perhaps it will lead me to my sister. Perhaps I shall meet Dr. Armstrong."

Then she sat down at the desk and wrote a note, addressing it to Mrs. Ring, the housekeeper.

"Mrs. Ring, I am suddenly called away to visit friends. Take care of the house till I return and do not let that young person upstairs go out till I return."

She signed the note and directed it, and was about to rise when she heard a footstep behind her. It was young Mr. Barry Ewing returned from his club to get his answer to his proposal. The butler had let him in at the door and thinking that his mistress was in the drawing room, had permitted him to enter the room unannounced. Mr. Ewing, on his part, entered the room expecting and hoping to find his lady love alone. To his surprise Ensign Brown, cloaked and ready to go, sat at the desk. He could not mistake that blue bonnet. He was glad to find her alone before he met Eleanor Brown. He had something to say to her and he would say it quickly.

"Well, Ensign Brown, I'm glad you have the sense to leave this house. You will gain nothing by staying here or interfering with my marriage."

The figure seemed to bend lower, as if

agreeing with him and he went blindly on.

"Our engagement was a wretched mistake. If I had not let you cling to me so long I might by this time have married Eleanor Brown, and then I'd be pretty well fixed for life."

The figure seemed to bend before him, and he, waiting for no reply, rushed madly on.

"Of course, I promised to marry you, but I can't now. I've got to have money."

To his amazement the figure rose and with an imperious gesture brushed back the bonnet from her face, and it lay upon her shoulders like a crown upon her beautiful hair.

"Leave this house, sir! And never enter it again."

The young man, crushed and humiliated beyond expression, turned silently toward the door.

"Stop. I wish you to remain here for the present."

He stopped and stood with downcast eyes by the curtains of the door. She, on her part, calmly put the blue bonnet in place and tied it tightly under her chin and slowly buttoned the cloak about her.

"Where are you going?"

"To find my sister."

"Your sister. I thought she was—"

"Oh! you could never understand. I mean my sister among the poor."

"I shall call help. I cannot permit you to go out into the streets alone, Miss Brown."

"You will please take a seat, sir. You will remain in this room for half an hour and then you may ring and my servants will show you the door."

Her words stung him to madness and he said quickly,

"I will call your servants myself and prevent you from going out alone at this hour of the night."

Her figure seemed to grow before him. She appeared a goddess in the garb of a disciple. Her commanding presence and clear steadfast gaze cowed him into silence.

"Dare to interfere with me or to follow me or to tell a living soul what I am doing

and I will expose you to society and the public as the worthless creature that you are. It does not matter to you where I go or what I do. Under this bonnet a woman is safe anywhere."

She turned and quietly left the room. A

moment later he heard the great front door shut. The sound seemed to echo through the silent house for an instant, and then all was still.

The young man sat down on the sofa and

looked at his watch.

(To be continued.)

DR. PARKHURST AND HIS WORK.

BY ANDREW C. WHEELER.

NO ESTIMATE of Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst's work in bringing about a political reform in New York City can be accurately made, or be at all indicative of the reformer's spirit and method, that does not take into consideration the conditions which he had to face.

It is now a matter of verified history that those conditions were unique in a most flagrant sense. It is extremely doubtful if any metropolis of modern civilization can present similar and equally flagitious facts springing from corporate corruption and organized political dishonesty. New York, the commercial heart of the country, with a population of two millions, was ruled by a gang which had established its own precedents and safeguards; organized its own prætorian guard; allied itself with the worst elements of the population; made vice and venality tributary to its political coffers, and placed its own ruffians and murderers on the bench and in executive positions, to protect its own evil-doers and extort blood money from the helpless and the vicious.

The amazing spectacle was presented of the richest and most powerful city on the western hemisphere, a city of measureless charities, of incalculable beneficent forces, of vast religious energies, of a mighty free press, the center in fact of all the higher intellectual and religious activities of a free and brave people—the amazing spectacle was presented of this city ruled, robbed, and ruined by a clan of ignorant, besotted men, some of whom were exposed criminals, and nearly all of whom claimed the right and defiantly exercised the power to rob and riot

because iniquity and ignorance were better organized to do it than were all the normal forces of society to prevent it.

For thirty-five years at least, New York had groaned under this incubus, with recurrent spasms of protest, but always with that half-consciousness of the dreamer that it was a nightmare that could be dispelled only when the victim co-ordinated all his powers of resistance. And that he could never do.

Those of us who had lived in the city all our lives and had touched almost every segment of its mighty orbit of life, knew all this with a vague generalizing sureness, because it was an element of our atmosphere, but we went about like the man who discovers an organic warning in his own system and is ashamed to speak of it and unable to put his finger on it.

Thirty years of such a bondage and the shackles wear into the susceptibilities. New York grew to look upon its own slavery with a deprecating complaisance. Somehow it was an irremediable evil of popular government, to be condemned guardedly in general terms, but not to be fought specifically with righteous indignation.

It is very important to understand clearly the relative attitudes of organized political dishonesty and of the public itself, when Dr. Parkhurst came upon the scene. No one doubted that in its administration New York was the most corrupt city on earth, but no one knew how to formulate and attack that corruption with a reasonable hope of arraying against it the honest elements of the community. There had always been preachers who, at long intervals, assailed

the evil with sweeping generalities and let their zeal run away with their discretion. Innumerable instances may be cited of an indignant pulpit thundering resonantly and aimlessly over the new Sodom, without definite knowledge or practical intent. And in every instance they were met with the mocking challenge, "Give us the facts and the names."

In short the great bully that ruled New York understood perfectly well that so long as his infamy was merely an uncomfortable abstraction to the people and in no danger of becoming a blistering concrete fact, he was safe, and he invariably put forth all his bravado and his brawn to keep it an abstraction. He did not care what pulpiter charged up the sins to a general account. No broad moral philippic disturbed his sleep or intermitted his debauch. If it came to his ears at all, he had the tribal answer ready, "What are you going to do about it?" But the moment a finger was laid upon any member of the fraternity, his bristles stood up. The cry of the clan went out, lawyers thronged to the front, the suppressive machinery of the district attorney's office began to creak and pigeon-holes to gape. The police justice got his instructions from the boss. The caricaturist, the paragrapher, the heeler, unlimbered their guns and put on their brogans to bombard, to bother, and to jump on the man who had mentioned names or produced facts.

Such then, in brief, was the condition of affairs and of public sentiment, when in 1891 the lamented Dr. Howard Crosby passed away and there fell upon Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst the mantle of the president of the Society for the Prevention of Crime.

It happened that this man—but, no, let us not say it happened—it was ordered, that this man should not be a politician, a political economist, a civic official, a partisan, or an agitator. He was, first of all, and, more's the honor now, last of all, a preacher of the Gospel of Christ, hid away, one might almost say, there in his kirk under the towering flanks of a commercial palace of white sculptured marble on Madison Square, with the park full of jocund children and French

maids in front of him and the giddy Mabilles of the Madison Square Garden almost at his elbow.

Three years ago, who in that double human tide across the green stretch of park that races at right angles and whirls in collision at Twenty-third Street and Broadway, had ever heard of him? It was not many years before that he had come down from a rural pulpit to carry on his unobtrusive ministrations in a larger but no more secular fold of the metropolis. He had not piped for the curious and had made no bid for notoriety. The record of his church is the singularly calm and industrious record of one who is about his Master's work.

What, in the natural order of doing, are we to expect of such a man, when he is made president of the Society for the Prevention of Crime? Obviously this: and with the condition of New York at the time it is almost startling—he would try to prevent crime.

But it should be said that when he was asked to assume the duties of that society, he hesitated. He was a student, a recluse, a reflective and not an executive man. "I am afraid," he said, "that the official functions of this office will hardly be congenial." It was only at the earnest solicitation of the society that he finally consented. The mere fact that he was a scholar wholly given to a reflective life, shows us that he could have had no practical knowledge of the actual breadth and enormity of the operative and regnant forces with which he was to come in contact. We can therefore in some measure conceive with what an impact the duty smote him when he obtained full knowledge of it. To keep himself unspotted from the world was not likely to acquaint him with all the poignant facts of wrong-doing in New York. His first request as president would naturally be, "I have assumed the duties of this office; kindly point out to me in what congenial darkness of this great city crime is skulking that we may take the most efficacious preventive means."

"Skulking?" exclaims the astonished secretary. "Congenial darkness! You will pardon me, Doctor, but it is not skulking, it

is seated on the civic throne, bedizened with electric lights. The criminals are not pariahs but bosses, judges, commissioners. Prize fighters, rumsellers, gamblers, toughs, administer our affairs, and the hells and brothels of our city are not only the nurseries of our lawgivers but the tributaries to their power. It is honesty and shamefaced civic virtue that are skulking, believe me."

Knowing anything of the character of this quiet clergyman, whose ways had been for the most part ways of pleasantness and whose paths were certainly paths of peace, we can easily understand that he must have stood appalled when he found himself confronted by this Augean stable.

The enormity of it was not permitted to break upon him by familiarizing degrees. It fell upon him like a great light and what we now know of his sturdy John Knox Christianity leads us to believe that, like the tent-maker of Tarsus he went upon his knees and cried, "Lord, what wilt thou have me to do?"

Perhaps in that moment of self-abnegation, unperturbed by any timidity, a voice may have answered him out of the whirlwind of finite discouragement, "Gird up thy loins now like a man. I will demand of thee and declare thou unto Me."

Here, then, we have the inception and must date the genesis of the Parkhurst movement. The first trumpet tones of what the newspapers six months later called the "Parkhurst Crusade," issued from his pulpit. From that advanced post he hurled his spear in 1892, scarcely knowing where it would strike, and to that spear he has now fought his way triumphantly to find it garlanded with the wreaths of his countrymen. That sermon was both a challenge and an arraignment and was addressed to his congregation, but as it set the keynote of all the man said and did afterwards in going straight to the fountain-head of municipal pollution and charging upon the authorities the responsibility for the license and the domination of vice in New York, the newspapers spread it to the world, not indeed with any suspicion of what was coming, but merely as a passing pulpit sensation. It was not a rhetorical effort and

it stepped out from all the graces of a scholarly delivery. But it brought with it a biting earnestness and a sledge-hammer candor that "meant business." It charged the police with aiding and abetting the law-breakers, and declared that houses of ill-repute were in full blast almost within the sound of his voice in open and protected defiance of the law.

The immediate response on the part of the press and the city officials was just what might have been expected, and just exactly what had always followed any previous attempt on the part of the pulpit to awaken the shame and the moral indignation of the community. I have before me the utterances of every newspaper in New York and the views of every politician, lawyer, and official that were solicited and obtained by the indefatigable reporters. They do not tingle with shame or betray any virtuous indignation. They one and all deprecate generalities and sweeping pulpit accusations and call for specific facts. Here are some of the phrases that then grew so gracefully on public opinion and which now lie so juiceless and so futile along the deserted alleys of that episode :

"It is an easy matter for the cloistered clerical to fire his gun into the air. What we want are facts."

"Let us have the particulars, Dr. Parkhurst."

"Why does not the reverend gentleman give us names and numbers?"

"If the preacher knows of a dive that is open in the vicinity of his church, let him point it out to the properly constituted authorities and not waste moral essays upon it."

"Vague accusations of derelictions of duty are common enough in New York. What is needed is someone with the courage to bring the matter to a focus by designating the official who is protecting vice. And that cannot very well be done by a clergyman."

Every gambler and prize-fighter and policy-dealer and rum-seller who had been honored by Tammany Hall with an official position was interviewed. All the Warwicks of wickedness and bosses of misrule were invited to

say what they thought of the new voice crying in the wilderness.

Never was such a consensus of self-satisfied indifference set forth in reporter's English; never before did Tammany, through its spokesman, make its two traditional points so jauntily and so coarsely.

Point number one: There hasn't been any particular thing pointed out and there ain't going to be.

Point number two: What are you going to do about it if there is?

Virtually the reply of Tammany, put into its own vernacular, was: "He ain't touched one of the boys, and when he does we'll down him."

Time out of mind this attitude of the evil forces of New York had been sufficient to discomfit reform with its own prudence. It was the attitude of the bully who pulls a club or a pistol and invites you to identify him.

What did Dr. Parkhurst do?

It is very important to keep your eye on this particular, because here lies what the mechanician calls the center of the eccentric motion. He girded up his loins and he got the facts. So desirous was he of accommodating the press and the police that he took down the names and the numbers; so amiable was he that he spoke kindly to one of "the boys" in uniform who was pacing up and down in front of the place and didn't know it was there.

Then it was that the Tammany press and the Tammany spokesmen with one accord turned upon the clergyman. It was of no moment that he had accepted their challenge and furnished the facts; the overpowering and awful truth suddenly convulsed them—that a clergyman had done it. From the columns of their press and from every gilded hell in the Tenderloin District, went up the wail that Dr. Parkhurst was trailing the vestments of the church in the mire. I cannot recall any social spasm in the history of the municipality which exhibits such a sudden earnestness on the part of the lawbreakers, the gamblers, the harlots, and the bosses, to protect the church from the defilement of an honest and fearless clergyman. The call for par-

ticulars died in their throats. It was silenced by the new danger that threatened religion.

Specifications, however, cannot very easily be whistled down the wind. The newspapers began to badger the authorities, and every denial that they wrung from the superintendent of police or the police commissioners was followed by fresh facts and a repetition of the charge that the fountain-head of all the evil was in Tammany Hall. It began to be obvious by this time to the bosses, as well as the boys, that all hope of preserving the precious abstractness of political wrongdoing was gone. A very concrete man had arrived and the old methods of exorcising him broke down. He could not be bought, frightened, or cajoled. He refused to burden himself with partisan considerations. He persistently declared that his sole object was the suppression of public vice and the uprooting of organized public dishonesty and that their stronghold was not among the people but was set upon a hill and fortified by years of brigandage on the one side and public indifference on the other.

At the end of the year, Dr. Parkhurst had hammered so dauntlessly at the police department that its contradictory attempts to justify itself were little better to an amused public than a family row. But it had been no amateur's promenade. The doctor found that he could not climb over the district attorney who barred the way politely to his own office, and the doctor was forced to go round the corner to the grand jury. When the police captains grasped their wallets and reported that there were no gambling houses or houses of ill-repute open in their precincts, the doctor came up smiling and promptly with a list of them, and when the police barred his way to the central office and the commissioners, he got round to the court rooms and had the keepers of some of these very houses indicted and committed, while their non-existence was fresh on the police records.

When he insisted that the laws should be enforced without judicial hair-splitting or sentimentality on the part of the police captains, and pointed to the rampant vice of

the open brothels in the Tenderloin District, the police made a flank movement and suddenly thrust the fallen women of that precinct into the streets on one of the bitterest nights of the season. Had the police succeeded in arraying public sympathy on their side and in proving that the doctor's views when strictly carried out resulted in cruelty of the old witch-burning order, his cause must have fallen to the ground through one of those curious misdirections of public sentiment. But the doctor opened his own doors. He met the fallen women with good advice and practical assistance, and he kept unceasingly before the public, in the clearest and boldest rhetoric, the simplicity and directness of his own purpose, which was not to make war upon these people but upon the system that protected them at one moment, wringing from them their ill-gotten gains, only to persecute them at the next in its own defense.

During the whole of that year he got little public sympathy from the churches. The Methodist preachers in weekly meeting refused even to entertain a resolution of sympathy. Small voices in outlying pulpits denounced his methods and questioned his motives. The Tammany press predicted that he would be driven in disgrace from the city, and when finally there was a public meeting of clergymen who dared to commend his work, that press bulletined these men as fit targets for public opprobrium.

But something was accreting slowly. It was an indignant public opinion. The great abstraction was every day growing more concrete and heavier to be borne. The peace-loving and law-abiding elements of the community had come to believe that what this man said "was so," and that what he had predicted might come to pass. These people evinced a broad healthy delight in the fighter who could stay, and when the "silver-tongued orator" of Tammany Hall, affectionately known as "Justice Tom Grady," addressed a rough East-Side political meeting, and with voluble coarseness assailed Dr. Parkhurst as a "loud-mouthed Pharisee who would be consigned to speedy oblivion," he was nonplussed by

his rough listeners, who cried out, "But he's a stayer, Tom."

Such is the permeative power of sincerity and earnestness combined that it was felt in every extremity of the sick city like the stirring promise of the equitable sunshine. The dried bones of civic pride began to move in unsuspected places. If one man, with nothing behind him but the Right, could make such a determined fight, why might not we, if we got shoulder to shoulder? Forebodings of disaster began to reach the men who were battenning at the heart of the community. One morning there came the first intimation of panic from Tammany Hall. The chief boss of all announced that he was tired of politics and was going to resign from the office of political pontiff and give himself entirely up to the serener and safer joys of the race track. Mr. Croker has never been justly credited with the prevision that his retreat implied. From his topmost perch, the honored bird of prey first saw the writing on the wall and preened himself for flight. Then came the Lexow Committee to turn over all this reeking soil and accumulate ten thousand pages of testimony that what Dr. Parkhurst had said in the beginning was verified and emphasized with unspeakable shame in the end.

It is not possible here to trace with leisurely historic method, the events which followed. They proceeded logically from social disgust to political vengeance, and the immemorial gang was routed at the polls in November, horse, foot, and dragoons. But in every turn of events Dr. Parkhurst is a recognized factor and agent. From first to last he unalterably represents the ethics of the cause. Without commission from the people, without office, without recognized political place or the insignia of delegated power, among all the brevetted chieftains of the hour, he is content to work under his first credentials as a minister of the Gospel of Christ.

Just exactly how far he conformed to the letter of those credentials in the stress of his first indignation, will, I suppose, always be a point of reservation among many

Christians who are as exemplary as he is, without being as enthusiastic and determined. But when the anthem of Thanksgiving is sounding, it is small business to be hunting for the weak note in the precentor's voice.

What we cannot help seeing and what we should be recreant to our best impulses in denying, is that Dr. Parkhurst from the first to the last has stood forth distinctly as the champion of righteousness in social and communal life, as he had always stood forth for it in the individual life, and that he succeeded, with no other claim and with no other warrant than the truth, the courage, and the candor of an upright citizen, in compelling the respect of the community and the co-operation of able men in and out of politics.

To those of us who care to inquire into the philosophy of this movement, there are some surprises, and not the least of them is in the consideration that after all this reformer only told the truth with the fearlessness of a man who thoroughly believes in it. We are amazed, when we think of it, that he was pinnacled for doing what every honest and God-fearing citizen ought to have done instinctively and continually. We have to ask ourselves if our faith in the primacy and potency of the sane and honest forces of society is as broad as his.

When we think how slowly reform ordinarily matures, through storm and stress, from agitation to recognition; how many great men have laid their weary lives down in the educational process and left posterity to acknowledge their work and pay the tardy honors to their tombs, we are amazed at the

epicycle of these three years in which reform rounds itself up so completely, and in which the piously reflective man sweeps from comparative obscurity to the acknowledged leadership of the people; administering only the truth and directing the forces of political regeneration; fighting through discouragement and obloquy and achieving success to be awarded with popular acclaim, I had almost said, "while we wait."

Panegyric? Yes, necessarily, if events are to tell their story. The issue has been made. The normal sense of the people, aroused and co-ordinated, came to the rescue. Baal has fallen. The tribute of the community is given to the man who worked the hardest—who has refused all rewards—disdained all offices—turned a deaf ear to all flatterers—and scorned all the empty honors of the victors. If we are to find him in his best estate we shall have to go back to the kirk there under the white flanks of the marble palace, with the same park full of jocund children, safer and happier mayhap because Dr. Parkhurst has lived, and there we shall find him still preaching the Gospel of Christ.

We are so accustomed to look upon the piously reflective man as utterly unfit to grapple with the affairs of our rankly practical life, that this episode of a scholar coming into the arena with a conscience and a will and doing what the trained athletes of the caucus and the convention could not do, ought to set us thinking if after all there is not some simple, subtle puissance in every one of us when we adjust ourselves to the eternal verities and supplement a noble faith in God with a relative and sympathetic faith in man.



AROMATIC DRINKS.

BY JULES ROCHARD.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

UNDER the name of aromatic drinks as opposed to fermented drinks, there are designated, in hygiene, certain infusions, acting in a certain manner upon the nervous system, which action is not due to alcohol but to a particular principle which is common to all of them and which is known under the name of caffeine. This group of drinks comprises coffee, tea, and maté.

Caffeine, to which these substances owe their properties, is a well defined alkaloid which has a direct action upon the heart and the circulation. It facilitates muscular work, prevents fatigue, and hinders the breathlessness and palpitation which accompany it. The effects of caffeine have been tried in the army and it has been found that troops after forced marches of long distances have not felt fatigued, but were really fresh and gay and ready to recommence their work, while those who had not taken the alkaloid gave every sign of weariness.

Caffeine in doses of one gram retards the circulation while it increases the energy of the heart beats; it lowers the temperature and induces in some cases a furious delirium with visual hallucinations, of which Dr. Faisans cited several examples to the Medical Society last May. I shall refer again to these effects of the action of coffee, with which substance I shall commence this study of aromatic drinks.

It might be asked if caffeine is a nutritive which builds up the human system, and the answer would have to be in the negative. It facilitates muscular action, but it does so at the expense of the organism. It does not replace nutritive food, but it does allow one to go without it for some time while awaiting circumstances which will allow the providing of proper supplies.

COFFEE is the grain of the coffee tree, which is a shrub of from twelve to fifteen feet

high. Its foliage is always green, its flowers white, of a fragrant odor, growing in thick clusters. Its fruit is a little ovoid berry, green at the beginning, but soon passing to a bright red, and becoming nearly black at maturity. It encloses two convex seeds, their flat sides meeting in the center.

Upper Egypt and lower Abyssinia are counted the original home of the coffee. It very probably passed from there to Arabia where it has been used from time immemorial. The Mussulmans declare that it was revealed to Mahomet by the angel Gabriel.

The introduction of coffee into Europe, dates from the seventeenth century. It was Soliman Aga, the ambassador from Turkey to France, who set the fashion for drinking it in Paris. It was then a costly rarity, and only great lords could indulge in it. It had at this time its advocates and its detractors, and there are many anecdotes on record to which it gave rise.

The Genoese and the Venetians monopolized the commerce of coffee up to the end of the seventeenth century. It was then that the Hollanders conceived the idea of cultivating it in their colonies, and from there it spread to different parts of Europe, to the Antilles, and to South America.

It is in America especially that its culture has developed. It constitutes the principal branch of exportation from Venezuela, Colombia, and Brazil. Its plantations form forests stretching away as far as the eye can reach; and at the time of flowering this ocean of verdure is covered as with a dewy snow which perfumes the atmosphere. The crops, after the harvest, are taken in cargoes to the markets of Havre, Liverpool, and Antwerp.

The different countries just mentioned put yearly upon the European markets, a quantity of coffee which for the seven nations of northern Europe amounted in 1888 to 570,608,600 lbs. France received of this 150,680,700 lbs. In 1890 there entered into

France 153,000,000 lbs. The consumption in Europe for that year was 620,000,000 lbs.; in the United States, 472,500,000 lbs. The demand for this commodity steadily increases; during the last sixty years its importation in France has sextupled.

The harvesting of coffee occurs twice a year at times varying according to the rainy seasons. In the Antilles, in Egypt, in Arabia, the crop is gathered by shaking the trees over large strips of canvas which have been previously stretched over the ground. It is then dried on mats. In other countries it is picked by hand and placed in baskets.

Coffee is liable to frauds. Artificial coffee is manufactured to-day on the other side of the Rhine. Five years ago this new industry had birth in Germany. Chevalier had already discovered an analogous fraud consisting of imitating the grains of coffee in plastic clay which was passed through a mill and then dried in the sun; but this artifice was too gross and was not successful. The inventive minds of the Germans did much better. They made a paste of flour into which a few other ingredients were mixed, and by machinery molded from it coffee beans irreproachable in form and color. From ten to twelve hundred weight can be produced daily at a cost not over five dollars a hundred weight. This production is not harmful, but it possesses none of the qualities of the natural grain. It is not difficult to detect, as all of the grains are perfectly uniform, which is never the case in natural growths.

A fraud much more common in France consists in passing off the inferior for the better grades, resorting to devices which make the former simulate the latter. As to ground coffees there is no fraud of which they could not be the subject. There is mingled with them any amount of substances, having an analogous savor, but the most common is chicory.

Green coffee is employed only in medicine. Long ago it gained a certain reputation in the treatment of gout. It has also been prescribed in intermittent fevers. But aside from this, coffee is consumed only after being roasted and ground.

Roasting causes it to lose from fifteen to twenty per cent of its weight; its volume is increased by one third; and its composition is no longer the same. New principles are developed in the grain. There is, first, an empyreumatic oil to which are to be attributed the exciting properties, and which is known as *cafféone*; besides, there are small quantities of methylamine, of acetone, of palmitic, acetic, and carbonic acids.

Coffee, whether regarded as a nourishment, a remedy, or a stimulant of mental action, is one of the most valuable of European products. Its beneficent properties have been known for a long time, but they were never fully appreciated until chemistry had separated the active principle, and until experimental physiology had analyzed its effects, the most characteristic and useful of which are due to *cafféine*. It dispels sleep, permitting one to prolong his working hours. The insomnia which it induces is not distressing, but calm, lucid, and leaves to thought all its elasticity. Under its action, the brain, gently stimulated, escapes in a certain measure the feeling of the heavy realities of life. The senses become clearer, the imagination keener, work easier; memory has an unusual power, ideas flow with an unwonted rapidity, and at the same time a feeling of comfort is diffused through the whole being. Coffee prevents intellectual as well as physical fatigue.

When taken by one who is fasting, especially when it is made strong, coffee produces an epigastric trouble, analogous to that experienced when one is under the strain of a great moral emotion or in an anguish of expectation. With very impressionable persons it causes a state of painful nervousness, accompanied by cramps of the stomach and a trembling of the limbs.

The question has often been agitated whether coffee is a slow poison, as its calumniators have held. Among the most ardent of these was Hahnemann, the father of homeopathy, who accused it of having perverted the German character, taking away its solid qualities and replacing them with levity, vacillation, and indiscretion. This picture, all will admit, is overdrawn. Among those

who abuse coffee are many who at the same time smoke, and the evil effects attributed to the drink are really due to the nicotine of the tobacco.

The second evil which is very often attributed to coffee is intellectual overwork. Recourse is had to it to overcome sleep, inattention, fatigue, when they attack the studious man who wishes to surpass the measure of his strength. The labor of thought tires more than manual labor; it demands more alimentary reparation and a longer period of repose than muscular work. Coffee will enable a student to prolong his efforts, will extend the limit of his powers, but at the expense of his constitution. However, it is the overwork and not the coffee that does the harm in such cases.

It remains for us to consider coffee as a food and its study from this point of view is not less interesting. Its composition gives it an incontestable nutritive value. A quarter of its weight is composed of assimilative nutritive principles. But the small quantity consumed prevents it from serving any considerable purpose as food. But the cup of coffee which one takes after a repast is an excellent digestive, it gives good spirits and gayety.

Coffee containing milk has been considered by some even more unwholesome than black coffee, but notwithstanding this its use has not decreased, a fact which proves that the public does not take up preconceived ideas. Milk has been proved to be the most complete food that exists; why should it lose its good qualities on being mixed with coffee which contains others? Coffee with cream or milk does not merit the reproaches hurled against it; and for the morning repast, hygiene can only applaud its moderate use.

TEA, which comes after coffee in the order of importance in aromatic drinks, is the foliage of an evergreen shrub of the family *Camelliaceæ*. It was originally of the country of Assam, but its culture spread in the most remote times into China. It was introduced about the sixth century into Japan and from there into Corea, and then into the English establishments of the Himalayas and the

Netherland colonies of Oceanica. The tea gathered now in Java and Annam vies in the markets of Europe with that produced in China and Japan. The tea of India is of an inferior quality.

The tea tree in a natural state grows to a height of about thirty feet, but in cultivation it is kept pruned back to about six feet, in order to make it more prolific and to facilitate the gathering of the leaves. The flowers resemble those of the wild rose; the leaves are lanceolate and finely dentated; the fruit is a three-celled capsule with one or two seeds in each cell. From these seeds an oil is expressed. The tree is hardy and flourishes in sandy soil. The similarity of the climate of China to that of northern Europe gave rise to the hope that it might be successfully cultivated in the latter countries, but the attempts so far have failed.

It was thought for a long time that the numerous varieties of tea were the products of different plants, but it is known to-day that the tree which produces green tea will also produce black under certain cultivation and according to the time the harvesting is done.

The tea harvest begins in April. At this time the aroma is incomparable. The gathering should be done, as far as possible, in clear weather and in the early morning, while the dew is still glistening on the leaves. At this season the trees are just passing out of bud and the young leaves are covered with a down. They then form the tea known as the flowery pekoe. A few days later the down has disappeared and the tea is then called the pekoe in black. In May the foliage has reached its full development and gives the souchong; in June, it has lost its delicacy and yields then the congou, the best parts of which form the campoy and the rest the bohea. The first pickings of the green teas furnish the hyson; then come the gunpowder and the twankay.

After the gathering, the leaves are submitted to a long series of operations. The first process is the drying, which is done by spreading them in thin layers on bamboo

screens. The desiccation of the green tea must be done rapidly, that of the black more slowly. When the drying is almost done, the leaves are gently rubbed over the screens in such a way as to roll them. The different qualities are then culled, sifted, fanned, and then submitted to the delicate operation of heating, which consists in placing the tea in shallow pans in furnaces where it is constantly shaken. When a certain crackling sound is heard, it is withdrawn, and then the leaves are rapidly rolled by the workmen in the palms of their hands. This process is repeated two or three times.

The last treatment is the coloring. There is mixed with the tea a small quantity of very fine powder, composed of three parts of sulphate of lime to one part of indigo. Green teas are not ready for delivering to the markets under a year, that time being required to free them from their herbaceous odor and their astringency. They are then packed in small wooden chests, lined with lead or tin.

Tea has been consumed from time immemorial in its native country, but like coffee, it was introduced into Europe only at the end of the seventeenth century. Its use spread rapidly in England. If one had told Charles II. that this herb, which was just beginning to be imported, would at the end of two hundred and forty years reach a consumption of 200,000,000 lbs., it would have occasioned that monarch a keen surprise. All the nations of the north use it freely. This warm and gently stimulating drink is well suited to cold and rainy countries.

Tea owes its properties to an alkaloid known as theine, which is identical with caffeine.

The adulterations of tea are still more numerous than those of coffee. The leaves of other vegetables are frequently mixed with it. Throughout Europe a widespread fraud consists in re-rolling the leaves which have already been used. They are gathered from hotels and *cafés*, dried and re-colored and packed. In the coloring matter lies the danger attaching to the drink, especially in the chromate of lead.

The physiological action of tea is analogous to that of coffee. Sometimes the former possesses an astringent property which it owes to its tannin. Recourse is often had to tea to drive away sleep and to facilitate mental work, but it is not employed to assist muscular energy or to support fatigue.

Tea is a social drink. If coffee is the friend of the solitary worker, tea is the companion of the fireside, enjoyed while talking over the events of the day or the affairs of the family.

Taken in excess, tea will accelerate the beatings of the heart and raise the temperature about half a degree, and will produce a chronic theism, whose symptoms are a painful sensation of cerebral vacuity, vertigo, titubation, and trouble in seeing. But the evil effects of tea drinking have been overdrawn. Payen has calculated that compared to the weight of man, it would require not less than two pounds of tea to produce these toxic results. It is then a slower poison than coffee. The bad effects commonly attributed to it are due to the large quantities of water absorbed with it. This continual washing debilitates the stomach, enfeebles the action of the gastric juices, and causes that state of digestive languor which has been designated under the name of drink dyspepsia.

MATÉ is the least interesting of the aromatic drinks, because it is almost unknown in Europe. It constitutes the ordinary drink of the inhabitants of Parana, of Uruguay, and of a part of Brazil. The Jesuits of Paraguay first made it known to Europe; and from this fact it was called Paraguay tea, or the tea of the missions or of the Jesuits.

The plant which produces it is the *Ilex Paraguayensis*, a shrub of about fifteen feet in height, with smooth, lanceolate leaves; the white flowers are in umbellate clusters and the berries are of reddish color; and the trunk and branches are covered with a whitish bark, shiny and of a velvety appearance. It grows naturally between the 18th and 30th degrees of south latitude.

It is propagated by means of the seeds. When the young plants have reached a height of about six inches, they are transplanted and set in the shade of large trees to protect them from the sun; when they are six to eight feet high the trees are cut away. After four years they are ready for the harvest.

The peons who gather the crop, suspend the leafy branches over slow fires for two days. Then when the drying is complete, hides are stretched over the cinders and the leaves are beaten off the branches and assorted. They are then reduced to powder and packed up in hides or leathern sacks. In Parana the leaves are dried as the tea in China, in great iron pans, and then pulverized by machinery. This forms the maté which is most highly esteemed in commerce.

In the countries producing it maté is preferred to tea or coffee. It is much cheaper, and constitutes the favorite drink of more than 10,000,000 people. Its annual consumption is estimated at 200,000,000 lbs.; its exportation at about 75,000,000 lbs. The drink is an infusion and its preparation is very simple. A handful of leaves is placed in a cup with a little sugar and orange peel, and hot water is poured over them and left to stand until cool enough to drink; then it is taken through a metal tube perforated at the lower end to keep back the leaves. The natives pass the cup from one to another all using the same tube. The infusion has a bitter, astringent flavor.

Maté contains a large proportion of caffeine and its physiological properties are much the same as those of tea and coffee. It acts upon the brain, and an overdose will produce an effect somewhat similar to inebriety. For persons who are accustomed to its use its sudden suspension is as difficult as that of tobacco.

ALL these aromatic drinks render good service and justify the interest they inspire in hygienists, but they may be called to play a rôle more important than they have yet filled. They may become the antidote for alcohol, this pest of modern times, this

scourge more murderous than epidemics.

Alcohol bears a large part of the responsibility for all the errors, the disgraces, the crimes of contemporaneous society. War without mercy should be made against it, but people grow weary in combatting an evil against which they feel powerless. It has for its supporters those who manufacture it and those who sell, those who wholesale and those who retail it, and those who drink it, in a word those who live by it and those who die by it.

In writing not long ago the history of temperance societies I mentioned as one of their most powerful means of action the erection of establishments analogous to *cafés*, ale houses, and breweries, but in which there should be sold no alcoholic drinks. The first temperance *cafés*, for thus they were designated, were established in England in 1876. Two years later there were formed fifty-eight companies for the erection of others; and they have spread to nearly all the countries of the world.

People who have at command all resources of comfort do not always resist the attraction of the saloons. They are much less excusable than the workmen who have no other recreation. They find there congenial company, a room well warmed and lighted. As a result it follows that in the struggle against intemperance, there must be establishments having all of these attractions, but lacking the intoxicating beverages.

In temperance *cafés* the frequenters must be admitted without formality; they must be allowed to rest, to read the papers, to write there; and they must find there coffee, tea, chocolate, lemonade, and syrups, in suitable condition and at advantageous prices, since these establishments are not a speculation and should be content with meeting expenses. This last condition is a prime necessity. The workman should not feel that the *café* is one method of dispensing alms. He should pay for what he consumes, but for nothing more. It is necessary that he should feel at home and independent and that he should desire to come again.

'Tis equally necessary that temperance *cafés*, whose object is purely moral, should

avoid taking on a political character and being transformed into clubs. In France this would be their greatest danger. In order that these establishments may meet with the prosperity they deserve it is indispensable that they be so conducted as to leave to those who would frequent them the largest liberty possible.

Advantage should be taken of every means which will help on in the war against alcohol. If it is possible to substitute, little by little, a taste for drinks which have caffeine for

their base, for those which have alcohol, a great triumph will have been made. It is useless to think of drawing away from the saloons their clientele of inebriates and degenerates; but there can be won from them those who have not yet become addicted to alcohol and who dread to fall into dire abjection, especially the women and the youth. And one of the best means of exciting this necessary attraction is by means of establishments dispensing aromatic drinks.

THE WITCH HAZEL.

BY ELIZABETH HAY FREY.

TELL me, wild witch hazel trees
 In your shrub embowered nook
 Swaying in the perfumed breeze,
 As you bend to chase your shadow
 In the swiftly running brook
 Are you plotting mysteries?

Lonely, quivering in despair
 When your leafage, turned to gold,
 Left you ugly, cold, and bare,
 Did you ponder on new treasures
 Ere your flowers should unfold—
 Last among the flowers fair?

How then did you learn to tell
 Where are laughing waters found
 And where hidden treasures dwell
 By the ghosts of pirates guarded
 On some wild, sequestered ground?
 How came you to break their spell?

Or can fame for wisdom be
 Reflex of your mission high,
 That among the galaxy
 Of the flowers you were chosen
 For the season's fond good-by,
 Summer's valedictory?

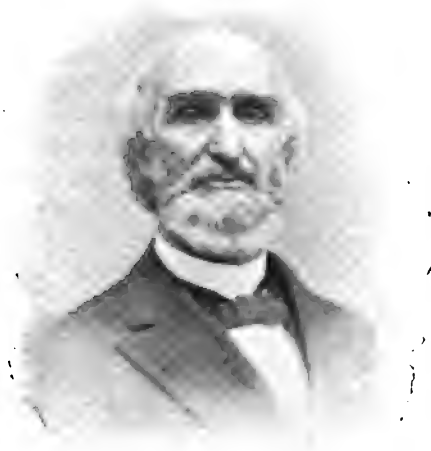
JOURNALISM IN THE CONGREGATIONAL AND PRESBYTERIAN CHURCHES.

BY ADDISON P. FOSTER, D. D.

THE honor of being the first religious newspaper in the world has been claimed by three or four different Congregational and Presbyterian journals. At one time the dispute on the matter was very hot. *The Congregationalist* of Boston

a religious paper published at Dayton, Ohio, by the denomination known as Christians. This paper states that it was published in 1808. If any one of these claims is correct the churches whose publications are to be considered in this article have led the way in introducing one of the most important of modern forms of Christian influence.

Naturally enough the number of Presbyterian journals exceeds those of the Congregationalists more than two to one. There are over thirty-five Presbyterian papers and about eighteen Congregational. The denominations yoked together in this article as first cousins—for such they are in theology, polity, and social church life—stand related in numbers in about the same proportion. The Presbyterians, including those of all kinds, according to the last census, number 1,278,332, with 13,476 churches; while the Congregationalists report in their last Year Book 561,631 members and 5,236 churches. Besides this the Presbyterians are scattered over a far wider region. There are great numbers of them in the South, whereas, until



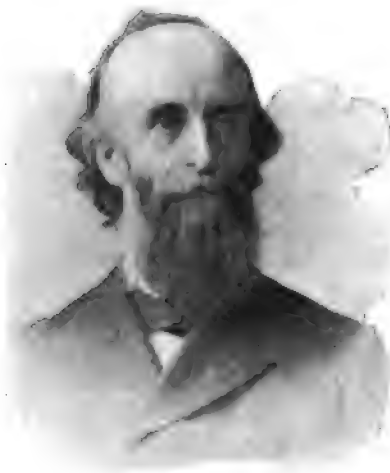
H. C. BOWEN.

Proprietor and formerly editor "The Independent." (New York.) was the first to make such a claim, alleging that the honor belonged to it as the successor of the Boston *Recorder*, which started in 1816. *The Presbyterian Banner* stoutly disputed this claim on the ground that it was the successor of the *Weekly Recorder* started July 5, 1814, in Chillicothe, Ohio. Then the *New York Observer* came in and claimed to be the oldest living religious paper. On this the *Christian Observer* set up a claim as the successor of the *Christian Remembrancer*, started in 1813. It was largely a question of definition and genealogy. What is a religious paper and what papers still live in their successors? On the whole the *Presbyterian Banner* had the best of the argument and it now swings at the mast-head the legend, "The Oldest Religious Paper." My attention, however, has recently been called to the *Herald of Gospel Liberty*,
G-Feb.



HENRY M. FIELD, D. D.
Editor "The Evangelist." (New York.)

after the Civil War the Congregationalists had scarcely a church south of Mason and Dixon's line. The Congregationalists have practically had their growth from two foci,—Boston in the East and Chicago in the Interior, and while the denomination is steadily spreading over the Northwest, establishing itself on the Pacific Coast, springing up over the Southland, has long since scattered its churches all along the north parallels of latitude from the Hudson to the Mississippi, yet its forces center still at the two points mentioned. Hence it is that it has two journals of unquestioned pre-eminence,—*The Congregationalist* of Boston and *The Advance* of Chicago. The former paper, owing its strength and prestige largely to the late Rev. Henry M. Dexter, D.D., a Nestor in the denomination, for a long time took the lead. But in 1867 *The Advance* sprung into



LYMAN ABBOTT, D.D.
Editor "The Outlook." (New York.)

being, speedily came to a commanding position, and since that day has stood side by side with its contemporary in generous rivalry. The Rev. A. E. Dunning, D.D., is the editor-in-chief of the older paper. *The Advance* has just met with a great affliction in the loss of its editor-in-chief, the Rev. H. S. Harrison, who was recently struck by an express train and instantly killed. The Rev. Simeon Gilbert, D.D., long his able coadjutor, has at present the chief burden in managing the paper.

Besides these journals many others are in existence, established to represent local interests. Among them the state of Maine



J. M. HOWARD, D.D.
Editor "Cumberland Presbyterian." (Nashville.)



CHARLES A. STODDARD, D.D.
Editor "New York Observer." (N. Y.)

is cared for by the *Christian Mirror*, of which the Rev. James G. Merrill, D.D., is the editor and proprietor; Connecticut by the *Religious Herald*, founded in 1843 by D. B. Mosely, and still edited by him; Vermont by the *Vermont Chronicle* and New Hampshire by the *New Hampshire Journal*, both edited as substantially one paper by the Rev. C. S. Smith. Among the younger

journals are *The Pacific*, covering the Pacific coast, the *Michigan Congregationalist*, the *Congregational News* of Iowa, the *Kansas*



REV. H. S. HARRISON.
Late Editor "The Advance." (Chicago.)

Telephone, the *Nebraska Congregational News*, and the *Rocky Mountain Congregationalist*. We must not forget to mention here the *Cenhadwr American-aidd*, a Welsh paper published at Remsen, N. Y.

It is not so easy to divide the Presbyterian journals into those which cover the country and those which are local in character. It will be remembered that the United States census reports not less than twelve branches of Presbyterians, the Presbyterians North, the Presbyterians South, the United Presbyterians, the Welsh Calvinistic Church, the Cumberland Presbyterians (in two bodies), the Associate Presbyterians (in two bodies), and the Reformed Presbyterians (in four bodies). Most of these branches have their own representative papers.

Prominent among the Presbyterian papers of the North are the *New York Observer*, edited by the Rev. Charles A. Stoddard, D.D., and *The Evangelist* of the same city, edited by the Rev. Henry M. Field, D. D., the *Presbyterian* of Philadelphia, edited by the Rev. M. B. Grier, D.D., the *Presbyterian Journal* of the same city, edited by the Rev. Robert Patterson, D.D., the *Presbyterian Observer*, also of Philadelphia, the *Herald and Presbyter* of Cincinnati, edited by the Rev. Jos. G. Montfort, LL. D., *The Interior* of Chicago, edited by

Dr. W. C. Gray, *The North and West* of Minneapolis, edited by the Rev. J. B. Donaldson, the *Presbyterian Banner* of Pittsburg, edited by the Rev. James Allison, D. D. The Presbyterians of the South have, with others, the *Southwestern Presbyterian* of New Orleans, edited by the Rev. R. O. Mallard, D.D., the *Christian Observer* of Louisville, Ky., the *St. Louis Presbyterian* and the *Central Presbyterian* of Richmond, Va.

The leading papers of the United Presbyterians are the *Midland* of Omaha, Neb., the *Christian Instructor* of Philadelphia, and the *United Presbyterian* of Philadelphia. Among the papers of the Reformed Presbyterian churches are the *Associate Reformed Presbyterian* of South Carolina, and the *Advocate and Ensign* of Philadelphia. The vigorous Cumberland Presbyterians have among their papers *The Observer* of St. Louis, edited by D. M. Harris, and the *Cumberland Presbyterian* of Nashville, Tenn., edited by the Rev. J. M. Howard, D.D. Each of these papers has a wide territory of its own, while some of them, like the *New York Observer*, *The Evangelist*, and *The Interior*, have a national circulation.



SIMON GILBERT, D. D.
Editor "The Advance." (Chicago.)

Most of the journals in both denominations are individual property and in no way subject to the control of the churches. There is no guarantee for their orthodoxy

or for their loyalty to denominational interests other than that dependence on the support of a constituency which can be retained by only their faithfulness to the ideas prevailing in that constituency. Practically that proves quite enough of a guarantee. The difficulty rather is to ensure our religious journals sufficient independence of thought and freedom of speech. It requires no little moral courage and stiffness of vertebral column to speak out editorial convictions in the face of a possible loss of popularity, a consequent contraction of circulation and then of advertising. That means financial failure. Under these circumstances it is really remarkable that as a rule the journals considered in this article do so uniformly and nobly manifest the courage of their convictions. It is evident that the system of private



JAMES ALLISON, D. D.
Editor "Presbyterian Banner." (Pittsburg.)

vailing among its constituents, while, where individual interests are at stake, no effort will be spared to make the paper bright, able, and attractive. Some few of the papers in both denominations are owned and managed on the Methodist plan, by the churches themselves. The *Southwestern Presbyterian*, for

example, is owned by the synod of Mississippi and the editor is selected and removable by vote. The *Cumberland Presbyterian* is owned by the Board of Publication of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church. Among the Congregationalists the *Vermont Chronicle* is responsible to the General Convention of Congregational Ministers and Churches of Vermont and a standing committee of this convention looks after the paper. But such an official relation of the churches is very rare and is certainly not in accord with the drift of the times.

The Congregationalists and Presbyterians of late years have been passing through seas of theological contention. Men are always divided into conservatives and liberals, while there is a considerable number who, with no disposition to change their own views, yet look with indulgence on free thinking and the vagaries of their brethren. The same divisions may be looked for in the papers representing a denomination, and while tidal waves were passing over first the Congregationalists and then the Presbyterians, it was inevitable that their religious journals should be sorted off into conservative, liberal, and tolerationist. The fact that among the Congregationalists, at least, some of those lines are now obliterated in its journals, and that the organs of certain startling, and at one



M. C. HAZARD.
Editor Congregational Sunday School Periodicals. (Boston.)

ownership is not so dangerous as it would seem. The orthodoxy of the paper is reasonably sure to be up to the standard pre-

time widely discussed, views have gone out of existence, while now no paper in the denomination is advocating them, is most significant.

It must be acknowledged that while there is in the private ownership of a paper a guarantee that the paper will remain orthodox as long as its constituency does, there yet is quite a possibility that the paper will swerve from its original intent. A somewhat notable movement in this direction has been observed among the journals of the Congregationalists, though in no case, we believe, among the Presbyterians. In the former denomina-

tion at least two of its most prominent papers, having a large circulation as denominational papers, have swung loose from this idea and become undenominational. *The Independent* of New York was started as a Congregational paper with Dr. Leonard Bacon, Dr. R. S. Storrs, and Dr. J. P. Thompson as editors, and Joshua Leavitt as office editor. Then Henry Ward Beecher came into charge and soon made it undenominational. Mr. Henry C. Bowen was the leading financial man in the enterprise at the start, at one time was its editor, and is its proprietor and responsible head to-day. *The Independent* claims to be really as much a denominational paper as ever only that it is not exclusively Congregational.

Mr. Beecher subsequently started *The Christian Union* and after him it was ably edited by Dr. Lyman Abbott. At one time this paper represented the liberal wing of the denomination. But after a while this relation proved too straight for it, and it now has broken loose from all denominational connection, and taken to itself a new name,

The Outlook. An able little paper in Minneapolis appears to be passing through an evolution not altogether unlike. The *Northwestern Congregationalist*, now edited by the

Rev. Herbert W. Gleason, was started with the idea of representing Congregationalism in the Northwest. But the paper has recently changed its aim and with it its name. It is now known as *The Kingdom*. It has become the organ of Professor Herron and other Christian socialists. It still endeavors to be the medium of news for the Congregationalists of the Northwest, but it has struck out in a new line and practically has ceased to be a denominational sheet.

The New York Observer is possibly the one Presbyterian paper that while

showing no tendency to break loose from its denomination, yet seeks by a generous attention to themes of general interest to secure a wide constituency. It gives much space to other denominations than its own, and, while conservative in its view, yet lifts itself to a far



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Editor "The Congregationalist." (Boston.)



JAMES R. MILLER, D. D.
Editorial Superintendent Presbyterian Board of Publication
and Sunday School Work. (Philadelphia.)

broader horizon than that of Presbyterianism. This is undoubtedly the tendency of all religious journalism. The problem is to remain a denominational paper and do a denominational work and yet to swing the camera on the whole range of thoughts and deeds in religion. The paper that does this is the most readable and has the largest circulation.

From the first most of the leading papers of both the Congregationalists and Presbyterians have been the unflinching advocates of great moral reforms. They have not only promoted all forms of evangelistic work in their denominations,—missions, the Sunday school, etc.,—but they have stood bravely for truth and righteousness in its broader applications. The Sabbath has been heartily defended. Caste and intemperance have been denounced. Social purity has been insisted on. Gam-



W. C. GRAY, PH. D.
Editor "The Interior" (Chicago.)

bling in its innumerable forms has been condemned.

It is not quite certain what is meant by the modern phrase, "applied Christianity." Much that has just been mentioned might



J. G. MONFORT, LL. D.
Editor "Herald and Presbyterian." (Cincinnati.)

the marriage laws, the improvement of the poor, political matters, and the like. Many of the papers mentioned have given much space to these questions and discussed them with great ability.

But the question is a fair one if in this day there is not too much of a fad for "applied Christianity," so called, in our religious press, and if Canon Fremantle's idea that what we want to promote is a life on earth freed from its present evils, rather than a preparation for a life hereafter, is not in danger of exaggerated emphasis. Already watchmen on the walls are crying out against the secularism of the religious press and it is quite possible they have grounds for their complaint. *The Independent* once declared that in its experience the most difficult thing to secure was a good article on a strictly religious theme. Writers for the religious press, like Dr. T. L. Cuyler and the late Dr. Irenæus Prime, are unfortunately rare. It is far easier to say something fresh and interesting on some semi-political question under general discussion in the daily press than on some simple but profoundly important aspect of a truth in the Bible. But we must remember that the secularization of the religious press, so far as it is a fact, and we believe

be classified under this term. But other things not so distinctly concerned with the ten commandments, not so plainly ethical, are counted under this phrase. Such are the relations of labor and capital, penology, the dispensing of charity,

this charge should not be sweepingly made, is not a matter for which the press alone is to blame. This secularization is general; it is a part of modern life. The religious papers are suffering in common with the churches and with individual Christians. This is not an age of deep religious experiences or of profound theological thought. It is rather an age of material advancement, an age for adjusting innumerable social problems. If our religious papers are sometimes drawn into a vortex, when the church emerges, the newspapers that voice its thoughts will follow.

The two denominations under consideration both have great missionary interests which demand a full and frequent presentation to Christian people. The ordinary denominational press, while it gives large attention to the department of missions, home and foreign, yet cannot do all the great benevolent societies deem necessary. Each denomination, therefore, has special papers with an appropriate editor for these special phases of work. The Sunday school work of the Congregationalists involves the preparing of a large amount of material in books and periodicals. The editor of these is Mr. M. C. Hazard. The editor of the Sunday school publications of the northern body of Presbyterians is the Rev. J. R. Miller, D.D., a well-known writer on religious themes. Among the Congregationalists the various missionary societies still issue their individual publications. The question of combination has been often mooted, but never agreed upon. The Rev. Dr. Elnathan Strong edits the *Missionary Herald* for the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions. Rev. M. E. Strieby, D.D., edits the publications of the American Missionary Association. The Rev. Dr. A. Huntington Clapp edits the monthly of the Home Missionary Society. The Presbyterians (North) manage the matter differently.

They publish an official monthly magazine called the *Church at Home and Abroad*. The Rev. H. A. Nelson, D.D., is the editor. This magazine is published by the order of the General Assembly under the supervision of a committee appointed for the purpose.

Eight editorial correspondents, one for each of the missionary boards of the denomination and appointed by it to represent its work, supply information respectively concerning Home Missions, Foreign Missions, Education for the Ministry, Publication and Sunday School Work, Church Election, Ministerial Relief, Missions for Freedmen and Aid to Colleges and Academies.

A new monthly paper has just been started by vote of the General Assembly of

1894, edited by the Rev. Rufus Greene, D.D., and the Rev. Wm. H. Hubbard. This is designed to furnish missionary in-



M. C. WILLIAMS, D. D.
Editor "The Mid-Continent." (St. Louis.)



JAMES G. MERRILL, D. D.
Editor "Christian Mirror." (Portland, Me.)

telligence. It already has a circulation of 100,000 copies. Besides those just mentioned, both Presbyterians and Congregationalists have several small publications,

some for women, some for children, which circulate widely.

A certain daily paper has recently taken the ground in an editorial leader that the religious press is losing its circulation,



REV. H. W. GLEASON.
Editor "The Kingdom." (Minneapolis.)

because the daily press gives so much attention to religious news. This is undoubtedly a fallacy. The daily press, while giving much attention to religious matters, for which we should be thankful, certainly does not begin to furnish in detail and exactness the news provided by the religious press.

It is a serious question whether all is done that can be done and should be done to promote the general reading of religious newspapers. Religious journalism is a mighty power for good, but it might be made far greater. The circulation should be very much larger. Not a church-going family in the land should be without its religious paper. The circulation of our religious papers is for the most part pitifully small. There are only two Congregational papers and nineteen Presbyterian which are represented as having a circulation of over 10,000, while the circulation of all the Congregational papers combined is not probably over 75,000, and that of the Presbyterians in all their branches about 250,000. In this enumeration no account is taken of missionary and official publications or of local church papers. We consider only

the ordinary circulation of religious journals.

But the figures just given yield a somewhat surprising result. Among the members of Presbyterian churches there is one paper taken to every five; among the Congregationalists one to every seven. It is probable that the Congregationalists read religious papers quite as largely as the Presbyterians, but as they are less denominational in feeling they read more of the undenominational papers. *The Independent* and *The Outlook*, not to speak of others never affiliated with the Congregationalists, have a large circulation in the denomination. But making all needful allowance, and supposing that one in five in each denomination reads a religious paper, is this as well as it should be? Among the Congregationalists there is an average of one and a half church members to every family. If this supposition holds among the Presbyterians as well, then among the Presbyterians and Congregationalists on a rough estimate there is a



R. O. MALLARD, D. D.
Editor "Southwestern Presbyterian." (New Orleans.)

religious paper taken by only one Christian family in four. Beyond question there is a great missionary work to be done in extending the circulation of our religious papers. The circulation ought to be four times as great.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

"FOR THE DEAREST."

A VALENTINE STORY.

BY EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER.

I.

SHE was sitting alone in her room. The fire in the grate made a whispering sound, and the rain beat lightly against the windows, the soft, life-giving rain that was wakening the sleeping earth. But she heard neither the beat of the rain nor the whisper of the fire, as she sat before the white-draped toilet table, her thin, wistful face framed in her slender hands. The eyes that looked steadily into the mirror before them were dark and beautiful but sunken from the delicate brows; the cheek that still had rose-leaf tints, showed lines about the mouth and temples, and the chin had lost its perfect curve and smooth firmness.

"I am an old woman," she said slowly, and the tears welled up in her eyes, blurred the image before her, and ran unheeded down her face.

She was not poor; she did not look neglected; she had comforts and even luxuries about her, but her heart was aching for love that could not do without her—such love as once made her life rich.

She was not a weak woman; she was strong and brave and self-reliant. She had her work, and she did it well, with a certain satisfaction in the doing and the ability to do, but just then it all seemed empty and valueless, and an unspeakable burden. What she longed for was the insignificant round of daily duties that once made up love's ministry to lives that no longer needed her ministrations. Little by little it had ended, and she had scarcely realized it, any more than she had thought of the passing of youth, and now, all at once, she saw that both were gone.

On the table beside her was a little rose-wood box, its contents overflowing as rib-

bons had been untied and letters pulled from their envelopes. Out of this innocent casket, with its faint scent of violets and dried geranium leaves, had stolen the spirit of longing and unrest that had taken possession of her. She could not tell what had prompted her to unlock and explore it, unless it was that walking hurriedly along the street she had seen two children hand in hand before a shop window, absorbed in rapturous admiration of the gayly painted valentines. She gave them only a passing glance, but she went home and opened the box, bringing up from the very bottom a packet of valentines. There was nothing artistic about them: lace-paper, filigree, tinsel, and enameled birds and flowers, all rather crude and soiled by much handling. What queer, cramped little letters on the envelopes! One could almost see the chubby fingers struggling with the pen, and the mother's lips quivered as she kissed the straggling superscription. Blessed days, when her sun rose and set over her own small, happy world!

This one she did not need to open—she knew it by heart—but she craved the dear pain of looking at it again. Just a tiny bunch of violets pinned against the page, and under it,

"For the dearest, the sweetest, the prettiest."

It was a firm bold hand that had written the line, but under it was the child's signature, all aslant, as if the burden of love were too heavy for it.

The valentines fell in a heap from her trembling fingers. What love and thought and tenderness had been hers, and now it was all gone! Death had stolen it and Time. She did not rebel at Death. She knew where he kept his treasures, and she was only waiting to claim her own again

some day. But Time! Who could give her back what he had taken?—the clinging hands, the soft, sweet kisses, the warm breath on her cheek, the endless questions, the confident appeal of undoubting love.

Once she had been their world—now she felt she was not even a part of it.

II.

He stood by his office window, a young man just beginning to realize that he should soon be across the further boundary of youth. Outside, in the little park, the grass was freshening under the patches of melting snow, and the leaf-buds on the shrubs showed tips of pale green through the brown wrappings. A flock of noisy sparrows were gossiping in the hedge, and a blue-jay sunned his splendid plumage on a Norway spruce by the window, turning his head fearlessly to note the watcher within. What a ring of barbaric delight there was in the scream with which he defied the world, and what a senseless fury it stirred in the breasts of his small brown neighbors down below. With what a kingly disregard of their flurry he moved from perch to perch, and shot swiftly away on some high errand of his own.

The watcher followed the vanishing flash of blue, and his thoughts kept straight on, beyond the carefully trimmed cedars, beyond the provident oaks that were holding fast to their rusty brown cloaks until they could make sure of fresh suits, beyond the hills that showed in a blue line across the river, into another world: the world of yesterday, when robins built in the apple trees, and chipping-birds in the syringas at the old homestead; when there was always a cat-bird's nest in the bristling thicket of barberry bushes, and the orioles repaired year after year the swaying pouch of horsehair and gray fiber that dangled from the elm beyond the reach of venturesome marauders; when the martins made a populous city of the box on the tall pole, and the wrens tilted and blustered on the balcony railing, as if the music in their small bodies fairly lifted them off their feet; when the cedar-birds in coats of brown satin swooped down

upon the cherries, and the yellow-birds feasted on the wild hemp, and the lettuce, gone to seed in the garden; when the happy denizens of the home knew all the ways and wiles of their innocent comrades and loved every feather of their beautiful, palpitating bodies; when they watched for their coming and going, and were as much excited over the arrival of the first bluebird as if it had been a princess from Spain, or an archduke from Austria. Ah, how it all came back, this world of yesterday, with the flash of a bird's wings!

He went out upon the street still musing. He lingered a little in the park, enjoying the strong, healing smell of the balsam firs, stirring up the wet leaves with his cane to shake out the earthy odor, and wondering vaguely if he heard a bluebird that morning, or only dreamed it, when he was half awake. Then he turned toward the florist's shop on the corner. The shop was narrow and crowded, and the florist himself was small and pale and hollow-chested, but just as the homely room ran over with fragrance and delicate color, so the beauty of the man's soul filled his poor body and shone like a light through his pallid face. He nodded silently to his visitor, and went on filling a basket with deep-hued, fragrant violets, his long slender hands touching them with a deftness born as much of love as training.

"These are what I want," said the visitor, lifting a handful of the lovely things, and holding them near his face without the vulgarity at which the florist always shuddered, of thrusting his nose among them.

"These are for a valentine," said the florist smiling: "a lover sends them to his sweetheart. I have seen her, and they are like her; sweet and delicate, and unobtrusive. I think they have a soul, these violets. Some flowers thrust themselves upon you—you cannot get away from them—but violets have much more than sweetness—they have the breath of something you have known before—it is like a memory—a memory of music—or of love—"

"Yes," said the visitor dreamily; "it is a memory of love."

Before him rose a picture of a woman

kneeling to pull away the dead leaves from a garden-bed, and exulting over the buds in their green hoods snuggled close to the warm friendly earth. He had forgotten all about the tiny bunch pinned upon the valentine that had seemed to his childish thought so magnificent. It is only mothers who keep such things, and ponder them in their hearts.

III.

SHE was still alone. The whisper of the fire was hushed, and only a little gray film fluttered above the red coals, as if a faint pulse stirred them. The clouds had emptied themselves of rain, and a sudden sun-burst made every bare twig on the leafless trees show in clear lines against the black distance. The room was filled with a wonderful fragrance, pervasive but delicate, that floated up from the box open on the woman's knees. The wrappings lay upon the floor where her eager fingers had dropped them, and her eyes gazed hungrily into the inner casket, where

on a satiny bed of palest green lay heaped a mass of purple violets—just such violets as used to grow in the garden-borders, brave, contented little blossoms—but it was not so much the violets that stirred the blessed tears. It was a fair white card bearing a beloved name and on it was written

"For the dearest."

She sat there a long time with a happy smile on her wet face, and no one could have told what visions she saw. But at last she gathered up the violets and put them in a vase, only leaving a few for the card to rest upon. Then she took the valentine with its dry withered flowers, and yellow crumpled paper, and laid that too in the casket, stopping to read again its legend,

"For the dearest, the sweetest, the prettiest."

She looked once more into the mirror, as she pinned some violets on her bosom, and this time her eyes were smiling.

"The rest does not matter," she said triumphantly, "since I am still *the dearest*."

THE SENSIBLE VIEW OF MARRIAGE.

BY LUCY BARNARD COPE.

MARRIAGE is the foundation of true civilization; it is the guaranty upon which social credit finally rests and out of which every authentic inference in favor of a permanent political future is drawn. Orators, sentimentalists, and poets have been fond of saying that home is the corner-stone of human happiness; but marriage antedates the home. Even the birds know this and mate before they begin to build.

The imperious economy of nature cannot be hidden under generalizing phrases, nor can we dodge it by any shift of cleverness. Through marriage we are born and we are born to marry; any other thought is an offense to morals and a revolt against life. Why not look this great fact in the face and see its real beauty, its necessity, and its tremendous importance?

Romance is properly a part of life and

wholesome in its place; but marriage is a reality as solid as a granite boulder and as delicately beautiful as a rose in bloom. To make a romance of it and not to realize its concrete substance lays the groove in which runs the world's main current of unhappiness. Marriage is never a failure; it is a romantic or otherwise unreal simulation of it that fails.

There can be no sensible view of marriage save with open eyes. Our children are too generally permitted to grow up to manhood and womanhood without ever having clearly understood that matrimony means much more than a jolly wedding party followed by a honeymoon. The groom has his dress coat and his traveling bag ready; the bride shows her trousseau to her dearest girl friends and then we hear the bells. But in how many cases is there a serious and candid consideration of the

significance and far-reaching import of the fact we call marriage?

More and more young people are taking from fascinating books of fiction a fictitious measure of the duties of husband, wife, father, and mother. Our bookstalls are loaded with novels that give forth an insidious influence which is meant to disintegrate the social and domestic substances and replace them with an airy contempt for all binding marital duties.

We cannot deny fiction to our children; but we might well direct their judgment, by judicious home criticism, so as to make the way easy to a high regard for the responsibilities, as well as for the pleasures, of the married state.

We hear young men say, "I am too poor to get married," and girls, "The man I marry must be rich." These remarks appear harmless, and they may have a certain business shrewdness behind them; still the larger truth is that the speakers most often do not take an honest view of marriage, no matter how honorable may be their purposes. Money cannot insure happiness, and long experimenting in the countries of Europe has shown that mating for wealth is the sure road to a lax and immoral domestic economy.

It would seem that the sensible view to take of marriage is that it consummates

life for the poor and the rich, the vulgar and the refined; that no single life is the perfect life. The future of mankind depends almost wholly upon happy marriages and healthy offspring. And this suggests that there should be no marrying of unsound people. Greater selfishness cannot be imagined than that which brings children into the world doomed to a life of immitigable misery, the hereditament of those who bear their parents' burden of disease.

Shall we say that questions arise in this connection too delicate for discussion with young persons? Is it better to leave the discussion to be raised after it is too late?

The sensible view of marriage is the view that comprehends every consequence. To the young people looking forward to a long and happy wedded life it is of vital importance that no element of the subject shall be a mystery, that nothing connected with the matrimonial venture shall be left to the hazard of chance.

Parents must understand that their children are to be parents, that there is no escape from the responsibility and that education is incomplete and training inadequate which does not qualify for paternity and maternity. The young man and the young woman who are fitted for marriage are fitted for all that a healthy, courageous, and happy life demands or imposes.

WOMEN FRUIT FARMERS IN CALIFORNIA.

BY ANTOINETTE VAN HOESEN WAKEMAN.

IN that land of many climates and ever recurring surprises, California, where gray-green olive trees a hundred years old stand guard over decaying missions that mark the early beginning of a romantic civilization, there has opened, with the passing away of that civilization and the development of horticulture, a new and lucrative occupation for women. Scattered all through the state, in the valleys and among the foot hills and even on the mountain sides are women conducting fruit farms ranging in extent from five to five hundred acres.

As long ago as 1877 Mrs. Jennie Carr demonstrated what a woman could do in developing and conducting a fruit farm in southern California. Her husband's failing health made it necessary for her to become the bread winner. The uplands at the western end of the San Gabriel Valley are known, because the Indians called them so, as "The Key of the Valley." From these heights the view to eastward is superb. Here Mrs. Carr purchased forty-three acres and, although it was a farm, proceeded to lay it out quite like a landscape garden. She

planted all sorts of fruits and flowers and nuts and a great number of varieties of each. When she had them planted she knew what to do with them to make them thrive for she had been a close, scientific student of nature all her life. This farm is now a part of one of the most beautiful avenues of Pasadena, but long before it had been cut up into town lots Mrs. Carr had demonstrated not only what a woman can do in the line of horticulture in California but that almost every sort of fruit and nut known to commerce could be successfully grown there. This is true not only of the southern but of the northern part of the state, for in California climate is not a matter of latitude but of mountains. The situation of valleys in reference to the sea, which all along this coast is warmed by the Japanese Current, and to the near lying mountain ranges determines the climate. Often a distance of a few miles marks a radical climatic difference and in a number of localities in the northern part of the state tropical fruits are as successfully grown as in the southern portion.

Because horticulture is essentially a home-making industry, and, whether conducted on a large or small scale, is made successful by skill of hand, a quick eye, and nicety of perception, it is an occupation expressly suited to women. Particularly is this true where it is easy to get the rough, hard work done without having the laborers in any way connected with the household. Whatever may be said of Chinese labor it certainly has its advantages. Throughout the fruit growing districts of California, Chinamen live in little colonies cultivating a few acres of ground on their own account, to which they devote themselves when their services are not required by the ranch owners, who depend on them for a certain amount of work and on whom they depend for a large proportion of their income. In many of these little colonies of Chinamen, in fact in most of them, there are no women. The men not only do all their own work but that of their white neighbors whether it is washing or plowing, for a Chinaman, whatever his shortcomings, is master of the gospel of self-help. This solution of the labor problem not only makes

straight the path of the woman horticulturist in a practical way but it enables her, once her trees are in bearing, to command much leisure and to cultivate all the amenities of life.

This reminds me of a ranch—everything is a ranch in California whether it is one acre or several hundred—in the Santa Clara Valley, which was planted and is conducted by a woman, that as one approaches it gives the impression not of a little farm carried on for profit but of a country place kept for the sole pleasure of its owner. Over the arching entrance of the driveway that leads from the main road to the house is printed in large gilt letters, "Sunny Brae," which is the appropriate name that the owner has given her small prune ranch. The house, a pretty, commodious structure, when I saw it in February of last year, was quite covered on one side with a climbing rose, crimson with blossoms. The grounds about the house are hedged in with roses, not common varieties but La France, Catherine Mermet, and Jacqueminots. Fancy a hedge of La France roses from which one can cut an armful of blossoms without being able to see that any have been taken! It quite realizes Lady Teazle's wish that it were "spring all the year round with roses growing under our feet."

Among the many beautiful trees and shrubs in these grounds is an acacia over forty feet high, which was, when I saw it, golden with tasseling blossoms. It was planted a tiny twig thirteen years ago by the woman who took this land fresh from the hand of nature and has made it a veritable garden of delight. I am sure that in my whole life I never inhaled such a bouquet of rich and rare odors as pervaded the air about "Sunny Brae" on that day in early February. There was the Daphne, the evergreen laurel of Apollo, with its mixed refreshing fragrance, the sweet, elusive perfume of the almond, the rich heavy sweetness of orange blossoms mingled with the scent of roses and the fresh mountain and sea air. Within the house on every hand were the insignia of up to date culture and refinement.

Such was the home which a widow and

her daughter made for themselves by carefully cultivating twenty acres of prune trees, which last year brought them a net return of \$3,000. It is true that this return was something more than an average but from \$1,500 to \$2,000 income per annum can be confidently counted on from a twenty-acre prune orchard. From the fact that a holding of from twenty to thirty acres of bearing orchard brings so large a revenue, the wide areas which separate farmers in grain-growing districts is practically unknown among California horticulturists. The Santa Clara Valley for example, which is seventy miles in length, is more like a scattered village than a farming country. There are schools and churches and pleasant society quite as there is in an eastern town. In fact a large proportion of the people here are from the east.

Lest what I have written of a few acres and opulence in the beautiful Santa Clara Valley which lies within a divide of the Coast Range, be misleading, I hasten to say that what the owner of "Sunny Brae" has accomplished cannot be achieved without wisely directed and persistent effort, years of waiting, and some money to begin with. But the result is certainly worth the work, waiting, and investment. The land of this small ranch was bought in the beginning for \$60 per acre but cannot now be purchased even if it were unimproved, for three times that sum. There are, however, other lands that are, if not quite as desirably situated, no less productive, that are for sale for a reasonable sum.

The most serious difficulty that women have to overcome in establishing themselves as horticulturists in California is the length of time they must wait before they get any returns from their investment. It takes from three to five years for an orchard to come into bearing after it is planted and during this time it of course must be cared for. I know several women who belong to what is known as the Kenwood Colony, which is located in the picturesque, fruitful little Los Guilicos Valley, near Santa Rosa in Sonoma County; who while their orchards are growing are meeting their expenses by raising chickens and selling eggs. Hens are not a success

in most localities in California, as they are afflicted with parasites and various diseases and therefore the demand in the San Francisco market is always in excess of the home supply. Sonoma County is almost the only place in the state where hens thrive and lay well and for that reason hen farming in that locality is exceptionally profitable.

Another woman, one of the Kenwood Colonists, is living on her ranch with her children and looking after her growing orchard while her husband is working for their support in the Illinois Steel Works at South Chicago until such time as the returns from their little fruit farm will justify his joining her. A number of teachers in the vicinity of Chicago have purchased land in this same valley and pay a friend who has land adjoining theirs to care for their orchards until the bearing time, when they intend to give up teaching and devote themselves to horticulture.

There are, by the way, a large number of retired teachers among the women fruit farmers of California and they are almost invariably successful. There is quite a colony that was located by Nathan Cornell in the foothills of the Santa Cruz mountains, successfully raising the late fruits that command such high prices at Christmas.

Most of the land companies that are locating colonies, plant orchards and deliver them in good condition for, say, \$140 per acre. Arrangements can be made with the company to care for orchards until they come into bearing and in this way many workingwomen are securing homes for their declining years. Up in Tehama County, a short distance from the famous Mount Shasta, Mrs. Lewington has established what is known as the "Cottonwood Colony." Although it is but recently founded there are already twenty-seven women who have purchased ranches, have them planted, and propose, as soon as their trees begin to bear, to make Cottonwood their permanent home.

Although small holdings are the rule among women horticulturists of California there are a number who are carrying on fruit farming on a large scale. Among them is Mrs. Eliza P. Buckingham, who has a

ranch of four hundred acres in Vaca Valley which she has planted to deciduous fruits and nuts and it is all in bearing. She calls her place "Lagunita" and so painstaking has she been in packing and shipping her fruit that the Lagunita brand has become one of the most valuable in the market. In order to secure congenial neighbors Mrs. Buckingham purchased a tract of land adjoining her own which she disposes of in small holdings. A number of women have located here who have pretty little homes and are very prosperous. Among them is an artist who devotes the time when she is not occupied with her fruit farm to making etchings which have a ready sale in New York. In this same valley, which is famed for its early fruit, lives Mrs. W. H. Smith, who conducts a large and valuable fruit ranch of several hundred acres on shares. She has had charge of this ranch for some years and is considered one of the best fruit farmers in this part of the state.

Another woman who conducts a large farm in California is Mrs. Harriet B. Strong. She is located near Los Angeles, and has her ranch planted to English walnuts, which while they are a very profitable crop when once they are in bearing are slow of growth. Between the rows of walnut trees she raises pampus grass which she ships to all parts of the world and in this way secures a modest income while her walnut trees are growing.

Fair as is the obverse side of what women can accomplish in the way of fruit farming in California there is, as I have indicated, a reverse side. When the horticulturist has planted and cared for his orchard of various fruits and nuts and it is beginning to bring him a return, there are destructive insects—a variety for each sort of fruit—which are liable to attack the trees at any moment. Then there are high freights, and low prices, and difficulty at picking time in getting skilled and sufficient help.

But these can be overcome. There are sprays and predaceous insects which effectually conquer the insect enemies of the fruit trees. For instance the ladybird, brought from Australia, ate up a certain destructive scale that was ruining all the orange trees in the state. If freights are high and prices low one year the pendulum swings to the other side of the arch the next and the grower is able to strike a fair average. And the obverse is very alluring: There are sapphire, sun-flooded skies; the opulence of the tropics; an abundance of beauty on every hand with the grandeur of mountains as a background; an atmosphere that is an elixir of life; and the certainty of enough to meet all actual needs and usually much more. It is therefore quite natural that the women fruit farmers of California are a satisfied company and that their number is rapidly increasing.

THE LOVE AFFAIRS OF GEORGE WASHINGTON.

BY WILLIAM E. CURTIS.

AMONG the autographic papers of George Washington, purchased of his descendants by the government of the United States, and preserved in the library of the Department of State, are four poems, written in his youth; probably in his seventeenth year. Two of them are undoubtedly original, and are very bad verses. The other two are manifestly copied from some newspaper or magazine, perhaps from a book, without credit or reference to their

authorship. But the boy who wrote the other two could not possibly have written these, as will be seen by the slightest comparison.

One of the original poems has recently been discovered to be an acrostic, which was a fashionable trick of love making in those days, and the initial letters of the lines form the name "Frances Alexa"—the last word evidently being intended for "Alexander." But the poem is unfinished, the remainder

of the page on which it is written being blank. The muse of the youthful poet and lover probably became weary. It reads as follows:

"From your bright sparkling eyes I was undone;
Rays, you have more transparent than the sun,
A midst its glory in the rising Day,
None can you equal in your bright array;
Constant in your calm and unspotted mind;
Equal to all, but will to none Prove kind,
So knowing, seldom one so Young, you'l Find.
Ah! woe 's me, that I should love and conceal
Long have I wished, but never dare reveal
Even though severely Love's Pains I feel;
Xerxes that great was't free from Cupid's Dart,
And all the greatest Heroes, felt the smart."

The traditions of the family indicate that the object of this effusion was Miss Fanny Alexander, a daughter of Captain Philip Alexander, a descendant of the Earl of Stirling from whom the city of Alexandria, Va., was named. The captain owned and lived upon the estate adjoining Mount Vernon on the north. The young lady was two years older than Washington, and was probably his first love. Nothing is known of their courtship further than the evidence furnished by this poem.

"A Journal of My Journey over the Mountains," which was kept by Washington between the 11th of March, and the 13th of April, 1748, when he was a little more than sixteen years old, contains a copy, or perhaps the original draft of a friendly, and rather confidential letter to "Dear Friend Robin," who was undoubtedly a youthful school-fellow, although he has never been identified. The original of this Journal is in the library of the Department of State, having been discovered by Mr. Sparks, the historian, in 1827, when overhauling a chest of old letters and documents at Mount Vernon in search of historical material. In 1834, with a quantity of other papers, it was purchased by Congress, and in 1892 was printed literally with copious and valuable explanatory notes by Dr. J. M. Toner, the accomplished oracle of Washingtonia.

The letter reads as follows:

"My place of Residence is at present at His Lordships* where I might, was my heart disengaged, pass

* Lord Fairfax.

my time very pleasantly, as theres a very agreeable Young Lady Lives in the same house (Col George Fairfax's Wife's Sister) but as thats only adding Fuel to fire it makes me the more uneasy for by often and unavoidably being in company with her revives my former passion for your Lowland Beauty, whereas was I to live more retired from young women I might in some measure elivate my sorrows by burying that chast and troublesome Passion in the grave of oblivion or entarnall forgetfulness for as I am very well assured thats the only antidote or remedy that I ever shall be releivd by or only recess that can administer any cure or help to me as I am well convinced was I ever to attempt anything I should only get a denial which would be only adding grief to uneasiness."

The sister of Mrs. Fairfax, who revived "a former passion" in this youth of sixteen, was Miss Mary Cary, the daughter of Colonel Wilson Cary, for thirty-four years collector of customs at Hampton, Va., and for the lower James River. He was a man of large wealth and aristocratic connections, his eldest daughter having married the cousin of Lord Fairfax and the manager of his American estates, which amounted to more than three million acres.

Bishop Meade in his "Old Churches and Families of Virginia," says that Washington was an ardent admirer of Miss Mary Cary, and at one time asked Col. Cary's permission to pay his addresses to her, but was refused. The young lady afterwards married Mr. Edward Ambler, who was a great swell among the colonial aristocracy, being a graduate of Cambridge and the owner of a large estate near Jamestown. He died in 1768, at the age of thirty-five, and his widow, who survived until 1781, was a frequent guest at Mount Vernon after Washington's marriage, as his diary shows.

About this time Washington wrote another tender letter in which he alludes again to Miss Cary. This was addressed to "Dear Sally," whose other name is unknown, and it reads:

"This comes to Fredericksburg fair in hopes of meeting with a speedy Passage to you if your not there which hope you'l get shortly altho I am almost discouraged from writing to you as this is my fourth to you since I receiv'd any from yourself I hope you'l not make the Old Proverb good out of sight out of Mind as its one of the greatest Pleasures I can yet foresee of having in Fairfax in often hearing

from you hope you'll not deny it me.

I Pass the time of much more agreeabler than what I imagined I should as there's a very agreeable Young Lady lives in the same house where I reside (Col George Fairfax's Wife Sister) that in a great Measure cheats my sorrow and dejectedness tho not so as to draw my thoughts altogether from your Parts I could wish to be with you down there with all my heart but as it is a thing almost Impracticable shall rest myself where I am with hopes of shortly having some Minutes of your transactions in your Parts which will be very welcomely received by Your"

The "Lowland Beauty," to whom Washington so tenderly refers in his letter to "My Dear Robin," is supposed to have been Miss Lucy Grymes, of Westmoreland County, who in 1753 married Henry Lee, Esq., of Stratford Hall, and became the mother of the famous "Light Horse Harry,"—the Custer of the Revolution. Very little is known of Miss Grymes or of Washington's attentions to her. Other writers assume that the Lowland Beauty was Miss Betsy, the daughter of William Fauntleroy of Fredericksburg, Va., who also refused Washington's attentions.

The Fauntleroy family had a fine plantation at Naylor's Hold, on the Rappahannock, about 15 miles from Wakefield, the birth-place of Washington. In 1752 when he was twenty years old, the latter addressed a letter to Mr. Fauntleroy, which has been preserved, asking permission to make a proposal of marriage to his daughter, "in the hope," he says, "of a revocation of a former cruel sentence, and see if I cannot find an alteration in my favor."

This letter was written immediately after his return from the voyage he made to Barbadoes with his brother Lawrence, who was in feeble health at the time, and died soon after. So the "cruel sentence" must have been pronounced before they sailed in September, 1751. The father's reply has not been preserved, but evidently was unfavorable.

This was the most serious love affair Washington ever had, except the later one which ended in his marriage.

The young woman who jilted him afterwards became the wife of Thomas Adams, of Williamsburg. It is a tradition of the town that she married for money instead of

love, and rejected Washington because he had less wealth than her other suitor. It is said, too, that after he became famous and visited the town of Williamsburg as the guest of the people, she watched from a window the triumphal pageant as he passed on horseback through the streets, and fainted.

The home of the Fauntleroy was a magnificent mansion, which stood within a beautiful park overlooking the river, and remained until a few years since when it was pulled down.

To Betsy Fauntleroy was addressed the other original poem, which reads:

"Oh ye Gods why should my Poor Resistless Heart
Stand to oppose thy might and Power
At last surrender to Cupid's feathered Dart
And now lays bleeding every Hour
For her that's Pityless of my grief and woes
And will not on me Pity take
I'll sleep amongst my most inveterate Foes
And with gladness never wish to wake
In deluding sleepings let my eyelids close
That in an enraptured Dream I may
In a soft lulling sleep and gentle repose
Possess those joys denied by Day."

With the volume in which this poem appears, was another, found at the same time and also purchased by the government. It bears the title "Forms of Writing," and contains models of deeds, bonds, contracts, receipts, recipes, bills of sale, manifestoes, and other commercial and legal papers, together with two poems "On Christmas Day," and "True Happiness." These follow a form of a "Subpcena for Evidences to Prove a Will," and immediately after them appears a recipe "To Keep Ink from Freezing or Moulding."

The poems are as follows:

"ON CHRISTMAS DAY.

"Assist me Muse divine! to sing the Morn
On which the Saviour of Mankind was born;
But Oh! what Numbers to the Theme can rise?
Unles kind Angels aid me from the Skies!
Methinks I see the tunefull Host descend,
And with officious Joy the Scene attend.
Hark, by their Hymns directed on the Road,
The Gladsome Shephers find the Nascent GOD!
And view the Infant conscious of his Birth,
Smiling bespeak Salvation to the Earth.

"For when the important Aera first drew near
In which the great Messiah should appear;

And to accomplish his redeeming love,
 Resign awhile his glorious Throne above;
 Beneath our Form should every Woe sustain,
 And by triumphant suffering fix his Reign,
 Should for lost Man in Tortures yield his Breath,
 Dying to save us from eternal Death!
 Oh mystic Union!—Salutary Grace!
 Incarnate God our Nature should embrace!
 That Diety should stoop to our Disguise!
 That man recov'd should regain the skies!
 Dejected Adam! from thy grave ascend,
 And view the Serpents Deadly Malice end:
 Adoring bless th' Almighty's boundless Grace
 That gave his son a Ransome for they Race!
 Oh never let me Soul this Day forget,
 But pay in graittfull praise her Annual Debt,
 When Time, and Sin, and Death"

"TRUE HAPPINESS.

"These are the things, which once possess'd
 Will make a life that's truly Bless'd.
 A Good Estate on Healthy Soil,
 Not got by Vice, nor yet by toil;
 Round a warm Fire, a Pleasant Toke,
 With Chimney over free from Smoke:
 A Strength entire, A Sparkling bowl,
 A quit Wife a quiet Soul,
 A Mind as well as body, whole
 Prudent Simplicity, constant Friends,
 A Diet which no art Commends;
 A Merry Night without much Drinking
 A Happy Thought without much thinking;
 Each Night by Quiet Sleeps made Short
 A Will to be but what thou art:
 Possess'd of these, all else defy
 And Neither wish nor fear to Die
 These are things, which once possess'd
 Will make a life that's truly bless'd."

The latter part of the volume contains the famous "Rules of Civility," by which Washington governed his conduct.

Four years after his affair with Betsy Fauntleroy, Washington became enamored of Miss Mary Phillipse, the daughter of a prominent and wealthy Englishman, Frederick P. Phillipse, who lived in a superb mansion on the bank of the Hudson, near West Point. While on a journey to Boston in 1756 he met this young lady at the house of her brother-in-law, Colonel Beverly Robinson, who lived in the same locality. After a few weeks' acquaintance he proposed to her, and was frankly informed that she was engaged to marry another. The successful suitor was Captain Roger Morris, a companion at arms, who, like Washington, was an aid to General Braddock in the fatal Indian campaign.

Miss Phillipse was two years older than Washington, having been born at Yonkers, July 3, 1730. Her husband fought on the British side during the Revolution, and her family were all royalists. In 1778, Mrs. Morris and her sister Mrs. Robinson were accused of acting as spies for the British, were arrested and imprisoned, and their property was confiscated. It was in the Phillipse house that Benedict Arnold was residing when he betrayed his country, and from their grounds he took the boat which carried him into the British lines when his treachery was discovered. Madame Jumel, the French woman who married Aaron Burr, afterwards purchased the estate and lived upon it.

Two years after Washington was jilted by Miss Phillipse, and when he had just returned from Fort du Quesne, he went to Williamsburg in military dress attended by an orderly. While crossing Williams' Ferry over the Pamunkey River, a branch of the York, he was accosted by a venerable gentleman named Chamberlayn, who had learned his identity, and invited to rest for a while at his house in the neighborhood. Washington at first declined, as his business with the governor at Williamsburg was urgent, but finally consented to stop for dinner. Having arrived at the hospitable mansion, he was introduced to the family and a number of guests, among them a charming and beautiful widow who lived near by. There was a mutual attraction, and instead of departing immediately after dinner, Washington remained through the afternoon, and finally consented to pass the night. In the morning he proceeded upon his way, and having transacted his business at Williamsburg, returned to Mr. Chamberlayn's and spent several days.

The beautiful widow was Martha Dandridge Custis, the daughter of John Dandridge, whose husband, Daniel Parke Custis, died a year or so previous, leaving her two children, and a large fortune in lands and money. She was born in New Kent County in 1732, was married at seventeen, and when Washington first met her was twenty-six years old, and in the richest bloom of womanhood. She had a fine residence at Williams-

burg—"the six chimney house" it was called—and a plantation near the city, with \$100,000 of bonds and mortgages in her strong box. It is said that the day after she accepted Washington she planted a yew tree in the garden behind the "six chimney house," a symbol of devotion and constancy.

The marriage took place at the residence of the bride on the 17th of January, 1759—about six months after the first meeting—and the ceremony was followed by a reception. Washington was attending a session of the House of Burgesses at Williamsburg, then the capital of Virginia, and at its close removed with his wife and her two little children to Mount Vernon.

In the following September he wrote his cousin Richard, declining an invitation to visit England:

"I am now, I believe, fixed at this seat, with an

agreeable consort, for life. And hope to find more happiness in retirement than I ever experienced amidst a wild bustling world."

The unsatisfied yearning to have children of his own was frequently disclosed in his diary, and in letters to friends, but Washington was devoted to his stepchildren, and loved to have little "Patsy" and Nellie Custis at his side.

The engraving which first appeared among a collection of "the ladies of the republican court," many years ago, and was afterwards hung in the "best room" of so many thousands of households as that of Washington's wife, was really a portrait of Betty Lewis, his sister, and the original, with a companion piece by the same artist, of her husband, Mr. Fielding Lewis, still belongs to the family of Colonel Lewis W. Washington, and hangs in the parlor of their mansion "Marmion."

BIRDS OF PASSAGE.

BY DR. WILHELM HAACKE.

TRANSLATED FROM "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "DAHEIM."

IN late summer and fall, when the days become shorter and the nights cooler, when the wind blows over the stubble and the grapes begin to ripen, a large number of feathered singers leave the woods and gardens, the fields and brooks of the fatherland which they have made their home during the spring and summer, to seek other climes. They are accompanied on their southward trip by other wanderers, that, though they do not charm us with lovely tunes, are yet well known and well liked on German commons. From the north come birds that either spend a large share of the year in Germany, or, as birds of passage, merely stop here to brood, then continue their journey to their winter retreats in the Mediterranean countries or in Africa. But many birds that brood in Germany remain with us all the year, even during the inclement months, and thus we are able to distinguish between summer and winter birds, birds of passage and all-the-year-round birds.

Of the questions that arise, we will try at least to answer why, during the winter, birds of passage forsake the places where they brood, and what shows them the way to the milder south; but these questions, especially the latter, are among the greatest mysteries of the whole animal world, which, though they have occupied the attention of the oldest authors, cannot be much better explained by modern investigators than by the son of the wilderness or the thinker of classic antiquity.

The cause of autumn migration is doubtless in many cases a diminution of food upon the approach of winter, when many insect-eating birds especially are not able to find suitable nourishment in sufficient quantities. Lack of food has much more to do, in all cases, with bird-migration than wintry weather, although usually the latter is considered the chief factor of yearly migrations; but experiments have shown that the cold affects birds very little. In

winter time, at our zoölogical gardens, Australian birds and other feathered natives of extremely warm countries have hatched their young outdoors in spite of snow and ice; which would show that it is not the cold that hinders the birds' performance of their chief mission, but that they can rear their young when proper and abundant food is obtainable. From this fact we may suppose that our German summer birds would not desert us if they found here in winter food of the proper quantity and quality.

But why do not those birds that spend their winters on the sunny coasts of the Mediterranean or in the rank forests and savannas of Africa, remain there throughout the year? It cannot be a lack of food that drives them northward again. Indeed scarcely any reason can be found to account for their return other than a passionate love for the home of their birth, for a bird has a great attachment to the place of its fledglinghood, its courtship, and old age. Birds that are recognizable by some peculiarity, such as cuckoos with a false call, or other birds of passage marked by a white feather in wing or tail, have been found to return regularly for many years to the same abode; and the stork's attachment to its nest is proverbial. Consequently, love for their native place may be the underlying cause of the spring migration of birds, while lack of food in the winter may account for that in the fall.

But what tells the birds in the fall that it is time for their departure and in the spring that their home return need no longer be delayed? Whether or not the weather has something to do with the departure of the birds is uncertain. Occasionally the return of swallows or nightingales may be retarded by bad weather, but many seabirds return to their breeding places with calendar-like regularity. Whether the weather is calm or stormy, warm or cold, the puffins of the northern seas are found at their breeding places as punctually as if their migrations were regulated by clockwork. Now, whether these birds have traveled a long way to their summer stations, we do not know, but other birds that it is certain come from a

great distance, arrive at their nesting places with scarcely less punctuality. Likewise many birds depart with remarkable regularity. For this regularity of migration there is only one explanation that is at all plausible. It is that possibly the position of the afternoon sun, more possibly the location of the morning sun when it appears over the horizon and the place where it vanishes again at night, tell the birds that the day for their migration has come.

Even if we might hope some day to ascertain the fundamental principles and motives for bird migration, science offers very slight prospect of ever disclosing what tells the birds their way.

The distinguished Russian naturalist and traveler, Von Middendorff, observed that the direction of migration of most Siberian birds in the spring is toward the Taimoor Peninsula, where is found one of the magnetic poles of the earth. He therefore concluded that it must be the earth's magnetic currents that showed the migrating birds their way. But the direction of birds' flight in other countries did not substantiate this explanation. In North America, for example, the spring migration does not take place in the direction of the magnetic pole. We therefore cannot accept this explanation.

Professor Möbius has conjectured that birds which undertake extended journeys across the sea are guided by the direction of the billows' rolling. That this is possible, at least for calm sea regions, whose billows always follow one direction, cannot be denied, but for the stormy waters of the north Atlantic ocean, where the wind blows with great irregularity from all points of the compass, a regular direction of the billows cannot be the explanation; indeed it is not supposable that the American gold-ringed pipers that come to the Bermuda Islands with great punctuality find a reliable guide in the mere succession of waves.

Nor does Middendorff's conjecture that birds possess a special sense of locality, seem to bear much light on the question. Many wild tribes possess a sense of locality that is incomprehensible to Europeans;

because it is not known what the external points of observation are that direct these children of nature on their way, knowledge that we must have before man's sense of locality can help us answer our question. When Middendorff by questioning the Samojeds in regard to the means that enable them to find a certain direction on the endless tundras, tried to find an explanation for the sense of location among animals, the people looked in blank astonishment at his queries, such a common thing as recognizing a certain way on the tundras being to them axiomatic. Finally they baffled him by the question: What teaches the little Arctic fox to find its way over the endless tundras? Thus Middendorff was immediately referred back to animals when he tried to learn about their sense of locality by studying the same trait in men.

Pigeon specialists assert that the carrier pigeon can find its way back only when it knows the region well enough to recognize landmarks. The routes of migrating birds have been made an object of investigation by many naturalists, foremost among whom may be mentioned the Swedish bird student Palmén. One of the routes goes along the valley of the Rhine, and from there over to the valley of the Rhone; at the Mediterranean Sea it divides, one arm stretching to the west coast of Italy and Sicily, a second to Corsica and Sardinia, and a third follows the south coast of France and the east coast of Spain, all three continuing to Africa.

In order to make Palmén's many different routes of passage conform with the great regularity of the migrations, it must be remembered that each variety of bird goes its own path, and that these paths become one only when the different varieties of migrating birds happen to meet. If birds follow landmarks in their flight, then each variety has its own landmarks.

The thought that landmarks indicate the route is plausible enough, and it is even more plausible that young birds learn the exact route from the old birds. In regard to the latter point Palmén assures us that migrating birds are led by the older and stronger individuals, and that the birds and

other animals who lose their way are young ones of the last season, who never before have taken the journey. The accuracy of the observation that the strongest birds lead the way, granted, it is not yet established that the oldest birds are the foremost. It has been more apparent that the young birds of many species precede their parents in the fall migration, their first journey southward.

But there are birds which do not migrate in flocks. While swallows set out from Europe in great swarms, other birds of passage leave us quietly, each individual at his own risk. Neither does the same species of bird always travel in one established mode. The field larks that appeared in the fall on the northwest coast of England straggled along in successive groups instead of coming in a massed flock; but a little while later the selfsame variety of birds left the British Isles in immense swarms, on their way south.

It is indeed possible that every bird found on the passage follows unintentionally its fellows who have preceded him; but in a long journey across the sea it would not be easy for the straggler to keep his friends in view. It may certainly be believed that the bird that leads a flock may previously have found its way back; but not all birds of passage fly in swarms. Besides it has been ascertained years ago and again lately that the young of many varieties of birds, having been separated from the older birds, migrate, and by another route than was pursued by the older birds. How could those departed give a knowledge of the way to those inexperienced in traveling?

It must therefore be supposed that knowledge of the route for migration must be inherited. Yet little would be gained by granting this supposition, for many, if not indeed most, birds fly so high that they could scarcely make sure of anything on the route. According to Gätke, who observed the migration of birds for half a century at Heligoland, birds when once fairly launched at good speed, fly at such a great height that river valleys, even of the Rhine and the Rhone, and divisions of land

such as Corsica and Sardinia, must to their sight have diminished in size almost to the vanishing point. But that birds can fly at the height of five thousand meters and more, is certain.

It has been said that the intense cold prevailing in the upper strata of the air would prevent birds from flying at such heights. But most birds can endure intense cold. Its feathers keep the bird warm, and if occasionally the feet and legs of imprisoned birds freeze, that does not show that cold would be of great injury to flying birds. Observation has at least shown that birds fly high on their migrations.

There are birds that apparently do not need to look carefully for the right way, since they hurry off in a single flight across the whole breadth of Europe. Furthermore, varieties of birds are known that make their migrations at night, and seldom come to a stop on the whole trip from their brooding place to their winter retreat. Opinions against these conclusions may be rife; but doubters will be silenced when they recall that in New Zealand there live cuckoos of which it is known that they make no rest in their migration, since they have the wide ocean to fly over which separates New Zealand from New Guinea, their winter resort.

In fact observations, and especially those made by the renowned Gätke in Heligoland, that bird observatory, prove that bird migration is conducted not only at remarkable heights, but also with astonishing rapidity. He found that migrating hooded crows in the autumn passed over Heligoland from 8 a. m. until 2 p. m. Moreover it was well established that birds of this kind arrived on the coast of Lincolnshire, in England, between 11 a. m. and 5 p. m. If the birds arriving at England were the same that left Heligoland on the day stated, they must have traveled about thirty miles in an hour. Some have indeed doubted whether it is possible for crows to do this; but Gätke has ascribed to other birds on the wing a much greater fleetness. He believes that the blue-throated warbler flies in nine hours from Mildelta to Heligoland, and he has

established beyond objection that curlews, fen-snipes and plovers make the stretch from Heligoland to the oyster bed westward of the island, a distance of a German mile, in a single minute, which would be at the rate of sixty German miles an hour. Birds that fly with such rapidity know their way and are not obliged to look out for landmarks.

If one still desires an explanation for the great mystery of bird migration, there being nothing else that will answer, he will have to accept the theory of hereditary knowledge, a knowledge of the unfailing stars. The Great Bear and Orion appeared at the same time in our region, even when the divisions of land and water were very different than they are to-day. That the stars are the guides for birds, agrees with the fact that they fly at remarkable heights, often above the clouds and that wanderers lose their way when they stray into clouds and mists.

On starlight nights straggling birds are seldom noticed. When the sky is overcast, when the night is dark, but especially when a fine rain is falling, multitudes of traveling birds are heard. Then they call often, doubtless for the purpose of keeping near each other; and often great numbers of them bound against the windows of light-houses. Thus Gätke has observed that on October 28, 1882, from ten o'clock at night till the next morning, golden-crested wrens bumped like snowflakes against the lighthouse of Heligoland, and that on the following day golden-crested wrens sat on every square foot of Heligoland.

Toward the end of the summer, along into the fall, it was not a rare occurrence on dark nights to see, through the light of street lamps, birds flying over inland cities. The experienced observer recognizes by its call the curlew and the strand-snipe, sea-swallow and sea-gull, and occasionally hears even the flap of wings. But no bird is visible in the darkness. On dark nights no stars appear; then it is that the straying bird loses his way. The stars are the most plausible guides to birds in their migrations. But only the future can tell us whether they really serve in that capacity.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

THE DRAMA AND THE NOVEL.

WHATEVER may be the objections to novel-reading and to attendance upon theatrical performances, the novel and the drama are probably permanent forces in civilization and must be so regarded. In some form or other fiction has always been attractive to the human imagination and has never failed to influence it. A story of tragedy or comedy, an epic or a lyric of life, appeals to an elemental taste which neither ignorance nor culture can obliterate. There is doubtless a principle at the bottom of this general truth which demands universal recognition and respect and the sooner we meet the conditions of it with liberal intelligence the better off we shall be.

Viewed broadly the drama is but a novel arranged and fitted for realistic, personal presentation on the stage; it is a romance or society story to be set forth in imitation of life in the concrete by persons representing the imaginary actors, instead of being read and so realized in the abstract. Thus regarded the play is the novel reduced to example, as we might say, and set before us in flesh and blood. It is a poem materialized, a romance exemplified by application to life, a novel of manners and morals made real by actual exhibition.

It would seem that whatever harm or good can come of indulging in a taste for fiction must be referred to the nature of the particular case in hand and not to any sweeping objection or favorable accounting applicable to fiction in general. We all read Shakespeare and Dickens; but some of us who read them strenuously object to seeing even the best of Shakespeare's plays presented on the stage. We permit our children to study Chaucer and yet recoil from letting them see much cleaner stories than the Canterbury Tales, absolutely clean stories indeed, when acted to the life.

Perhaps it is time that we adapt our vision to a new light and take intelligent cognizance of what the drama and the novel should be

and of what should be our attitude regarding them. Certainly it is too late to think of abolishing them, and the most inveterate and indiscriminate play-goer and novel-reader will admit that reform is needed. It would seem that there must be a safe middle ground whereon thoughtful and right-minded people can come together to use their influence for a pure spirit in the production of the novel and the drama so that the power exerted by fiction on the stage and in books shall not be destructive of high morals and subversive of good manners.

ARE THE CHURCHES NEGLECTING THE POOR?

THIS is a question which may be answered in both ways because the word *poor* has become very indefinite; there are poor and poor. Nine tenths, at least, of the persons who compose our churches are poor and not less than one tenth are poor enough to be relieved in trying seasons by their brethren. If we employ another term and say working people, it can hardly be doubted that the majority of them attend churches. We cannot divide by saying "the church and the masses," for the masses are in the church; if they are not, church statistics are all wrong. So that whether we say poor, working people or masses, the churches cannot be said to neglect them *as a body*. Many persons belonging to these classes *are* neglected. The extent of the neglect cannot be measured precisely, nor need it be; for the nature of the neglect, the quality of it, and the causes of it, more nearly concern us.

Every church *tends* to be a social club; the tendency seldom goes to its goal, but it is always at work. The thoroughly bad habit of wearing the best clothes to church, the expectation of a certain smartness and fashionableness in the dress of a congregation, draws a line against people who are shabby and have not grace enough to

forget it and forgive their brethren for being better dressed. It is true that there is a kind of piety in clean and fresh clothing; and many would blush to appear in the Lord's house clothed in office or kitchen garments. This brand of piety has some claims to respect; in many hearts it is associated very closely with the proprieties of sincere worship. But it does tend to exclude the man with a shabby coat and his wife with her last year's bonnet. If we went to church in everyday attire, we should look less like a smart social club and some of the poor would worship with us in a more comfortable frame of mind; some other poor would not stay away. Still, a large company of poor people would be missed.

The Salvation Army furnishes information about those whom we do not reach at all and cannot reach without a new kind of force. It must be remembered, however, that the Salvation Army originated in a city where poverty sinks to deeper depths than we know, and that in London it has made a hand to hand fight with the saloon. Our cities afford a narrower field, on a higher level, for the same kind of work; and we must not ignore the large work done on these lowest levels of American life by churches. It is far more effectively done by the Salvation Army because that army is constructed for exactly such fighting. For the greater part the poor we neglect are the saloon poor, and winning them is a militant enterprise.

To the degraded poor we must add the *de-classed*, the men and women who have wandered from their place, from their proper setting in homes and communities, the friendless strangers who have fled to the city to hide wounds or to secure employment. They are a large body in a great city, and by proper method they can be reached and restored to human fellowship by the churches. And it is only just to say that a considerable number of these lost sheep are annually found and brought back by the agents of the churches.

The three groups of poor—the shabby, the declassed or vagrant, and the degraded—

are all reached by the Salvation Army, though it is best equipped for rescuing the victims of bad habits and of vices. Is the Salvation Army to be left to deal with the neglected portion of the poor? Certainly not. But if churches are to fight hand to hand with saloons and gambling houses for human souls, they must go about it in some new way. The first step would seem to be better organization for saving men's bodies. We do not mean a larger charity, more giving of food and clothing. Unless such giving is necessary it is rather an evil than a good; and *to make charity unnecessary* is the Christian ideal. To put people on their feet, and in the way of self-maintenance—to help them to help themselves—this is a duty to the physical life of the poor which our churches do not distinctly recognize, which they are not organized to perform.

If we are to save a lost man we must first put him in the way of earning his bread. We have come to a time when temporal salvation is for a multitude a condition precedent of spiritual salvation. The wretched people increase among us because we are as yet disqualified, or at least *not* qualified, for corporal salvage—having organized ourselves for soul salvage. It is easy to see that the churches need arms and hands fitted for difficult, delicate, and strenuous work for the economic well-being of the physically lost people.

The poor require of Christians three things: charity for temporary need; spiritual light and culture; economic salvation. The churches have not failed to meet the first two; they have hardly realized as yet that the last is also an imperious demand of their faith. John Wesley's old rules enjoined "doing good to men's bodies," and he did not neglect that in its economic aspect. In this country, the swift rush to dense populations, including vast numbers of foreign poor, has not afforded us time to catch all the meanings of our new life as a populous nation with large cities and many wretched people, but if we look about us we shall see a great need of bringing church work to bear upon the physical salvation of men.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

DEATH OF ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON.



ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON.

ON December 17 the press dispatches announced that Robert Louis Stevenson, most popularly known as a novelist though not less eminent as an essayist, died at his home at Apia, Samoa, on December 3, and had been buried on the summit of Pala Mountain. His death was caused by a stroke of apoplexy. He was born in Edinburgh, Scotland, November 13, 1850. His father was a lighthouse builder and his grandfather the inventor of the revolving light. He attended the Edinburgh schools and after a course at the University of Edinburgh, studied engineering but soon gave up the task and began the study of law, which he finally relinquished to take up literature as a profession. From his boyhood Stevenson had been inclined to a literary career, and his eminent place in literature was won in the face of the heaviest odds, his weak lungs and delicate frame making a continuous search for health the necessity of his life. This it was that led him to the South Pacific Islands, where he finally took up his residence in Apia, the principal Samoan town. Mr. Stevenson first visited the United States in 1879, crossing the ocean as a steerage passenger and journeying to California in an emigrant train that he might obtain material which he could not otherwise get for a new novel. In San Francisco he met Mrs. Samuel Osbourne, who afterwards became his wife, and who survives him. Lloyd Osbourne, Mr. Stevenson's stepson, was his collaborator in the works of recent years written in his island home. Notwithstanding the fact that Mr. Stevenson's success in the field of literature has been substantially evidenced by large sales of his books, especially the latest editions, it is reported that he died believing that his popularity as an author was waning. The following long list comprises the most important of his books in the order of their production: "An Inland Voyage," "Virginibus Puerisque," "New Arabian Nights," "Treasure Island," "A Child's Garden of Verses," "The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde," "Kidnapped," "The Merry Men and Other Tales," "Underwoods," "Memories and Portraits," "The Master of Ballantrae," "In the Wrong Box," in collaboration with Lloyd Osbourne, "Ballads," "Across the Plains," "David Balfour," "Island Nights' Entertainments," "Three Plays," in collaboration with W. E. Henley, "The Wreckers," and "The Ebb-Tide," both in collaboration with Lloyd Osbourne. The book by which Mr. Stevenson was most widely known was probably "The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde." Of the two novels upon which he was engaged at the time of his death, one, "St. Ives," is thought to have been completed.

The Critic. (New York, N. Y.)

It is true, he never produced the "great work" that was so confidently expected from him (unless "Treasure Island" be accounted as such work); but his mastery of his craft, the brilliancy of his style, which adapted itself to every subject, mood and phase, and his rare imagination made whatever came from his pen an event in the world of English letters.

Boston Journal. (Boston, Mass.)

The career of Mr. Stevenson was full of contrasts and contradictions. He wrote of perilous adventure and wild incident; his own fight was a prolonged struggle for life. To the world at large he is best known by his story of "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde," which is not the greatest or most characteristic of his books.

As a novelist, Mr. Stevenson was first of all an inventor of enthralling incident. He was particularly

happy in the delineation of a rascal. Indeed, his romances are a gallery of rogues. To some "Kidnapped" is the finest of his romances. Others at the mention of his name will think of "Treasure Island." But certain of his short stories are undoubtedly the choicest, the most perfect fruits of his imagination. We are too near Mr. Stevenson to judge calmly of his work. Yet it may not be presumptuous to declare that another generation will know him as the essayist who wrote novels. Surely are his essays among the most delightful of all books of the last 50 years. It is not so much the critical judgment displayed in them that fascinates, although the acumen of the critic is indisputable. The charm of digression, the half humorous, half ironical fancy, the generous appreciation of all that is pure and noble, the trumpet praise of all that which is of good report, the fiery indignation kindled by the thought of meanness, the broad humanity that knows the power

* This department, together with the book, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. Course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

of temptation, and has compassion for the weak and the unfortunate, draw all hearts toward this essayist. And as his books are generous and pure and brave, so was the man himself, who at last found perfect health on the far off isle in the South Sea.

Philadelphia Press. (Pa.)

With the death of Robert Louis Stevenson the greatest master of English style whom the last half century—future criticism may easily say the last century—has seen is added to the short list of those who have dignified the English tongue by overcoming its manifold difficulties of expression through a supreme and successful sense of form. He was wont himself to speak modestly of George Meredith

as his master, to wish that he could write like Hardy, to regret the absence of motive and purpose in his work, but when time applies its remorseless acid to the work of the past fifty years his will outlast all the rest and shine with the luster of "fame's great antiseptic style." There has been in the letters of his day prose more profound, analysis more keen, more vigorous spiritual forces, romance of an ampler air and a more recondite and penetrating fiction; but nowhere in this day has there been any man and in no day have there been more than three or four men of his tongue with his matchless and unmated power to make English say precisely what he intended it should say in a form lucent, living, and beautiful.

CONGRESS AND THE REFORM OF THE CURRENCY.

THE plan advocated by the secretary of the treasury in his annual report, for the reform of the currency, and which President Cleveland outlined and endorsed in his annual message to Congress, subsequently took the form of a bill which was reported to the Lower House of Congress without modification by the Committee on Banking and Currency after a week had been spent in public hearings. The bill as presented in the House immediately provoked general criticism and after a few days' debate, when it became apparent that sufficient support could not be obtained to insure its passage, it was promptly withdrawn and a substitute proposed. This second bill, which Secretary Carlisle is credited with framing, is in a sense a compromise measure and does not change the general features of the original bill, of which however it is a modification. The substitute removes the original proposition to make all national banks issuing circulating notes jointly liable for the immediate payment of the notes of failed banks and provides for the distribution of this liability over the period required to complete the safety fund by the tax of one half of one per cent per annum. As at first drawn, the bill required the present banks to surrender their bonds held to secure existing bank circulation before July 1, 1895, and this proposition the substitute amends by providing that the present banks may come into the new system or not as they desire. The new bill further provides that treasury certificates of deposit of legal-tender notes, as well as legal tenders themselves, may be received as security for bank circulation and it provides also that the notes of failed banks not redeemed upon presentation shall bear interest at the rate of six per cent per annum until thirty days after notice is given that the funds are available for their redemption. In its provisions relating to the conduct of state banks the substitute is much more strict and definite than the original bill. The preliminary struggle for the passage of the new bill resulted in the defeat of its advocates on January 9, when the proposition to limit debate and fix a time for the final vote on the measure was rejected by a rising vote of 101 to 92 and then by an aye and nay vote of 129 to 124. The future action of Congress is entirely problematical.

(Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The administration followed the advice we gave it, and amended its original Currency bill by striking out the whole of it but the enacting clause. Unfortunately, it has not stopped at this point in its foolish effort to bring on financial disaster. It has presented a new bill which differs in unimportant details from the old one, but which is quite as mischievous in its tendencies.

(Ind.) The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

Mr. Springer's new Currency bill is an improvement on the Carlisle bill, but it contains the two principal defects of that measure, namely, state-bank notes and the 30 per cent greenback deposit. The latter cannot be considered a banking measure at all. It is simply a method of enabling the government to get rid of the bother of its legal-

tender notes temporarily. It would not serve this purpose unless the banks would consent to take out circulation on those conditions, and we do not think that they would.

(Dem.) The World. (New York, N. Y.)

Congressman Bryan's speech in the House on the currency question is significant as the signal for a separation between those economists who believe that the government should quit the banking business altogether and those who believe that it should monopolize the issue of currency. It is quite safe to assert that there is no possibility of effecting a reconciliation between these two antagonistic schools in the brief interval before the close of the session.

(Financial.) Bradstreets. (New York, N. Y.)

The hearings before the House Committee on

Banking and Currency brought into the foreground one fact, at any rate, namely, that the demand for the retirement of the legal tender notes is pressed by advocates of almost every plan suggested for the reform of the currency, and that it is the most strongly supported of all the currency proposals before the House. Some legislation looking to this end at least should and might be had at the present session.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (*N. Y.*)

It has been pretended that this reform would simplify the currency, but Bill No. 2 does exactly the contrary; it creates a new kind of bank notes, against which no bonds would be deposited, and on which it would not be stated that they are so secured, and besides creates forty-four new kinds of state-bank notes, each depending for security upon such regulations as the different states may enact, and on the fidelity of the officers of different states. As there is absolutely nothing in the new plan to make state banks less dangerous, nothing to equalize their taxes with those of national banks, nothing to restrict their issues to notes of \$10 or more, and nothing to keep within safe or decent limits their issues of currency, it follows that there is nothing to give national banks a chance for existence in competition with wild-cat state banks, nothing to prevent the destruction of the national system, and therefore nothing to prevent the rapid sale of about \$200,000,000 United States bonds now held by national banks, with all the disastrous consequences of such sale.

(*Dem.*) *The Dispatch.* (*Richmond, Va.*)

The substitute will meet many of the objections urged against the pending bill and will permit of an easy transition on the part of national banks from the existing system to the new system. Thus there will be less disturbance of business than would otherwise occur.

(*Rep.*) *Chicago Inter-Ocean.* (*Ill.*)

It seems to be the temper of the administration to rush blindly into a radically new currency system, without pausing to consider the probable effect of it upon the monetary interest of the country. One stroke of legislation might overthrow our present finances and precipitate an appalling panic.

(*Dem.*) *Memphis Commercial-Appeal.* (*Tenn.*)

The Carlisle currency plan has "got into politics," and there is very little chance that the measure will be considered on its merits. Independent of the partisan bias of the discussion, there seems to be nothing like unity of opinion among the financial wiseacres that have been clamoring for a rehabilitation of our currency system. In Congress and out, the discussion is a wild Babel of tuneless tongues, of clashing opinions, of theories crossing each other at every possible angle. Everybody is dissatisfied with the present condition of things, but it is hard

to find any three that agree with each other as to the way to reform it. It seems that our wise men have started to build a Babel tower to the heaven of sound currency, and have been smitten with a confusion of tongues.

(*Rep.*) *The Bee.* (*Omaha, Neb.*)

Doubtless the substitute is an improvement on the original bill. It could not well be otherwise. But the changes reported have not eliminated all the objectionable features, so that the new bill is far from being a perfect plan of currency reform. It still proposes to give the country a state-bank currency, to which the objections heretofore urged remain in full force. It is less oppressive in its provisions to the national banks than the Carlisle bill, but it offers no additional inducement to these institutions to increase their circulation.

(*Ind.*) *The News.* (*Indianapolis, Ind.*)

It seems clear that the new bill is an improvement over the old one. The debate has thus already accomplished a good purpose. It will now turn upon the new measure. If that can stand the ordeal of discussion in and out of Congress, it will be reasonably safe to pass it. If it cannot, it can be amended again.

(*Ind.*) *San Francisco Argonaut.* (*Cal.*)

What warrant there is for government going into the banking business is a tough conundrum. Is there any reason why Congress should manage banks rather than tanneries, or distilleries, or woolen-mills? The business of banking has no dependence on the conduct of public affairs. The proper business of a bank is to receive money from those who have it, and to lend it to those who want it. An issue department is not a necessary branch of a bank, and under a sound banking system, such as we have in this state, will rarely be an adjunct. Business would be safer and banking business more satisfactory if there were no banks of issue anywhere; if the government called in its notes, and commercial exchanges were effected with the aid of gold and silver, of which we have some \$1,200,000,000 in actual or potential coinage. The people of the East object to handling specie. Let them get over their horror of coin. England has no paper money for less than five pounds; France has no paper money for less than a hundred francs; yet both countries are said to do a large business—almost as large as that of either New York, Philadelphia, or Boston, although eastern people may not believe it.

(*Dem.*) *Fort Worth Gazette.* (*Texas.*)

The withdrawal by the administration of its financial measure before it reached a vote in Congress and the substitution of another with material changes from its original plan is a public confession of its weakness and uncertainty in dealing with this question.

THE PASSAGE OF THE RAILROAD POOL BILL.

THE Railroad Pool bill, an amendment to the Interstate Commerce law authorizing railroads to pool their earnings, passed the House of Representatives December 11 by a vote of 170 to 110. The bill practically repeals Section 5 of the Interstate Commerce law, one of its most stringent provisions, forbidding "different and competing common carriers to enter into any contract, agreement, or arrangement for the division among themselves or with other carriers of the whole or any portion of their traffic, or any of their gross or net earnings." The amendment makes it possible for railroads to contract with each other for the division and apportionment of competitive traffic and grants to them the privilege of pooling their earnings resulting from such traffic. The Interstate Commerce Commission substantially favored the restoration of the pooling system and in its last annual report emphasized one of the chief disadvantages of the original law in the statement that "it is probable that a large amount of competitive traffic has been handled at such low rates that it became a source of loss rather than revenue." Added to the suggestion of the Commission for the change in the law was the appeal of merchants representing all sections of the country. The amendment places a number of safeguards about the pooling privilege in that it empowers the Commission "to observe the working, operation, and effect of every such pooling contract" making it obligatory on the part of the Commission to regulate and modify pooling contracts in accordance with its judgment and conferring upon it the power to withhold approval or terminate contracts in cases of extreme necessity. Opinion differs widely as to the wisdom and justice of the amendment which it has been predicted would be promptly passed by the Senate.

(Ind.) *Public Ledger*. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

There is every reason to believe that the proposed law will be an improvement on existing conditions. The Railroad Pooling bill is not in fact a radical measure. It leaves undisturbed the laws against unlawful combinations to raise the prices of the necessities of life and simply permits the railroad companies to carry on their business in a rational way, subject to approval by the Interstate Commerce Commission of the agreements into which they may enter. The Senate should promptly pass the House bill, and thus enable the country to make experiment with a piece of legislation freeing the railroad companies from restraints which have interfered with the natural conduct of their business, to the injury not only of the corporations, but of the public, for whom they were built and by whom they live.

(Rep.) *St. Louis Globe-Democrat*. (Mo.)

The bill is intended to cure one of the worst defects of the Interstate Commerce law and to put a stop to one of the worst of prevailing evils in the transportation system of the country.

(Dem.) *The World*. (New York, N. Y.)

The bill just passed by the House repeals that prohibition and authorizes the railroads to organize themselves into what can hardly fail to be the most oppressive, as it will be the largest, of the trusts that absorb to themselves the greater part of the wealth produced by the country. It is a bill to put an end to competition in the carrying trade and to give to the railroad companies license to take for themselves pretty nearly all the margin of profit there is in the distribution of commodities.

(Ind.) *The Herald*. (Boston, Mass.)

The Interstate Commerce Commission has long recognized and frequently pointed out the gross abuses which the prohibition of pooling has entailed. Public opinion has very largely come around to the

Commission's view of the case, even in quarters where the jealousy of railroad monopoly is most intense. All reasonable men admit the absurdity of allowing the letter of the law to run counter to its spirit, and thus the bill has behind it a considerable force of public sentiment.

(Dem.) *Louisville Courier Journal*. (Ky.)

The recent discussion in the House of the Railroad Pooling bill has brought out some interesting statements with reference to railroad charges in the United States as compared with those in some foreign countries. It is pretty generally conceded that our railroad service is the best in the world, but the impression prevails to some extent that it is much more costly than in some other countries. This is not true. According to figures furnished by authorities considered reliable, the average rate charged for the transportation of a passenger one mile is 2.99 cents in Prussia, 3.05 in Austria, 3.36 cents in France and 2.25 cents in Belgium, while in the United States the average rate is only 2.14 cents. There is no way to arrive precisely at the British rate, but the estimate is that our rate is 65 per cent of that in Great Britain. The average rate charged for the transportation of freight in the United States is 0.97 of a cent per ton per mile. The Prussian rate is 1.32, the Austrian 1.56, the French 1.59, the Belgian 1.39 cents per ton per mile. These differences may not appear large to the inexperienced, but if American railways had collected the lowest European rate in 1892 it would have made a difference of \$370,000,000 in their receipts. Now the whole amount paid in dividends by all the railroads in the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, was in round numbers \$100,000,000. Had they received the lowest European rate for freight and passengers, the fund available for dividends would have been nearly five times as large as it actually was.

JOHN BURNS, THE ENGLISH LABOR LEADER, VISITS AMERICA.



JOHN BURNS, M. P.

and for resisting the action of the authorities who denied the right to public meeting in that place he was several times arrested, twice tried and suffered an imprisonment of six weeks, having been convicted of seditious conspiracy. He has been a leader in many strikes, notably that waged successfully by the English dock laborers in 1889. Mr. Burns has radical economic convictions and is a Socialist. In 1892 he was elected to Parliament from the Battersea district, where he stood as the labor candidate against a conservative. He is also a member of the London School Board. In his public addresses during his visit to this country Mr. Burns spoke in terms of admiration of many of our institutions, particularly the public school system. He also provoked the criticism of the press in giving utterance to severe condemnation of many existing conditions as he observed them. In a duly accredited interview he is quoted as saying: "I like to compare like with like and I find that in many respects American labor is better off than in Europe and other old countries; but your miners, and in many cases your unskilled labor, are worse off than in Europe, and I am sorry to say that their prospects are not improving. Your skilled artisan, and especially where he is organized, is better off than in the old country in point of wages and enjoys a better standard of comfort; but what he gains over the English at the spigot of high wages, he often loses at the bung-hole of lack of employment. The question with me is not whether American labor is better or worse than English labor, but do both of them get an equitable share of what they produce? To help to realize this, to preach harmony of action to secure it, has been the object of my tour and I have succeeded beyond my expectations." Mr. Burns terminated his visit and sailed for England January 5.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

It is wonderful how much there is in prospective. For years one John Burns of England has been held up to the working people of America as an ideal apostle of labor—discreet, unselfish, tolerant—in short, everything that the leaders of labor organizations in this country were declared not to be, and his visit to the United States excited far more comment and he was received when he arrived here with more honors than often fall to the lot of eminent foreign ambassadors. Mr. Burns had been in America a fortnight or so, and it was reluctantly recognized in his case, as it has been in that of myriads of other distinguished foreigners, that distance lends a wonderful enchantment.

Brooklyn Eagle. (N. Y.)

Mr. Burns is probably the sanest labor-leader in the world to-day. While we may not agree with him in all his theories we must admit that he is doing his work intelligently. He knows that great

Mr. JOHN BURNS, the foremost popular representative of organized labor in England, came to this country early in December to "strengthen the solidarity between English and American labor," his official mission being attendance upon the annual convention of the American Federation of Labor in the capacity of a fraternal delegate of the British Trades-Union Congress. Besides attending the convention at Denver Mr. Burns delivered addresses in many of the principal cities east and west before large and sympathetic audiences, his meetings being held under the auspices of various trades-unions and labor societies. Mr. Burns has had an interesting and eventful career. He is of Scotch descent, was born in Battersea, and when ten years old went to work in a candle factory. Later he apprenticed himself to an engineer, became identified with the trades-union movement and first appeared in the public view at an industrial conference in London where he made speeches on Socialism. In 1887 he was the popular orator of the unemployed who thronged Trafalgar Square in London

reforms are not brought about in a day, and he is aware of the fact that resort to violence injures the cause which it is intended to help. He is one of the conservative forces in the labor world.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Apart from his Socialistic ideas, which are advanced, he is in good favor with both employers and employed (in England). Compared with his views of economic problems, the Populist platform is mild and inoffensive. America welcomes him for his honesty and sincerity, but will reject his tenets as foreign to our principles and institutions.

Rocky Mountain News. (Denver, Col.)

If there were a dozen Burnses in the United States, conditions would be turned upside down in a twelve-month. He is filled with the fire of revolution—but a revolution which leads from evil to good, from suffering to health, from municipal crime and corruption to good government and honest ways.

THE LEXOW COMMITTEE'S WORK IN NEW YORK.



STATE SENATOR LEXOW,
Chairman of the Lexow Committee.

A LARGE number of important witnesses were examined during the last month's session of the Lexow Committee in its investigation of the New York Police Department and the testimony given on the stand directly implicated police commissioners, inspectors, and captains; and revealed the deplorable character of the system under which the most wholesale jobbery and corruption have been conducted. Among the important witnesses examined were Captain Creeden, who confessed that he had paid \$15,000 for his appointment to influential Democratic leaders; Captain Schmittberger, who practically turned states evidence, and confessed that he had collected money from disorderly houses, gamblers and policy shops, implicating Inspectors Williams and McAvoy by his testimony and accusing Commissioners Martin and Sheean of protecting disorderly and gambling houses, which statement the former denied; and finally Superintendent Byrnes, who testified that he was powerless to prevent the corrupt practices in the department under the restrictions placed upon his work and that his wealth, which he estimated at about \$350,000, had been accumulated legitimately, he having re-

ceived the aid of Commodore Vanderbilt early in his career and having through the instrumentality of Mr. Jay Gould and his son Mr. George Gould made large profits in stock speculations; concluding with the statement, sensational at the time, that he had previously written a letter to Mayor Strong avowing his willingness to retire from the office of superintendent if such a course should be deemed desirable. Superintendent Byrnes was the last witness on the stand and owing to the short time taken up with his examination and the character of the questions put to him, Dr. Parkhurst in an open letter charged that the committee had made a "deal" with Mr. Byrnes and that his examination was lenient and formal. Chairman Lexow replied to this accusation in a newspaper interview denying the charge. During all the sessions of the committee witnesses made serious charges against three commissioners, one ex-commissioner, three inspectors, one ex-inspector, twenty-two captains and many sergeants, detectives, wardmen, and patrolmen. The resolution authorizing the appointment of a committee to investigate the Police Department in New York City was offered by Senator Lexow in the State Senate January 29, 1894, and the work of the committee of which he was the chairman terminated on December 29, after a series of sittings covering in all a period of seventy-five days. About the first political influence of the investigation was that which caused the election of Mr. John W. Goff, the committee's counsel, and Col. W. L. Strong to the offices of Recorder and Mayor of New York on a Reform Ticket in November. It is probable that the report of the Committee to the Legislature now in session will be made the basis for legislative action looking to the complete reorganization of the Police Department in New York.

(*Dem.*) *The World.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

The Lexow Committee has finished the work assigned to it. It has done the work conscientiously and well. It only remains for the committee to frame its report and recommendations to the Legislature in a similarly broad and patriotic spirit. If it does that its history will bring honor to the men who compose it.

They have shown the existence of wholesale, systematic corruption in our police force. They have proved that place in the service is the subject of purchase, and, as Supt. Byrnes swears, that merit has nothing whatever to do with it. They have established the fact that blackmail, the licensing of vice for pay, and direct partnership with crime are essential parts of the system. They have discovered the source and the causes of the evil. If they now have courage to recommend the obvious remedy their work will have been well done throughout, and the public will rejoice to have their commission renewed

with an enlarged scope embracing the other departments of our city government, where the corruption is certainly not less than in the police organization.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (*N. Y.*)

The Lexow Committee has completed the first stage of its labors and adjourned to prepare its report for presentation to the Senate. There is no need to review here in detail the revolting facts which have been brought to light. It is



COL. W. L. STRONG
Mayor of New York City.

enough to say that vice and crime have been methodically and remorselessly made to pay heavy tribute to the police for the privilege of existence; that law-



SUPERINTENDENT BYRNES
of the New York Police.

lessness has never assumed a form for which toleration has not been purchasable in this city by those who knew where and how to apply; that vocations the most odious and vocations the most blameless have been blackmailed for the enrichment of officials sworn to thwart the guilty and protect the innocent; and that the conspiracy through which this colossal system of fraud and oppression has been maintained has comprehended a multitude of knaves of high and low degree, and has performed its business with perfect precision and immense success during a long period of time. The proof has been woven with extraordinary skill out of innumerable threads, many of them intrinsically weak or diligently tangled, into a web which cannot be broken. To Dr. Parkhurst, who inspired the work, and to Mr. Goff, who has devised and directed its processes, public admiration and gratitude are chiefly due.

(*Ind.*) *Evening Post.* (New York, N. Y.)

The testimony of Superintendent Byrnes clears him of complicity in the levy of blackmail on the small people of the community, but it opens up another field of abuse which is far more difficult to deal with. A system cannot be sound or wholesome which permits a police officer to accumulate a fortune of \$300,000 in a few years through gifts or "points" from rich men. These gifts are made either to get him to do his duty, or to get him to do in his official capacity something which is not his duty. In the first case they must be set down as sheer bribery. In the second the officer, while in the public service, allows himself to be secretly hired by wealthy men to devote to their service powers or talents which he owes to the community. Our main reliance in securing public servants must be on *character*.

(*Dem.*) *New York Times.* (New York, N. Y.)

We have no reason to doubt the statement of Chairman Lexow that the committee had carefully investigated Byrnes' record, without finding a particle of evidence that he had been guilty of blackmail, either in his present office or in the office that he held before. What evidence there is against him has been furnished exclusively by himself in the very candid and complete testimony which he gave. He has had the opportunity of rendering exceptional services, by an excessively zealous use of the power of his place, to men who were themselves very rich

and who were able to enrich others, and they were willing as well as able to enrich him. In a sense this may be called trading on official opportunities. But really, considering what is in evidence of the way in which the fortunes of policemen are commonly accumulated, to say that a policeman shall be drummed out in disgrace and shall not be consulted about the reorganization of the force because he has taken "points" about the stock market, seems to be much too ethereal and superfine a line to take.

(*Evang.*) *The Independent.* (New York, N. Y.)

It is to be hoped that the new Legislature will appoint another committee that will carry on to its completion the work with the Police Department and with other departments. And yet with the danger before the politicians that the present investigation has done too much and has endangered the continued existence of the bi-partisan control with all its patronage, the pressure of public sentiment is needed to aid them to do right. Still we have Dr. Parkhurst, who is "a stayer," and who says he is only a "poor little Presbyterian clergyman" and that what it took him two years to find out Superintendent Byrnes, and the police commissioners could have found in a week if they had wanted to. Perhaps the Lexow Committee has done about as much as it could; at any rate, we are grateful to it for all it has done; grateful to Dr. Parkhurst and his Society for compelling the appointment of the committee, and only afraid that the civic conscience will get too easily jaded.

(*M. E.*) *The Christian Advocate.* (New York, N. Y.)

The Lexow Committee has adjourned. Such an upheaval of moral filth, widespread, almost universal, long-continued, sensational in the substance as well as in the manner, who has ever seen? Praise without stint has been showered upon those most effective in unearthing the methods of robbing the public under the forms of justice. But there is one class of persons whose members have not received the praise most justly their due. It should be remembered that the governor of the state vetoed the bill providing the funds for carrying on the investigation. Private citizens of different parties, having the public good in view, have furnished the money, whereby this protracted inquiry has been made possible. Honor to the men who furnished the sinews of war!



JOHN W. GOFF,
Chief Counsel of the Lexow Committee,
now Recorder of New York City.

EXPERTS IN HYPNOTISM.

THE annual meeting of the American Psychological Association was held at Princeton College, Princeton, N. J., beginning December 27 and lasting several days. Among the many interesting subjects considered by this representative gathering of psychologists was that of hypnotism. The subjoined extract embraces the important points of the discussion.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

These psychologists deny that a person in a hypnotic state can perform any act which is not done customarily by him when in a normal state of mind. A hypnotized man will not commit crime unless he is a habitual criminal, nor will a man commit murder unless he is a confirmed man-killer. If a person is hypnotized and the suggestion is made to him that he stab a man, he will go through the motions of plunging a knife into his opponent's body if a paper knife or ruler is placed in his hand, but if a dagger is given to him he will only pretend to stab. The same rule applies if a suggestion is made that he shoot some imaginary person. Under no circumstances will he fire a loaded revolver in the direction of his supposed foe.

Dr. G. T. Ladd of Yale said that such a thing as two entirely different personalities within one person was an impossibility. Whenever a person was hypnotized a part of his original mental self remained with him. Such a double personage as Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde could never exist except in fiction.

Dr. McDonald of Washington is a student of hypnotism. He is a pupil of Dr. Bernhardt, under whom he studied for some time. He said that in hypnotism the upper eyelids were tired and caused to fall as in sleep, and they remained closed from exhaustion. A person could hypnotize himself almost as easily as an operator could produce the illusion. All he had to do was to look steadily at some object and allow his mind to be passive. Every one who had tried the experiment knew that a feeling of dizziness and numbness came over him after a short time. The doctor uses two instruments in the production of the hypnotic state: One consists of a row of small revolving mirrors, at which the patient looks steadily. The second consists of a velvet band fastened about the forehead, from which a silver ball hangs dependent, and so arranged that it rests on the forehead above the nose, and directly between the eyes. The patient must look upward steadily, and allow his mind to be free from any train of thought. Dr. McDonald stands beside him and suggests his mental state. "Now your eyelids are heavy," he says. "You are going to sleep." "Your eyes close." "Your eyelids." "They were shut." "They are shut." "You are asleep." He so times himself that the patient is hypnotized when he says: "You are asleep." Any suggestions made by the operator will be carried out, provided the patient performs the act custom-

arily when awake. According to the doctor, talking in the sleep is a form of self-hypnotism, of which somnambulism is the highest form. One is an illusion in which the muscles of the jaws and tongue act. In the second form, which is more advanced, the patient sits up in bed, and in the third and highest, he walks in his sleep. At no time will he perform an act of violence. Hypnotic crime is an impossibility, unless a criminal is hypnotized. Should, at any time, the operator say to the patient that he was not falling asleep, or ridicule him in any way, he will awaken at once. *

W. R. Newbold gave the results on the experimental production of illusions and hallucinations, and exhibited his apparatus and mode of work.

Dr. James told a story in support of Newbold's experiments. He said that a friend of his placed a number of knives in a box for safe keeping and then closed the house for the summer. On her return in the fall she forgot where she had placed the knives. Every effort to recall the incident failed. She read in a physiological review that if a person forgets an article and wishes to recall its storage place he will often be successful if he looks steadily in a mirror for some time. She tried it, but could not remember where she placed the knives. Finally she grew impatient at her apparent waste of time and threw down the hand glass with an exclamation about her silliness. As she did so the image of a box with a projection passed before her eyes. Dr. James asserted that the woman arose and without volition took a chair, carried it across the room, and placed it before a wardrobe. She mounted the chair and reaching to the top of the wardrobe, found the box, with the carving knife extended at an angle above the rest of the knives.

Dr. McDonald had made a series of experiments on 3,000 babies. With them he used the heat test. The experiment showed in a general way that girl babies were more sensitive to heat than boy babies, and that the left hand was more sensitive than the right. One strange result was that the children of the poor were the most sensitive to heat. They endured cold better, it is true, but apparently obtained more comfort out of less heat than their better clad cousins.

Prof. Charles A. Strong, in a paper on pleasure and pain, told of a Georgia lawyer who was insensible to pain. This Georgia patient, not liking one of his fingers, bit it off and never winced. He endured surgical operations without the movement of a muscle.

THE SENTENCE AND IMPRISONMENT OF EUGENE V. DEBS.

ON December 14, Judge Woods, of Chicago, sentenced Eugene V. Debs, president of the American Railway Union and leader of the great railroad strike in the West last summer, to six months' imprisonment for contempt of court in violating the injunction issued by the Federal Court on July 2, last, restraining all persons from obstructing or interfering with the movement of railway trains. A sentence of three months was also imposed on seven of Debs' associates in the strike. The United States Courts were held by Judge Woods to have jurisdiction in the case under the Sherman Anti-Trust law forbidding the restraint of commerce, thus establishing a new legal precedent. The decision of the court maintains that these men were guilty of conspiracy under the Sherman law, as charged in the indictments and that they should be held morally and legally responsible for their acts. President Debs and his associates surrendered themselves to the proper authorities on January 8 and were conducted to jail, where they began serving their sentences. On January 9 the press dispatches contained notice of a manifesto issued by President Debs from the McHenry County jail, addressed "to the American people" which states that the whole procedure of his trial and sentence is infamous; that neither he nor his associates violated any law, and that he would rather be accountable for the railroad strike than the court's decision, avowing further that he and the others are mere instruments in the evolution abolishing industrial slavery.

Railway Times. (Terre Haute, Ind.)

Organ of the American Railway Union.

If Judge William A. Woods is not one of those ermined United States judicial clowns, tricked out in court spangles, whose legal tricks, high jumping and lofty tumbling make angels weep, it is because high heaven will not longer tolerate exhibitions of strolling mountebanks of United States courts.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Those labor leaders talk wildly who speak of the conviction of Debs as an outrage and an act tending toward revolution. Nobody can be more interested than they should be in maintaining the dignity and authority of the courts of law. If a man may defy the mandates of the bench and treat the courts with contempt, and go unpunished, there is an end of justice; and in such a catastrophe none would suffer more than the workingman. McKane [the Gravesend boss] said, "Injunctions don't go," and Debs said, "I care nothing for injunctions." The fate of both is the same, in kind; and it should serve as a wholesome warning to all lawbreakers.

Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Merely for the sake of getting additional light upon the subject it is to be hoped that the case may be carried to the Supreme Court. The decision, though temperate in many respects, seems to place upon labor leaders a responsibility which, justly or not, would virtually tie their hands from the use of the strike by holding them accountable for whatever might happen incidental to the strike, and assuming that such happenings were part of their intention and desire.

Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

The judge makes very clear the distinction between the right to strike and the right to use violence. "The right of men to strike peaceably," says the court, "and the right to advise a peaceable strike, which the law does not presume to be impossible, is not questioned. But if men enter into a conspiracy to do any unlawful thing, and in order to accomplish their purposes advise workmen to go upon a strike,

knowing that violence and wrong will be the probable outcome, neither in law nor in morals can they escape responsibility."

The Republican. (Springfield, Ill.)

Such a measure as this sentence is not only wrong, but is full of danger. It puts a weapon in the hands of the judiciary which can and will be turned with deadly effect against the capitalist whenever a party of labor shall elect governors and presidents and judges. It shakes the popular confidence in the justice of our institutions which is our sheet anchor in times of excitement. Just as the good sense and firmness of the American people put down the revolt at Chicago, so, though by a different method, must this assault on liberty by judicial action be condemned and reversed.

San Francisco Argonaut. (Cal.)

It is gratifying to all good citizens to learn that Debs and the other directors of the American Railway Union have been sent to the Chicago jail. The only drawback to this gratification is the fact that their imprisonment is only for six months. This is a very lenient sentence, considering the crimes of these men, which practically included arson, murder, and treason—for they instigated their followers to the commission of the first two crimes, and to armed rebellion against the laws of the states and of the United States. Debs received a letter from a prisoner in the Cook County jail, telling him that he "would be welcomed there with open arms." That is the only place where he would be welcome—among jail-birds.

(Socialist.) Twentieth Century. (New York, N. Y.)

Though the Strike Commissioners have exonerated the Railroad Union from any participation in the riot and bloodshed at Chicago, the railway magnates have their revenge in the sentencing of Debs to six months' imprisonment, and the rest of the officers of the Railway Union to three months. Having their own tools on the bench, justice had no part in the sentencing of Debs and his companions, and the petty spite, which their sentencing gratifies, may be dearly bought.

THE CRIMINAL RECORD OF 1894.

Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

In 1894, in this country, there were 4,912 suicides, an increase of nearly 500 over the suicides of the year previous.

Last year 9,800 persons died by violence, 3,285 more than in 'ninety-three. Only 132 persons were hanged, and 91 of these were in the south, most of them being negroes.

There were 190 lynchings last year, 166 of them being in the south, according to the *Chicago Tribune's* record. The total is smaller than that of 'ninety-three, which was smaller than that of the year before. The *Tribune* also gives these startling figures:

The embezzlements and defalcations in the United States during the last year amount to the largest total of any year since 1878, when the *Tribune* began reporting them in annual summary. The aggregate is \$25,234,122, being 26 per cent greater than the \$19,929,692 reported for 1893, and 14 per cent greater than the \$22,154,000 reported for 1884, which was the largest since 1878 till it was

surpassed last year. The number of embezzlements was 629. Of these 44 were for sums more than \$50,000 and less than \$100,000 each, 37 for more than \$100,000 and less than \$500,000 each, 4 for more than \$500,000 and less than a million each, and 4 each of which exceeded a million dollars. The largest month's record in the year was the \$4,600,000 of August, and the smallest the \$677,047 for October. The greatest aggregate of embezzlements for any one state was the \$9,147,379 for New York, and the least reported was the \$2,500 for Florida, but the record is clear for Nevada, Arizona, the District of Columbia, and South Carolina.

The amount embezzled last year was the largest ever reported in our history, and it would seem that the penalties of the law no longer frighten those who are tempted or driven to steal.

Altogether, it is a pretty black record, but there is some comfort in the *Tribune's* statement that for three years past the number of hangings has steadily grown smaller.

DEATH OF SIR JOHN THOMPSON, CANADA'S PREMIER.



SIR JOHN THOMPSON.

SIR JOHN SPARROW DAVID THOMPSON, premier and minister of justice of the Dominion of Canada, knight commander of the Order of St. Michael and St. George, queen's counsel, and member of the Imperial Privy Council of Great Britain, died in London, England, December 12. He had gone to London to be sworn in as a member of the Queen's Privy Council, and after attending a meeting of that body in Windsor Castle he sat at luncheon with the Marquis of Ripon and others as the guest of the queen, when he was suddenly taken ill and died of heart failure before the arrival of a physician. His death caused general mourning in Montreal and throughout the Dominion, while it was deeply deplored in England and the United States as well. The late premier began his career as a parliamentary reporter and having adopted the law as a profession became one of the foremost lawyers of the Dominion, and he was recognized in addition as a statesman of eminent abilities. He is the third premier whose death Canada has mourned within the period of a few years. On December 14,

the governor general of Canada directed the Hon. Mackenzie Bowell to form a new Cabinet. Later the names of the Cabinet were announced. The new prime minister and president of the Privy Council, Mackenzie Bowell, was minister of commerce in the former Cabinet.

The Daily Witness. (Montreal.)

His death will be a loss to the country; he was personally pure, and we have no doubt he did all short of resigning or smashing his party to rid the government of corruption, but in vain; his failure was a great disappointment. He was a man of great ability, and devoted to what he believed to be the good of the country.

The Canada. (Ottawa.)

Sir John Thompson died poor, although it would have been easy for him to have amassed a fortune. This teaches us more than one thing. The honesty and integrity of the defunct minister, never really doubted, are all the more established by the fact

that he died poor, and the general idea is refuted that statesmen always work for their own interests.

The World. (Toronto.)

Sir John Thompson's strong point was his thorough loyalty to Canada and his genuine devotion to the Empire. He had a comprehensive grasp of the position of Canada as an independent country, and as an integral part of the British Empire.

The Herald. (Halifax.)

As a statesman Sir John Thompson was eminently fitted for the position which he was called upon to fill, and which he did fill with the highest honor to himself and advantage to the country. As a parliamentarian he had few equals, none since the great

chieftain passed away. As a debater he had no peer in his own Parliament. He will be especially remembered for his moderation, his honesty, his judicial fairness in dealing with all classes and all public questions.

The Tribune. (Winnipeg.)

There is no man in the ranks of the Conservative

party who could begin to compare with him in point of ability, and his death, particularly at the present juncture, is an irreparable blow to the party. Sir John was a man whom it was impossible not to respect if you had come in contact with him, and realized the intellectual strength of the man.

VOTING BY MACHINERY.

VOTING by machinery is comparatively a new development in the political history of the country, but the success of the device, which is nothing less than a piece of scientific mechanism so constructed as to be operated automatically, has been sufficient to warrant the hope on the part of the advocates of ballot reform that it is within the immediate range of possibility to render absolute the secrecy, freedom, and safety of the ballot. The machine has been used in more than 200 town elections in New York State and has been adopted by several counties for use in future elections. It is claimed for the device that it will take the place of about ten polling booths under the Australian system, and that its employment makes fraudulent practices in the casting and counting of votes practically impossible. From the tests already made it is evident that the ballot machine is to be reckoned among the reliable reform forces of the politics of the future.

Harper's Weekly. (New York, N. Y.)

The Myers ballot-machine is a small steel room with a door of access and of exit. When the voter goes out, and is in the vestibule of the booth, he cannot return to vote, if he be a repeater, for then the whole of the voting mechanism, entrance door and all, is locked up. It is only when he emerges entirely that the door of the entrance is open again. Then, too, the voting mechanism is released. The individual action of opening or closing a door by the voter does the whole business for him.

It has been suggested over and over again that for the illiterate certain colors should be adopted. In the ballot-machine colors are adopted. The Democratic list is yellow, and the Republican red, the Prohibition blue. If there were other parties, other colors could be used, as white letters on a black ground, or the reverse. Colors are to help the voter, and not the machine. . . .

The voter opens the door of the steel booth and at once has access to the interior. When the door of entrance is closed he is entirely hidden from sight, but the door is not locked. The little room is perfectly well lighted by means of a gas-jet or lamp. The man finds a number of vertical columns with push-knobs projecting three inches from the partition. These are painted the same color as the ballot cards beside them.

To the left of each column of knobs are the names of the candidates, printed in large legible characters, with the office they wish to fill. All the names and the knobs are in a perpendicular line, beginning, say, with a governor, and ending with a constable. This plan, if there be three or six parties in the field, brings all the candidates for the same office on the same horizontal or cross line. Each perpendicular line has on top "Democratic Ticket," "Republican Ticket," or "Labor Ticket." The voter may begin with the No. 1 knob, which notes, say, the Democratic governor's name. He pushes in the knob un-

til it catches, and it remains fixed. He cannot move it out again and vote for that governor twice, or for any other governor. By that act he has done several things he does not know of. He has locked up the governors of the Republican and the Labor party. They are fixed now, and he can push all he pleases and nothing is recorded. The same result follows after voting for any one man on any cross line, it makes no matter in which column.

A voter, finding every candidate of his party to his taste, votes the whole Democratic ticket. He pushes in the 12 up-and-down knobs. He has accomplished his task of coming into the booth, voting, and getting out in less than ten seconds. How is the count kept? On the reverse side of the perforated steel partition, opposite each of the candidates' names, and in communication with a knob, is a mechanical counter which bears the same name as the knob. Before the polling begins the inspectors arrange every one of these counters or indicators at zero, and then fix to the steel door which covers the recorders their seal.

When the voting is over, the covering is removed, and the register shows the exact number of times a knob has been pushed in or a candidate voted for. In fifteen minutes at the outside, even when thirty-six are to be separately voted for, with two questions, the affirmative or negative, the numbers indicated by the register can be copied. There is an additional counter, which is always visible, and shows the exact number of people who have voted. The machinery is perfectly simple, and not likely to get out of order.

Actual results accomplished by this machine, not experimental voting, but for candidates holding office to-day under the certification of this apparatus, show its positive availability. Four hundred and sixty-five *bona fide* votes have been polled and counted within two hours, and this year 2,167 votes were polled in 9¼ hours. Two hundred and twenty-five votes per hour are quite within the ordinary capabilities of this machine.

FOURTEENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.



JOHN MCBRIDE,
President of the American Federation
of Labor.

tion as in the past in whatever manner seems most expedient. Among the resolutions passed by the convention were those favoring an eight-hour work day; the abolition of the sweating system; sanitary inspection of mines and factories; the municipal ownership of street car lines, gas and water works, and electric light plants; the nationalization of railroads, telegraphs, telephones, and mines; the free coinage of silver at a ratio of 16 to 1 and the adoption of the Referendum in all legislation. Resolutions endorsing the state and national destruction of the liquor traffic, compulsory arbitration as a means of settlement in labor disputes, and "the collective ownership by the people of all means of production and distribution," the latter proposed by the Socialists, were defeated. By a vote of the convention the headquarters of the Federation were removed from New York to Indianapolis, Ind.

(*Dem.*) *Brooklyn Eagle*. (Brooklyn, N. Y.)

The new president is a Populist and what he calls a limited Socialist. He is also a practical politician and for the last fifteen years he has given his attention to the study of labor problems. He believes in relief of labor by the passage of laws for the benefit of workingmen. He has served two terms in the Ohio Legislature and has been a commissioner of labor statistics for the state. Under his administration it is probable that the organization will gain strength as a political force.

(*Pop.*) *Rocky Mountain News*. (Denver, Col.)

It is fair to say that the defeat of Mr. Gompers was due in no small degree to his failure to realize the importance to the working masses of the legitimate expansion of the currency by the free coinage of silver at a ratio of 16 to 1. In regard to most matters with which he had to deal Mr. Gompers proved himself an able leader of labor, but in this he was fatally deficient.

Mr. McBride is a Populist, the chief of the coal miners of Ohio, and the man to whose exertions are mainly to be ascribed the 58,000 votes cast for the People's party in Ohio at the November election. He will be a valiant chieftain for the federation. Under his direction the truth in the silver controversy

THE fourteenth annual convention of the American Federation of Labor was held in Denver, Colorado, December 10-18. This organization embraces eighty-four affiliated trades, having a combined membership of about 600,000. There were two candidates for the presidency of the Federation, Mr. Samuel Gompers, who has been its executive head since the beginning of the organization, and Mr. John McBride, president of the United Mine Workers of America. Mr. McBride was elected. He led the great miners' strike last summer and in politics is a Populist. Action was taken by the convention on many important matters. It was determined not to commit the Federation to the policies of any national political party. The various trades unions, however, will continue to urge the adoption of labor legisla-



SAMUEL GOMPERS,
Ex-President of the American Federation
of Labor.

will be driven home to every member of the unions affiliated with the organization. The leaders of all the great labor organizations are now genuine silver men and there is no reason to fear that education on this vital issue will be neglected.

(*Rep.*) *New York Commercial Advertiser*. (N. Y.)

The defeat of Mr. Gompers is a blow at the best interests of organized labor. By his temperate and prudent course as chief of the American Federation of Labor he has done much to win the respect of the public for that body. Notably was this the case when he refused to allow himself and his followers to be recklessly dragged into the Debs rebellion last summer. The success which the Federation has achieved has been largely the result of Mr. Gompers' foresight, zeal and executive capacity.

(*Rep.*) *Topeka State Journal*. (Kan.)

The Federation declared unequivocally for the old law relating to silver. It was composed of delegates from all over the United States. This action shows plainly how the working people stand on this question.

(*Rep.*) *Indianapolis Sentinel*. (Ind.)

The American Federation of Labor has some as crude ideas of Socialism as the average run of American people. It indulges in a great row over the demand for "the ownership by the people of all

means of production and distribution," and yet it swallows without effort a proposition for "municipal ownership of street cars, and gas, water and electric plants," and also one for "the nationalization of telegraphs, telephones, railroads and mines." After indulging in two such doses of Socialism as these, one would naturally suppose that the Federation would not hesitate at anything.

(*Dem.*) *Chicago Times*. (III.)

The Federation of Labor has declared itself for Socialism as against State Socialism. It calls for public ownership of natural monopolies, but refuses to demand the public ownership of all the means of production and distribution: Railroads, telegraph and telephone lines, lighting systems, street-car lines, mines and water works, are held by this declaration of principles to be by their very nature monopolies, and as such in private control will inevitably injure the welfare of the many to the disproportionate advantage of the few. The position thus taken by the associated representatives of labor is in accordance not only with the teachings of the best equipped economists but with the general trend of legislation

to-day. Nearly every reform urged by the Federation platform is now in force in some civilized community, and many in cities of the United States. (*Ind.*) *The Evening Post*. (*New York, N. Y.*)

On many subjects that came before the Federation of Labor there was great division of sentiment, but, on one, entire unanimity prevailed. That was the question of compulsory arbitration, which was condemned without qualification. This action is in line with that taken by all similar gatherings which speak for labor. The feeling seems to be universal among workmen that a system which gave the government authority to force a man to work against his will, on terms decreed by arbitrators, would be practically a system of slavery. There is quite as much unanimity among employers in the view that it would be practically the confiscation of property if the government had the right to force them, at the decree of arbitrators, to hire men at wages which they could not afford to pay. So long as the two classes affected to remain of their present mind on this subject, it seems like a waste of time to talk about compulsory arbitration.

REPRESSION OF SOCIALISM IN GERMANY.

THE session of the German Reichstag which was opened by Emperor William in the new Reichstag building on December 5 was made notable from the beginning by the refusal of the Socialist members to rise and cheer the emperor, in accordance with the usual custom. It is the belief that this "discourtesy" on the part of the Socialists was prompted by their knowledge that the emperor would introduce in the Reichstag drastic measures looking to the repression of socialism in Germany. Indeed the speech from the throne is sufficiently definite to lead to this conclusion, the emperor having asserted his determination to make proposals for the alteration of the laws relating to the policy of the government with regard to the Socialists, the present laws being, in his expressed opinion, lacking in scope and severity. The repressive (*Umsturz*) bill introduced later in the Reichstag while ostensibly aimed at the Socialists is thought to be designed for the enlargement of the powers of the government in such a way as to make the ruling authority competent to restrict many of the larger liberties of the people at will if not to crush out any political party which might arise in opposition to the governmental policy. While the Reichstag refused to authorize the prosecution of the Socialist members for their "discourtesy" to the emperor, on a charge of *lèse-majesté* as proposed by the imperial chancellor, this action of the body is not considered as being a fair indication of the prevailing sentiment of the members on the proposed repressive legislation.

Evening Post. (*New York, N. Y.*)

The scenes in the Reichstag over the Socialist disrespect to the emperor are evidently only the beginning of further trouble. If the men who have refused to stand up out of respect for him, and have even applied abusive epithets to him, could be tried and convicted of *lèse-majesté*, they would go to jail quite cheerfully, and be regarded by their fellows as martyrs, and at the next election the Socialist vote would be largely increased. It is the steady increase of this vote, and the mutiny of the Socialist members of the Reichstag, which ought to excite most alarm among the ministry and at court. The notion that it can be kept down by repressive enactments is a chimera. They will only stimulate it. The emperor rarely speaks without feeding the flame of discontent and insubordination under the name of

socialism or radicalism. And the pity of it all is that his military value is still an unknown quantity.

Baltimore American. (*Md.*)

The treatment of the Socialist party was one of the main causes of the emperor's disagreement with Bismarck. The latter's aim was to suppress socialism with an iron hand, while the emperor trusted to time and leniency to rob socialism of any peril that might lurk in it for the state. The effect of the emperor's policy was immediate and decided. The Socialists have developed into a great party, but they are no longer dangerous to the state. Recently dissensions have sprung up within their ranks which threaten to deprive them of their importance in politics, but the effort of the emperor to discipline them, no matter how mild it may be, will probably have the effect of uniting and making them more formidable.

THE SUCCESSOR OF THE LATE PROFESSOR SWING.

The Outlook. (New York, N. Y.)

We are informed that the Central Church in Chicago has called to the pulpit left vacant by the death of Professor Swing the Rev. N. D. Hillis, D.D., of Evanston, Ill. Dr. Hillis is a young man of about thirty-six years of age. He has already distinguished himself in the Presbyterian ministry, and is widely known for his broad and liberal interpretations of Christianity, for his lofty character and noble devotion to his work. At the last General Assembly at Saratoga Dr. Hillis was the leader of the liberal

party. He was born in Iowa, and is, we believe, a graduate of Lake Forest University and of McCormick Theological Seminary. In many ways he is peculiarly fitted to succeed Professor Swing. His sympathies are broad; he is a Western man and knows the people among whom he would have to work, and he has a peculiarly clear, vivid, and picturesque way of expressing his thoughts. If he decides to accept the call extended to him, we predict for him a useful ministry in that most important position.

IS OUR CHURCH MUSIC POPULAR?

Christian Intelligencer. (New York, N. Y.)

We do not hear our young people singing hymns as they go about the house, or as they are at work. They are not heard in the shops as they used to be, where work is largely automatic. The hymns and tunes are not popular. They were popular not many years ago. The reason for this change is to be found, no doubt, in the character of both the hymns and the tunes, but especially in the latter. . . . The new music is technical, not emotional. The tunes are harmonies, not melodies. The air does not stand alone; does not fill the ear or satisfy the desire when sung alone. It is lacking in fulness, and breaks down here and there when without the other parts

of the harmony. The harmony involves a succession of half-tones, of accidentals, of notes.

It may as well be said, plainly: A great many of us extremely dislike by far the larger part of the new church music, and deplore the tendency in it toward an exhibition of technical skill. It may, also, be well understood that German chorals are not popular among Americans, or approximations to them. Many of the tunes of the English composers are not popular with Americans. Is it not worth while to endeavor to secure hymns and tunes that will be popular? We do not go to church to practice singing, but to sing. We desire tunes we *can* sing, and without taking a course of lessons.

SECRET SOCIETIES AND THE CATHOLIC CHURCH.

THE attitude of the Catholic Church toward secret societies was made plain during the month by the promulgation of a papal decree through the medium of Monsignor Satolli forbidding Catholics to join or retain membership in the Knights of Pythias, the Odd Fellows, and the Sons of Temperance. Catholics who do not act in conformity with the decree will not be permitted to enjoy the privileges of the Sacrament. It is unofficially stated by representative authorities of the church that the decree is not to be construed as a direct reflection upon the societies mentioned but rather as "a rule of conduct enjoined upon members of the church whereby the church retains control of the conscience of its members instead of letting them be bound by secret oaths." The decree of the pope finally settles a much mooted question in the Catholic Church in the United States. Catholics are not permitted to hold membership in secret societies in Europe but in this country the Masonic Order has been the only one hitherto placed under the ban.

Catholic Citizen. (Milwaukee, Wis.)

Now there should be no question whatever with Catholics as to what their duty in the premises is. The church must be followed in its decisions. There need, however, be no apprehension among those Catholics who may have been led into error in this matter in the past. By loyally accepting the definite word of the church as now declared, they do not endanger their standing as Catholics.

Ohio State Journal. (Columbus, Ohio.)

In regard to the deliverance of the head of the Catholic Church the obedience of those affected by it is altogether a matter of conscience. If the ties binding them to the secret orders are stronger than those of the church, they will place themselves beyond the pale of the papal authority and remain

loyal to the oath taken at the bar of these orders; if not, the contrary result will follow.

Meanwhile we shall possess our souls in patience. Our brethren of the Catholic Church are not the only ones in trouble. The Presbyterians do not know what to do with the followers of Professor Briggs; the Methodists are at times rent with strife as serious as that now threatening the disciples of St. Peter; the Episcopalians, Unitarians, Congregationalists, Baptists, and other denominations are at intervals excited over matters having to do with church polity and belief. The United Brethren Church of this day opposes secret societies. But these questions are always settled fairly and in a friendly spirit.

The discussion now in progress in the Catholic

Church is only a part of the program. It is her turn to have an ebullition of spirit and effervescence of frothy talk. No bad effect will follow. Are not they all brethren?

(*Evang.*) *The Independent.* (New York, N. Y.)

These secret societies may be useful, or they may be quite superfluous; but it is necessary in these days that people, free people, have the religious freedom to decide such things for themselves. The church that undertakes to decide such things for

them discredits and weakens itself. Those are the wisest counselors in the Roman Catholic Church who are trying to enlarge its freedom and make its methods consistent with the liberty of this closing century and this age of self-government; and those who are trying to rule the consciences of the people mean well enough, but they are enamored with the ghost of a medieval conformity, and are driving men out of the church while trying to drive them in it.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

December 12. President Cleveland issues an order placing Internal Revenue employees to the number of about 2,600 in the classified Civil Service.

December 13. Judson C. Clements of Georgia appointed Interstate Commerce commissioner by the president.

December 18. The Chicago Council refuses to pass a resolution authorizing an appropriation of \$3,000 for an investigation similar to that of the Lexow Committee in New York.

December 20. The statues of Webster and Stark are presented to the United States Senate by the State of New Hampshire.

December 27. The first Congress of Philologists ever held in the United States opens in Philadelphia.—The Geological Society of America, the American Society of Naturalists, the American Physiological Society and the American Morphological Society begin their annual meetings at the Johns Hopkins University in Baltimore.—The American Folk Lore Society begins its annual meeting at Washington, D. C.—The college presidents of Indiana agree to prohibit intercollegiate football contests in the future.

January 1. Ex-Vice-President Levi P. Morton is inaugurated governor of New York State.—In Michigan the first inaugural ceremonial of a governor is held at the state capitol.—At Wellington, Kansas, a hypnotist is sentenced to be hanged, the jury having found him guilty for murder committed by another man while under his hypnotic influence.

January 3. Secretary of State Gresham transmits to Congress the official correspondence relating to the Bluefield controversy.

FOREIGN.

December 11. The financial and political crisis in Newfoundland puts a severe check on business.

December 12. The Japanese legation at Washington issues a statement denying the reports of atrocities committed by Japanese soldiers at Port Arthur.

December 13. A new ministry is formed in Newfoundland with Joseph Greene as premier.

December 16. The Italian Chamber of Deputies is prorogued by King Humbert upon the report of Premier Crispi due to the revival of the bank scandals.

December 18. Henri Brisson is elected president of the French Chamber of Deputies to succeed the late M. Burdeau.

December 20. China sends envoys to Japan to negotiate for peace.

December 25. The czar of Russia reduces the number of his secret police, but does not do away with the whole force.

December 27. Ex-Secretary of State John W. Foster accepts the invitation of China to go to Japan to aid the Chinese plenipotentiaries in their negotiations with the Chinese government for peace.—Severe earthquake shocks are experienced in Italy and Sicily.—The Hon. Wm. E. Gladstone celebrates his eighty-fifth birthday at his home at Hawarden Castle.

January 5. Preliminary peace negotiations between Japan and China are believed to have been declared off.—Captain Dreyfus of the French army is publicly degraded in Paris for selling French military secrets to the agents of the German and other foreign governments.

NECROLOGY.

December 12. Auguste Burdeau, president of the French Chamber of Deputies. Born 1851.

December 14. Jean Macé, a popular scientific writer, editor of *La République* in 1848. Born 1815.

—Josiah Porter, adjutant general of the National Guard of New York State. Born 1833.

December 15. The Rev. John Lord, D. D., a historical writer and lecturer. Born 1810.

December 21. Rev. George E. Ellis, D. D., president of the Massachusetts Historical Society, formerly professor in Harvard Divinity School. Born 1814.

December 27. Francis II., the last king of Naples, dethroned by Garibaldi in 1860. Born 1836.

December 30. Christina Georgina Rossetti, a poet, and sister of Dante Rossetti. Born 1830.

January 5. Daniel H. Cray, first general manager of the New York Associated Press and the originator of fast news service in the U. S. Born 1815.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR FEBRUARY.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First week (ending February 9).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter XI.
 "From Chaucer to Tennyson." From page 111 to end of chapter IV.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Life of a British Soldier."
 "English Morals and Christianity."
 Sunday Readings for February 3.

Second Week (ending February 16).

- "The Growth of the English Nation." Chapters XII. and XIII.
 "From Chaucer to Tennyson." Chapter V. to page 134.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "What We Know about the Planets."
 "The Man with the Iron Mask."
 Sunday Reading for February 10.

Third Week (ending February 23).

- "Renaissance and Modern Art." Chapters I., II., III.
 "From Chaucer to Tennyson." Chapter V. concluded.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "The Beginning and the Ending."
 "The World's Debt to Electricity."
 "Kingsley's 'Westward Ho!'"
 Sunday Reading for February 17.

Fourth week (ending March 2).

- "Renaissance and Modern Art." Chapters IV., V., and VI.
 "From Chaucer to Tennyson." Chapter VI. to page 154.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

- "Famous Bridges of the World."
 "Count Moltke, Field Marshal."
 Sunday Reading for February 24.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

GLADSTONE DAY—FEBRUARY 5.

"The character of a statesman is to be shadowed forth not by words but by actions and the success of his administration."
 —*Demosthenes*.

1. Table Talk—Events and incidents in the personal history of Mr. Gladstone (given as far as possible in the order of a connected biography).
2. Paper—Mr. Gladstone as the helper of the English people in their struggle for representation in Parliament.
3. A review—What Mr. Gladstone has done for Ireland.
4. A study—A chronological arrangement of the

chief events in Mr. Gladstone's different premierships.

5. Essay—Mr. Gladstone as a literary man and a scholar.
6. Essay—Mr Gladstone as a religionist.

SECOND WEEK.

1. Paper—Socialism in England.
2. Book review—"Marcella," by Mrs. Humphry Ward—noting especially the thoughts on socialism.
3. Reading—Mrs. Browning's "Cry of the Children."
4. Literary study—Milton's "Comus."
5. Debate (from an English standpoint)—Resolved: That Ireland, Scotland, and Wales should have local parliaments and form a federal union after the American plan. (See "The Growth of the English Nation," page 257.)
6. Table Talk—The work of the Lexow Committee.*

THIRD WEEK.

1. General study—The contemporary history of Europe at the beginning of the Renaissance.
2. Literary study—Joseph Addison and his writings.
3. Readings—Selections from the Appendix of "From Chaucer to Tennyson," including those comprised in the week's *Outline*.
4. Debate—Resolved: That electricity lessens the chances for a man to acquire, in the physical world, fame or power or wealth.
5. Character study—Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst.*
6. The Chino-Japanese War.*

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Literary study—Gray's "Elegy."
2. Character sketch—Jean Ingelow the author of "Brothers and a Sermon" which forms the Sunday Readings for the month.
3. A study—A comparison between the Gothic and the Renaissance architecture (as suggested on page 51 of "Renaissance and Modern Art.") Make as large a collection of illustrations as possible for this purpose.
4. *Questions and Answers* in THE CHAUTAUQUAN, or questions from *The Question Table*.
5. Table Talk—Robert Louis Stevenson, his life and writings.*
6. Debate—Resolved: That the system of voting by machinery should be generally adopted.*

* See *Current History and Opinion*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR FEBRUARY.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

P. 240. "*Demos*." A word from the Greek language, meaning the people; the public, the commonwealth, the populace.

P. 241. "The Bourbons." The royal family of France to which Louis XVIII., the restored French king, belonged. See note in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October, page 106, and "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," page 59.

P. 245. "Rotten boroughs." See "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," page 213.

P. 249. "Cerberus" [ser'be-rŭs. Vowels having no diacritical marks take the obscure sound]. The watchdog at the entrance of the infernal regions. When any one died the Greeks and Romans "used to put a cake in their hands as a sop to Cerberus, so that he might let them pass without molestation."

P. 256. "Ménu." A French word. A bill of fare.

"*Status quo*." Latin. The condition in which [the things were at first or are now].

P. 258. "Anti-jingo." The name Jingo was given to a "member of the section of the Conservative or Tory party in Great Britain, which advocated a spirited foreign policy. The name alludes to a song which is to be found at the foot of page 256 of the text-book.

P. 266. "Enclosure." See page 188 of the text-book.

P. 269. "Tenter." A machine on which are stretched pieces of cloth just woven, so that they may set or dry evenly and square.

P. 278. "Cov'in." A secret agreement, collusion.

P. 281. "*Laissez faire*" [lā-sā fār, ā having the sound given it in care]. A French expression. The "let alone" principal or policy in government and in political economy; a general non-interference with individual freedom of action.

P. 283. "The submerged tenth." An expression applied by General William Booth of the Salvation Army, to the very poorest class of society.

"People's Palace." "An institution in East London, on Mile End Road, intended for the recreation and amusement, the intellectual and material advancement of the vast artisan population of East End."

"Toynbee Hall." "An institution in White-chapel, London, founded in 1885 as the outcome of plans set on foot by the members of Oxford and Cambridge Universities, to provide education and J-Feb.

the means of recreation and enjoyment for the people of the poor districts of London. It was organized and named in memory of Arnold Toynbee (1852-83), a graduate of Oxford, who devoted himself to work among the poor."

"University extension." "A scheme originating in England for extending the advantages of University instruction by means of lectures and classes at important centers."

P. 287. "*Bŭ-nā fī'de*," Latin. In good faith, in reality.

P. 290. "Bureaucratic service." Service of the nature of a bureaucracy, or of the concentration of power in administrative bureaus or departments of public business.

"RENAISSANCE AND MODERN ART."

P. 15. "Renaissance." See note on page 104 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October.

P. 22. "Ranke" [rān'keh].

"Rizzio" [rit'se-o]. A favorite of Mary, Queen of Scots, who was assassinated by Darnley, the husband of Mary, and his accomplices.

P. 23. "Leonardo da Vinci." For the pronunciation of this and other proper names see the index of the text-book.

P. 24. "Torricelli" [tŏr-rē-chel'lee]. "Versailles" [ver-sālz]. "Schwetzingen" [shwet'sing-en]. "Hesse Cassel" [hess kas'sel]. "Valenciennes" [vā-lŏn-se-enn].

P. 25. "Gregorovius" [grā-gŏ-rŏ've-oos].

P. 27. "Sistine Chapel." "The papal private chapel in the Vatican, constructed by Pope Sixtus IV. (whence the name). Architecturally it is insignificant; but it is world-famous for the paintings which cover its walls.

P. 29. "Ghiberti" [ge-ber'tee, g hard as in get].

P. 35. "Exarchate of Ravenna." "The Byzantine dominion in Italy after its reconquest from the Ostrogoths by Narses in the sixth century, called from its capital the exarchate of Ravenna."

P. 39. "Synchronisms" [sin'krŏ-niz'ms]. A Greek derivative from two words, meaning with, and time. The concurrence of two or more events in time; simultaneousness.

P. 46. "Capitals." Ornaments of various projecting moldings placed at the top of columns or pillars.

P. 47. "Engaged columns." Columns built in the wall so as to appear as if a part of each of them was concealed; known also as embedded columns. See pictures on pages 46 and 55 of text-book.

"Entablatures." Those parts of a structure which "consist of horizontal members supported by columns or vertical members, which rest upon the columns and extend upward to the roof." They include the architrave, the frieze, and the cornice.

"Pediment." The part of a building corresponding to what is commonly known as a gable; the low triangular part crowning the fronts of buildings in the Greek styles, especially over porticoes. See pictures on pages 46, 51, 62, 69, 90, of text-book.

"An-thē-mī-ōns." Ornaments consisting of conventionalized flowers or foliage. See cut on page 59 of text-book.

"Guilloche" [gi-lōsh', g hard]. An ornamental pattern formed of intersected or interwoven lines, like braided work.

P. 51. "Gar'goyles." A term applied to the spouts placed at the base of roofs in Gothic buildings, for the purpose of carrying rain water far from the walls. They most frequently represented animals or fantastic creatures, from the throats of which the rain water was discharged.

"FROM CHAUCER TO TENNYSON."

P. 111. "Scrīve'ner." A professional writer, one whose chief occupation is the drawing of wills and contracts.

P. 112. "Humane." Tending to humanize or refine, applied to the elegant or polite branches of literature.

P. 113. "Heine" [hi'neh], Heinrich. (1799?-1856.) A German poet and metaphysical writer.

"L'Allegro" [lāl-lā'grō]. Italian. The Mirthful (Man).—"Il Pën-se-rō'sō". The Pensive (Man).

"Cir'ce." [Both c's are soft, like s.] The sorceress who changed the companions of the Greek hero, Ulysses, into swine.

P. 114. "*La Semaine*." A French expression for the week.

"The Porch." The school of Stoics. So called from the portico on the agora, or market place, where the Stoic philosopher Zeno used to resort with his followers.

P. 115. "Ar-ē-ō-pa-gīt'i-cä." "The title of the work is obtained from the Greek Ar-e-ōp'a-gus or Mars Hill, a mo t near Athens, where the most famous court of justice of antiquity held its sittings. Professor Morley thinks it is also in allusion to the 'Areopagitic' of the Greek author Isocrates. 'Milton was seeking to persuade the High Court of Parliament, our Areopagus, to reform itself by revoking a tyrannical decree against the liberty of the press.'"

P. 116. "Vaudois [vo-dwä] Protestants." Also called the Waldenses. The names are both taken from the name of the founder of this Christian de-

nomination, Peter Waldo, or Pierre de Vaux. The members of this sect were persecuted and large numbers of them put to death for heresy.

P. 117. "Väl-löm-brō'sä." From the Latin words *valles umbrosa*, shady valley. A famous valley east of Florence which contained an abbey of the same name, but it was suppressed in 1863. The monastery and church are now occupied by the royal school of forestry, opened in 1869.

P. 118. "Ab'di-el." The only seraph who remained loyal when Satan excited revolt among the angels of heaven.

"Ag-o-nis'tēs."

"The Purple Islander." Phineas Fletcher, so called because he was the author of "The Purple Island," an allegorical poem on the human body, published in 1633.

P. 121. "Corneille" [kor-nāl or kor-nay].—"Wycherley" [wich'er-ly].—"Villiers" [vil'yerz].

P. 122. "*Coup de Grace*" [koo de grāz]. French. A finishing stroke.—"Bel esprit" [bel ās-prē]. A brilliant mind.

"Pepys" [pēp'is or peps].

"Naïve" [nä-ēv]. French. Artless, frank.

P. 123. "New Lights." The Separatists, a sect which seceded from the Congregationalists, derisively so called.

"Fifth Monarchy Men." "A sect of millenarians of the time of Cromwell. Christ's kingdom was to be the fifth and last in the series of which those of Assyria, Persia, Greece, and Rome were the preceding four; hence their self-assumed title."

"Ranters." A term applied by way of reproach to the members of an Antinomian sect of the Commonwealth period.

"Don Quixote" [don ke-ho'te or don quix'ot]. The hero of a Spanish romance bearing the same name, written by Cer-vān-tēs. The hero's squire is Sancho Panza [sang'ko pan'zä].

P. 125. "Phedre" [fādr].—"Iph-i-gē'nie."

"*La Feint Astrologue*." The False Astrologer.—"L' Etourdi." The Heedless One.

"*Fourberies de Scapin*." The Cheats of Scapin.

"*Ecole des Femmes*." School of Wives.

P. 126. "Etherege" [ēth'er-ēj].—"Farquhar" [farkwār or fark'er].—"Van Brugh" [brūo].

"Mrs. Aphra Behn" [bēn]. (1640-1689.) When very young this woman, then Miss Johnson, sailed with her father for South America. In her later writings she introduced the character of a native prince whom she met there. Returning to England she married a London merchant and was thrown into the society of Charles II., who was pleased with her vivacity. He sent her to Antwerp during the Dutch war, where drawing about her many admirers, she detected the plots formed by Admirals De Witt and De Ruyter of burning the English ships in the river Thames. She quickly informed the court, but the

message was not believed, until the event proved it true. Chagrined, she renounced politics and returned to England, devoting herself to her writings and to gay society.

"*Bourgeois*" [boor-zhvä]. French. Belonging to the middle class, wanting in refinement, common.

P. 127. "*Politesse de cœur*." French. Politeness of heart; true politeness.

P. 128. "Marinists" [ma-rē'nists.] Poets of the school of Marini (1569-1625), or rather a large class of imitators of this poet, who was an Italian. He led the poets of his century "into that labored and affected style which his own richness and vivacity of imagination were so well calculated to recommend."

P. 129. "Sacheverel" [sa-shēv'er-el].

"Heroic couplet." A form of verse adapted to the treatment of exalted themes. The following is an example of a heroic couplet:

"Achilles' wrath to Greece the direful spring
Of woes unnumbered, heavenly goddess, sing."

"Distichs" [dis'tiks]. Couplets.

P. 130. "Alexandrine." See note on page 496 of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for January.

"St. Cecilia's day." November 22. St. Cecilia was a Christian martyr who met death at Rome in 230. She has generally been considered the patron saint of music.

P. 131. "*Annus Mirabilis*." Latin for wonderful year.

"Pō'ēt-ās-ter" A dabbler in verse making.

P. 132. "*Religio Laici*" [re-līg'i-lā'i-sī]. A Layman's Religion.

"Boccaccio" [bōk-kāt'chō]. (1313-1375.) An Italian novelist.

P. 133. "Conventicles." Assemblies for religious worship.

"Crusoe's cave and Aladdin's palace." Stories to be found in "Robinson Crusoe" and "Arabian Nights."

P. 136. "Rochefoucauld" [rōsh-foo-kō]. (1747-1827.) A French philanthropist and politician.

P. 137. "The ombre [om'ber] party." A party

playing a certain game of cards.

"Rosicrucian" [rōz-i-krū'shan]. The Rosicrucians were members of a secret society supposed to exist in the fifteenth century, who pretended to a knowledge of occult science and also of the mysteries of medicine, alchemy, and astrology. The name means dew cross, and was chosen because dew was considered by the ancients the most powerful solvent of gold, and the cross in alchemy was the symbol of light.

P. 138. "Pe-rīph'rā-sīs." A roundabout manner of speaking; the use of unnecessary words.

P. 141. "*Ubi saeva indignatio*," etc. Latin. Where cruel disdain is no longer able to lacerate the heart.

"Houyhnhnms" [hoo'in'mz]. The name is supposed to be an imitation of the neighing of horses. A community of horses described as endowed with reason.

P. 143. "Bā'vi-ād and Mac'vi-ād." The names are taken from the inferior poets mentioned in Vergil's "Eclogues,"—

"He may with foxes plow and milk he-goats,
Who praises Bavius or on Mævius dotes."

"Cockneys." A term for Londoners.

P. 144. "*Nibelungen Lied*" [nē'be loong-en lēd].

P. 146. "Mū'ni-ment room." "A room in cathedrals, colleges, collegiate churches, castles, or public buildings, purposely made for keeping deeds, charters, writings, etc."

"Scān'sion." The art of scanning or measuring a verse by feet in order to determine whether the quantities are rightly observed.

P. 147. "Spencerian stanza." The style of versification used by Spenser in his "Faerie Queene."

P. 148. "*Sē-ri-d'ēm*." Serially, one after another.

P. 149. "Vir-tū-ō'sō." An Italian word, meaning one who is excellent, who excels in taste. A student of things by observation; a philosopher who experiments.

P. 153. "*Leiden des Jungen Werther*." The sorrows of Young Werther.

REQUIRED READINGS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"THE LIFE OF A BRITISH SOLDIER."

1. "Tommy Atkins." A general name for a private in the British army.

2. "Took the queen's shilling." A common saying in Great Britain, meaning that one has enlisted as a soldier. Before 1879 when the practice was discontinued by the passing of the Army Discipline and Regulation Act, every new recruit, upon enlisting, accepted a shilling from the recruiting officer.

3. "Reveillē" [re-vāl'ye, sometimes rēv-e-lē]. A French word, meaning an awakening, an alarm. The beat of a drum or a bugle sound at break of day giving notice to soldiers or sailors that it is time to rise.

4. "H. M. S." Her Majesty's ship.

"WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THE PLANETS."

1. "Constellations." A Latin derivative from two words meaning with or together, and to shine, and the latter word comes from *stella*, a star. Groups of fixed stars.

2. "Ec-cēn'tric." From two Greek words meaning out and center. Differing from a perfect circle, said generally of an ellipse, especially of an elliptical orbit.

3. "Pēr-i-hē'li-ōn" The Greek word *peri* means near, and *helios*, sun. In the word *hē'li-on*, the prefix *apo* (the *o* being dropped) means from, away.

4. "Schiaparelli." [skyā-pā-re'lē]. Giovanni Virginio. (1835—.) An Italian astronomer.

5. "Lune-shaped." In the shape of a crescent or half-moon. The Latin word for moon is *luna*.

6. "Spéc'trō-scope." An instrument used to produce a spectrum of the light from any source. The spectrum is the "continuous band of light showing the successive prismatic colors, or the isolated lines or bands of color, observed when the radiation from such a source as the sun, or an ignited vapor in a gas flame, is viewed after having been passed through a prism or reflected from a diffraction grating."

7. "Tal'is-man." A word coming originally from Greek, meaning a religious rite, initiation, a consecrated object. A supposed charm consisting of a magical figure cut or engraved under certain superstitious observances of the configuration of the heavens. Any means of obtaining extraordinary results; a charm.

8. "Gāl-ilē'ō." (1564—1642.) The great Italian astronomer and philosopher who advocated the Copernican theory of the revolution of the earth about the sun.

9. "Laplace" [lä-pläs], Marquis Pierre Simon de. (1746—1827.) The celebrated French astronomer who developed the nebular theory of the solar system, originated by Kant and Sir William Herschel. The nebular hypothesis supposes "the solar system to be the result of the gradual condensation of a nebula under the action of the mutual gravitation of its parts."

"SUNDAY READINGS."

1. "Guillemots." [gŭ'le-mōts]. Arctic, web-footed birds of the family *Alcidae*.

2. "Au-rīc'ū-lās." A species of primrose; found native in the Swiss Alps.

"THE BEGINNING AND THE ENDING."

1. "Archives" [är'kīvz]. From a Greek word for government house. The name is used to denote the place in which documents, especially public documents, are kept, and also to denote the documents themselves.

2. "As-si-dū'i-ty." Derived from two Latin words meaning near or to, and to sit, hence literally, to sit down to. Constant or close application; diligence. "He is assiduous who sits close to his work."

3. "Pertinacity." Latin *per*, through, through-out, and *tenere*, to hold, or the adjective *tenax*, tenacious, persistent, unyielding.

"THE WORLD'S DEBT TO ELECTRICITY."

1. "Pessimists." From the Latin adjective for bad in the superlative degree, *pessimus*, worst. A name applied to those persons who exaggerate the evils of life, who believe that the world is as bad as possible.

2. "Puck." "A playful, mischievous elf in folklore." His boast was that he could "put a girdle round about the earth in forty minutes."

3. "E-lēc-trō'l'y-sis." The decomposition of a chemical compound into its constituent parts by an electric current. In the arts it is applied to the depositing of certain metals, as gold, silver, copper, etc., from their solutions by means of the slow action of an electric current. Its most important applications are electroplating and electrolysis, the former being the art of coating metals and other materials with an adherent film of the metal in solution; and the latter, the art of making "a copy in metal (precipitated by galvanic or electric action, usually in the form of a thin sheet) of any engraved or molded surface, of wood cuts, pages of composed type, etc."

4. "Kant," Immanuel. (1724—1804.) A German philosopher, "one of the most influential thinkers of modern times." During his whole life he is said never to have been further away than thirty miles from Königsberg, his native place. He is called the founder of "critical philosophy."

5. "Goethe" [gō'teh], Johann Wolfgang von. (1749—1832.) A famous German poet, dramatist, and prose writer, the greatest name in German literature.

6. "Helmholtz," Ferdinand von. (1821—1894.) A German physiologist and physicist, famed for his discoveries in acoustics and optics.

"KINGSLEY'S 'WESTWARD HO!'"

1. "Anne Askew." An English Protestant lady who was committed to the flames in 1546. Her husband had turned her out of doors because she joined the reformers. "Her denial of the corporeal presence of Christ's body in the eucharist caused her arrest and committal to prison," and her death.

2. "Ochidore" [ōk'ī-dōr]. A shore crab.

3. "Ceiba" [sā'ī-ba]. The silk-cotton tree.

"FAMOUS BRIDGES OF THE WORLD."

1. "Al-cān'tā-rā." A town in Spain on the Tagus River. The famous bridge was built by the Roman Trajan.

2. "Aqueducts." Latin *aqua*, water, *ductus*, conveyance, pipe, canal. Channels for conducting water from one place to another.

3. "False works." Temporary structures by the aid of which permanent ones are erected.

4. "Viaducts." *Via* is the Latin word for way or road, hence the word is used as the name of bridges erected for the purpose of leading a road or a railway over a valley; any elevated roadway which is an artificial construction.

5. "Pontoon." From the Latin word *pons*, a bridge. Any framework or floating structure forming or supporting a bridge; wooden, flat-bottomed

boats, forming a portable float, used in building bridges.

6. "Cán-ti-lě'v'ers." Blocks or large brackets of stone, metal, or wood, built into a wall and projecting from it, to support moldings, balconies, etc. A cantilever bridge is "composed of two parts reaching out from the opposite banks and supported near the middle of their own length on piers which they overhang, thus forming cantilevers which meet over the space to be spanned or sustain a third portion, to complete the connection."

7. "Traveler." Same as a traveling crane. A machine for moving loads.

8. "Bās'cule." Originally a French word meaning swing, balance, see-saw. "A drawbridge arranged with a counterpoise so that as the floor of the bridge is raised, the counterpoise descends into a pit prepared for it."

"COUNT MOLTKE, FIELD MARSHAL."

1. "Fabius Cunctator." A name given to Fabius Maximus, the Roman general, on account of his cautious military tactics against Hannibal. *Cunctator* was the Latin name for delayer.

2. "Pallas Athene." The goddess of wisdom and war among the Greeks.

3. "Hec'a-tombs." A Greek word for a great

public sacrifice; any slaughter of persons or animals.

4. "Dæ-mon'ic." Like a *dæmon*, which in mythology was a supernatural agent or intelligence, a spirit lower than the gods, which acted as a good angel to man; a genius. The *dæmon* of Socrates is always cited as an example.

5. "Hannibal." (247—183 B. C.) The great Carthaginian general who fought Rome and was conquered.

6. "Frederick," the Great. (1712—1786.) The king of Prussia.

7. "Königgratz" [kō'nec-rĕts]. A fortified town of Bohemia, where in 1866 was gained the great victory of the Prussians over the Austrians. The battle is more commonly called the battle of Sadowa, Sadowa being a small village eight miles from Königgratz, and the actual scene of the engagement.

8. "Generalstaff." "A body of officers forming the central office of the army of a nation, and it acts in a sense, as the personal staff of the commander-in-chief, or of the king or other chief ruler."

9. "£ 9." An English pound is equal to \$4.86.

10. "Paladin." One of the knightly champions who accompanied Charlemagne to war; hence any heroic knight or champion.

11. "*Semper felix, faustus, augustus.*" Latin, Always happy, fortunate, worthy of honor.

12. "Pan-egyr'ics." Eulogies.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

1. Q. How has the political revolution of nineteenth century England been achieved? A. By Parliamentary legislation reinforced by public opinion.

2. Q. How is the Reform Act of 1832 characterized? A. As a signal triumph of the popular will, over vested right and hereditary privilege.

3. Q. What effect had this Act upon government? A. It transferred the balance of power from the landed aristocracy to the manufacturers and merchants.

4. Q. When was universal suffrage secured and the House of Commons made to represent the common people? A. By the Reform Act of 1884.

5. Q. To make intelligible the history of English politics for the last twenty-five years what is necessary? A. Some comprehension of the Irish question.

6. Q. What did the Catholic Emancipation of 1829 secure to the Irish? A. The right to send representatives to Parliament.

7. Q. When was the disestablishment of the

Protestant church in Ireland accomplished? A. In 1869.

8. Q. What is the Irish demand for Home Rule? A. The right to have an independent legislature which shall bear to the British Parliament such relations as an American state bears to the government of the United States.

9. Q. What surprising resolution recently passed the House of Commons, by a vote of 147 to 145? One proposing the abolition of the House of Lords.

10. Q. What effect upon the population had the introduction of improved methods of agriculture? A. It drove from the land the stalwart yeomen to make room for tenant farmers.

11. Q. What effect upon the people had the introduction of improved machinery? A. For the first five decades the laboring classes deteriorated.

12. Q. In what did the modern antagonism between capital and labor arise? A. In the factory organization of industry.

13. Q. What is the result of all the efforts made for the betterment of manufacturing industries? A. The well-being of the factory operative is far in

advance of that of the agricultural laborer.

14. Q. What was England's colonial policy in the eighteenth century? A. She regarded a colony as a piece of property to be exploited in the interest of the country owning it.

15. Q. What is the hope of sanguine statesmen regarding the British Colonies? A. That they shall be joined in a great federation.

"RENAISSANCE AND MODERN ART."

1. Q. What marked the beginning of modern times? A. The Renaissance.

2. Q. To what does the term Renaissance especially apply? A. To Italy in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries and to its influence on other lands.

3. Q. What was the Renaissance? A. A rebirth of civilization, of literature, of art.

4. Q. What two preceding periods of history does the word Renaissance imply? A. That of the Roman Empire, and the Middle Ages.

5. Q. What does a study of the contemporary history of Europe in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries reveal? A. That Italy was the teacher of Europe and that the Renaissance appears as the controlling fact.

6. Q. Why did the art of the Renaissance assume such proportions as to dwarf other claims to glory? A. The chief reason is that the art of that time still remains absolutely superior to any produced since, while in regard to all other claims the exact opposite is true.

7. Q. Name two things essential to a reasonable philosophy of the greatness of the Old Masters. A. To show what produced it and why it did not last.

8. Q. With what was the greatest development of Italian art connected? A. With the period of Italy's unexampled commercial prosperity.

9. Q. With what was the decline of Italian Renaissance art connected? A. The political overthrow of the small Italian principalities and free states.

10. Q. With what was this decline of Italian Renaissance at home contemporaneous? A. The spread of the Italian Renaissance over Europe.

11. Q. In the period of Renaissance art what two divisions are of especial importance? A. The time of development and triumph at home, between 1400 and 1530, and the time of expansion over Europe and relative decline in Italy.

12. Q. In what countries did art then successively rise to commanding importance? A. In Northern Europe, England, and in the New World.

13. Q. Between the production of what two masterpieces of art did the zenith of the Italian Renaissance date? A. The "Last Supper" and the "Last Judgment."

14. Q. How long had the ruins of Rome remained unnoticed before the Renaissance? A. For a thousand years.

15. Q. What is the most obvious characteristic of the Renaissance style of architecture? A. The use of the Greek Orders as they were continued by the Romans, giving the Greco-Roman forms of art.

"FROM CHAUCER TO TENNYSON."

1. Q. How is Milton ranked among English poets? A. As the most scholarly and the most truly classical.

2. Q. What new note did Milton introduce into English poetry? A. The passion for truth and the feeling of religious sublimity.

3. Q. What event brought Milton back from his travels in Italy? A. The breach between Charles I. and Parliament.

4. Q. What part did Milton take in this contest? A. He was a most valiant soldier, fighting for liberty by means of a great succession of writings on various questions at issue.

5. Q. How is "Paradise Lost" described? A. As an epic of English Puritanism and of Protestant Christianity, the sublimest of all epics.

6. Q. What is the most heroic thing in this heroic poem? A. Milton himself.

7. Q. How does Milton's later work compare with his earlier? A. It has less of the graces of poetry, growing severe even to ruggedness, but in structure and thought it gains.

8. Q. Who are classed with Milton as the poets of his time? A. Andrew Marvell and George Wither.

9. Q. What period is described as a descent from poetry to prose? A. The Stuart Restoration.

10. Q. What was the characteristic literature of this time? A. Criticism, satire, and burlesque.

11. Q. In what book is the social life of this time best reflected? A. In the diary of Samuel Pepys.

12. Q. What was, perhaps, the most popular book of its time? A. Butler's "Hudibras."

13. Q. Who among the literary figures of this time has been called the first of moderns? A. Dryden.

14. Q. For what purpose did Dryden use his energetic verse? A. As a vehicle for political argument and satire.

15. Q. How far did the indebtedness of the English stage to the French reach? A. Not only to a general adoption of its dramatic methods, but to direct imitation and translation, some of Dryden's dramas being adaptations of French writings.

16. Q. Name one among the few books of this time whose shaping influences lay in the past. A. "Pilgrim's Progress," the greatest of religious allegories.

17. Q. What is Pope's masterpiece? A. The "Rape of the Lock."

18. Q. How is Pope estimated? A. As a great literary artist but not a great poet.

19. Q. What two satires written by Dryden and Pope respectively preserve the names of several petty

writers who but for this would be unknown? A. "Mac Flecknoe" and the "Dunciad."

20. Q. The name of what prominent writer is connected with the first appearance of literature in permanent periodical form? A. Addison.

21. Q. As what is Addison best known to posterity? A. As a humorist, a sly observer of mankind, and a delightful talker.

22. Q. Who is called Addison's latest and best literary descendant? A. Washington Irving.

23. Q. Who is the greatest of the Queen Anne wits and one of the most savage and powerful satirists that ever lived? A. Dean Swift.

24. Q. What poem opened a new field in English literature, which had nature as its theme? A. Thompson's "Seasons."

25. Q. What two writers are celebrated for producing literary forgeries? A. James Macpherson and Thomas Chatterton.

26. Q. Whose poem is the representative poem of the second half of the eighteenth century? A. Gray's "Elegy Written in a Country Church-yard."

27. Q. The fame of what literary man has been preserved less by his own writings than by a famous biography? A. Samuel Johnson.

28. Q. Who was the author of this biography of Johnson? A. James Boswell.

29. Q. Which one of his works best entitles Johnson to remembrance? A. His "Dictionary of the English Language."

30. Q. Who was the first English novelist in the modern sense of the word? A. Samuel Fielding.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—V.

1. What was the most original product and expression of the English Renaissance?

2. On what work were the first English plays founded, by whom, and for what purpose?

3. By whom were the plays usually written?

4. What name was given to the first English plays and why?

5. How long did plays of this nature continue?

6. By what were they succeeded?

7. What further secularized the drama?

8. By what name was the first legitimate comedy known?

9. When and by whom was the first tragedy produced?

10. What was the first theater erected in England?

WOMAN'S WORLD.—V.

1. Who was "the first person commissioned to go and proclaim the glad tidings of Christ's resurrection"?

2. The establishment of what large and excellent Protestant school for deaconesses revived that order of Christian workers from the oblivion in which it had been entombed since the 10th or 11th century?

3. What country and what age first opened to women the pulpit and the pastorate?

4. The preaching of what woman marks the entrance of women into the work of the Christian ministry in America?

5. What great help to the progress of women in public service did Lucretia Mott render by her exemplary domestic life?

6. Who was called the "real foundress of Methodism" in England?

7. Owing to her superior leadership, by what name rather than the names of the men associated with her, were the churches established by Lady Huntingdon, known?

8. What church first admitted women to its theological school for training for the ministry in America?

9. What is the "Woman's Ministerial Conference"? When organized?

10. Who was the first heathen converted to Christianity in America?

ART.—V.

1. What place from the seventh to the thirteenth century was the great capital of the arts?

2. What are the characteristics of Byzantine pictures?

3. What gave the first impulse to the revival of art in Italy?

4. What formed the chief theme of early Italian painting?

5. Where were the best paintings of this time executed?

6. What led the artists of this period, the Gothic, to aim at "an impressive representation of their subject, rather than at technical skill"?

7. To whom has the revival of painting in Italy been ascribed?

8. What great genius took the second step in progress in painting, throwing off in large part Byzantine traditions?

9. Of whom does tradition relate that the painter Cimabue discovered him, a shepherd boy, drawing the figure of sheep, which showed so much genius that he took the young artist home and taught him?

10. What city in the early Renaissance period became one of the greatest art capitals of the age?

CURRENT EVENTS.—V.*

1. When were the first surveys for a Nicaragua Canal made by the Americans?

2. What led the congress of engineers, called by M. de Lesseps in 1879 to consider a plan for cutting a canal through the Isthmus of Panama, to decide in favor of the unfortunate Panama route over the more feasible Nicaragua route, which was also considered?

3. What is the "safety fund" feature in the "Baltimore plan" of currency?

4. Who was known in recent London history as the "Man with the Red Flag"?

5. Do the members of the English House of Commons receive financial compensation for their services?

6. What is known as the Burns' Wages Fund?

7. What amendment to the immigration laws referring to needed action on the part of the United States regarding prospective immigrants, was suggested by the fourteenth annual convention of the American Federation of Labor, which met in December in Denver?

8. Who wrote, in collaboration with Robert Louis Stevenson, two books called "In the Wrong Box" and "The Wreckers"?

9. What action on the part of the United States government, as represented in China recently, gave offense to Japan?

10. When did Signor Crispi enter the Italian Parliament? What office in the army had he held under Garibaldi?

5. "The Defense of Poesy," by Sir Philip Sydney, who, according to Hallam, was the first good prose writer in any positive sense of the word. 6. His "Essay on Dramatic Poetry." 7. John Dryden, whose "Absalom and Achitophel" has been called the noblest portrait gallery in poetry. 8. "Bernesque poetry is the clearest reflection of that religious and moral skepticism which was one of the characteristics of Italian social life in the sixteenth century, and which showed itself more or less in all the works of that period." 9. Lord Byron's "Don Juan." 10. Elizabeth Barrett Browning.

WOMAN'S WORLD.—IV.

1. That of physicians to women. 2. The rapid advancement of science and learning at that time by raising the medical science to a plane that required physicians who wished to keep abreast of the times to possess a higher education, disabled women, who were debarred from acquiring a higher education, from competing with men in medical practice. 3. Miss Elizabeth Blackwell, in 1844, in the Geneva Medical College, N. Y. 4. In 1872 the university declared women eligible to its degrees, soon after admitting them to all its degree examinations and lectures. 5. In 1854 the New York Infirmary, by Drs. Elizabeth Blackwell and Marie Zakzewska. 6. Dr. Sarah Hackett Stevenson, of Chicago, sent by the Illinois State Medical Society, in 1876. 7. Dr. Mary Putnam Jacobi, as clinical lecturer on children's diseases, in a post graduate school opened 1882 in New York. 8. Pennsylvania; Drs. Corson and Atlee. 9. Her philanthropic labors for prisoners and for the better treatment of the indigent insane. 10. It admits women to its medical department on equal terms with men.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR JANUARY.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—IV.

1. Lord Bacon, whose essays are still popular. 2. Sir Richard Steele and Joseph Addison, in 1709, in "The Tatler," succeeded by "The Spectator" in 1711. 3. Macaulay says, "Homer is not more decidedly the first of heroic poets, Shakespeare is not more decidedly the first of dramatists, than Boswell (James) is the first of biographers," and of his "Life of Johnson" he says, "It is assuredly a great, a very great work. We are not sure that there is in the whole history of the human intellect so strange a phenomenon as this book." 4. Matthew Gregory Lewis, an English novelist and dramatist, who at the age of twenty wrote "The Monk," a novel which obtained a large circulation but was stigmatized as pernicious by the strictest moralists.

ART.—IV.

1. Religious teaching. 2. On the walls of the Catacombs in Rome. 3. It was the emblem of Christ, and the usual explanation is, that the Greek word for fish, *ichthus*, is composed of the initial letters of the Greek words for Jesus Christ, the Son of God, the Savior. 4. The Good Shepherd. 5. Because the artists followed the models of their Roman predecessors. 6. The Christian resisting the tempter. 7. A miraculous picture of Christ impressed on a linen cloth which tradition says was offered to the Savior to wipe His face on the way to the crucifixion, by a woman known as St. Veronica. 8. By the law of Moses they were not allowed to make any graven images and likenesses. 9. The Iconoclastic controversy, the quarrel about the use of pictures and images in the churches. 10. The second council of Nice, held in 787. Alcuin.

*This set of questions is based upon the topics treated in *Current History and Opinion* in the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

CURRENT EVENTS.—IV.

1. No; until the time of President Jefferson I

was in the form of an address delivered by the president in person. 2. It fixes upon Congress the responsibility connected with the measures of which it treats. 3. The post office department. 4. The *Constitution* (or *Old Ironsides*), the *President*, the *United States*, the *Chesapeake*, the *Constellation*, and

the *Congress*. 5. The *Atlanta*, the *Boston*, the *Chicago*, and the *Dolphin*. 6. The *Minneapolis*. 7. February 11, 1889. 8. Barcelona, during its insurrection against Spain. 9. In the Ohio Temperance Crusade. 10. In August, 1865, when it was \$2,381,-530.294.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1898.

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"The truth shall make you free."

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FROM Wisconsin comes the following: "I can truly say that the C. L. S. C. course of reading has been to me, a farmer's wife, a great inspiration. I hope to graduate at Monona Lake next summer."

FROM Michigan, one of the older members of the class reports: "The memoranda have been unavoidably delayed. Cares and infirmities often caused the burden of work to be very heavy. Yet I enjoyed the reading for the year. It has freshened up the thoughts of an old brain, and strengthened the conviction that the best things in the world's experience never die."

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CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

FROM Kansas comes the following report of a '96: "Enclosed find memoranda for '93-4. This completes my second year's work. I have filled them out under difficulties, but I can truly say that the two

years' work has been a source of great pleasure and profit, and while passing through deep waters it has been as a strong right arm to sustain me."

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

"Veni, vidi, vici."

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Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Dayton, O.*Treasurer and Trustee*—Shirley P. Austin, Meadville, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

It may be well to explain to members of the Class of '97 that the fifty cent fee is an annual one, and that those who want the membership book for the current year and who have not already sent the fee, should do so. Blanks for this purpose have been mailed to the class, but as circulars often go astray in the mail, this reminder may reach some who have failed to receive the circular.

It is hoped that the Romans may prove to be the most persevering of all Chautauqua classes. The fact that they were enrolled during the panic year seems to argue that the class is made of material which is not easily dismayed. Let the '97's prove true to the spirit of their famous motto.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

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FLOWER—VIOLET.

THE Rev. A. Crane of Bombay, India, writes that he has eight members pledged for the Class of '98

and hopes to add four more to the number. India has for many years contributed a number of members to each of the C. L. S. C. classes.

A MEMBER of the Class of '98 in New York City writes: "Above my desk, where I keep my Chautauqua books, I have in pen and ink—'The Laniers, Class of '98. The humblest life that lives may be divine. Clifford Lanier, C. L. S. C., Oct. 1st, 1894.' To the right I have fastened a bunch of artificial violets." This may be a suggestion to others.

GRADUATES.

MUCH interest in the Current History Course is being shown by the graduates. A member of '91, who has recently enrolled, refers to it as "a new movement for removing obstacles in the way of the wayfaring man."

A GRADUATE of '94 sends the following report: "I am glad the course fell in my way just as I was beginning my married life. Our town is not a literary place and it is difficult to get the people interested in any literary effort. I helped organize a class of about a dozen members, but one year and a few

months was the brief life of the circle, and I alone am left to graduate. I feel lost without this reading course, and find it difficult to pick up books to read without some definite aim. I think I shall engage in the regular college courses."

A TOUCHING letter comes from a member in Missouri: "I have many regrets over the work of the past year. As you will see by the papers it has not been thorough, but with losses and crosses, with much sorrow over the death of a beloved child, I have plodded on glad of a diverting channel. My work is not good, but by financial depressions obliged to do my own work, I could not make it better. C. L. S. C. study is a grand work, elevating and helpful even in the lowest walks of life."

TO THE CLASS OF '91: If all members who have anything of interest to record or information that should be preserved in the class history, will please send the same to the historian, the history will be more interesting than it otherwise can be, as the historian read alone, and has met but few of the class.

Address, (Miss) MARIE ANTOINETTE DANIELS,
Box 255, Chautauqua, N. Y.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
W. E. GLADSTONE DAY—February 5.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
WILLIAM WORDSWORTH DAY—March 15.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.
RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

REPORTS from state and county secretaries continue to show much activity in all parts of the field. While it is too late to hope for much in the way of new organizations for the current year, plans are being matured for the campaign next fall.

Mr. William G. Lightfoote, of Ontario County, N. Y., has organized an active circle at the town of Halls.

The secretary for Cumberland County, N. J., Mrs. A. H. Chance, has sent circulars widely through her county, with personal letters to each place. She reports the circle in Vineland as in a most flourishing condition. It expects to try some of the Chautauqua Extension Lectures later in the season.

Mr. Warren S. Rehm, secretary for Lancaster County, Pa., writes of his experience with Chautauqua work in the case of individuals who have had

little intellectual life heretofore. He is interested in university extension work as well as in Chautauqua, and hopes in this way to make each help the other.

The secretary for the southern states, Miss Love, reports a very important gain in Chautauqua work among the people of the South. Miss Love is also taking charge of the C. L. S. C. department of one of the southern assembly papers, and in her connection with the coming exposition at Atlanta, hopes to have an opportunity to bring the C. L. S. C. into prominence.

Miss Caddie Whaley the Secretary for Meigs County, Ohio, organized a public meeting for the presentation of Chautauqua work, with prospect of some circles as a result.

The work in Oskaloosa is very well organized, owing to the wise leadership of the state secretary of Iowa, Mrs. A. E. Shipley.

Mrs. M. M. Stoddard, of Montgomery County, Iowa, represents an active circle, which has co-operated with her heartily in the county secretary work. Letters have been written, circulars sent to editors, and plans are being made for active effort next fall.

Mrs. Rosina A. Hogaboom, of Union County, Iowa, wrote that during the fall much interest was manifested and that they hoped to report several new circles in addition to the one with which she was connected. Later she wrote that she had been given an opportunity to present the work at a teachers' meeting, and had been invited to attend a later meeting and aid in the formation of a teachers' circle. A little circle of lawyers has also been organized among five members of the profession who occupy rooms in the same building. The county papers have been very willing to publish notices sent them.

Nebraska stands at the head of all the states in the number of its county secretaries. At present forty-one have been reported through the efforts of Mr. Hardy, the state secretary. The secretaries represent persons of many different occupations—ministers, public school principals, teachers, married women and others, who are in various ways seeking to bring Chautauqua work to the attention of those who do not appreciate the opportunities which it offers.

Mrs. Blakeley from Gage County, Neb., writes, "The work is gaining slowly in our county." Circles are reported from Beatrice and Wymore, with a number of individual readers in many parts of the field.

Mrs. Dawson, the Pacific Coast secretary, reports much correspondence with circles and individual readers. Circulars have been sent to county institutes, and circles and new members have been reported from all parts of the coast. A recent circle formed in the Epworth League at Santa Clara shows how successfully Chautauqua work may be utilized in connection with this organization.

In Colorado a Chautauqua convention has recently been held in Denver, and a Chautauqua alumni association formed at the close of the meeting. More than forty graduates are to be found in the city, and these are to be given a definite share in the extension of the work.

NEW CIRCLES.

CANADA.—The budget of letters from Ontario brings news of circles recently formed at Niagara Falls South, Gravenhurst, and Hillsburg, and of a graduate circle at Galt, organized to study the English History Course.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—A number of '98's and '97's form a circle at New Hampton.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Boston has some enthusiastic Chautauquans known as Modern Athenians.

CONNECTICUT.—Fine circles report from Nichols,

Willimantic, and Plymouth.—The old Indian word Unquowa, meaning "seek farther," serves the society of Chautauquans at Fairfield for both name and motto.—The class at New Canaan organized promptly in the fall with thirty members, five of whom are graduates. Meetings are held each fortnight, with an extra meeting about once in six weeks, at which times especial programs are given.—There is a class at Norwich.

NEW YORK.—Mutual Improvement Circle is small, but capable. Its members meet weekly and read aloud the week's allotment. It is their custom to devote thirty minutes to pronunciation.—Gladstonian Circle of New York City, has bright prospects, as have also the circle of thirty members at Clyde, Croton Falls Circle of twenty-one, the class of twenty-five at Fleming, and the Calvary Baptist Church Circle of Albany.—Halls has a new circle, and in Buffalo C. L. S. C.'s have been organized in Asbury M. E. Church, Grace M. E. Church, Riverside M. E. Church, and Ripley Memorial Church.

NEW JERSEY.—Trenton Circle is a wide-awake organization of thirty-two members.—There are active circles at Woodstown and Dunellen (Watching Circle).—Another circle, as yet unchristened, reports from Jersey City.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The Corinthians of Philadelphia, a valiant club, have for their motto, "Tis only noble to be good." The C. L. S. C. of Tioga, Philadelphia, reports faithful work.—Stanch study clubs are progressing at Dickerson Run, Port Allegheny, Clearfield, Waterford, and Union City.—Warren C. L. S. C. No. 1 was organized October 5, with seventeen members, the membership being limited to twenty-five. By a unanimous vote the circle members agreed to confine their work chiefly to the readings, spending the regular meeting time in discussing them, with perhaps one, not more than two, papers on subjects immediately connected with the week's work.

MARYLAND.—Longfellow Circle of Cambridge, Summit Circle of Centerville, and a class at Baltimore are making deep inroads on their studies.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—An Epworth League C. L. S. C. has begun work at Washington.

VIRGINIA.—"We are receiving constant benefit and pleasure from our C. L. S. C. course," is the report of Blue Ridge Chautauqua Circle at Warrenton.

TEXAS.—The Laniers, a new organization at Tyler, is composed of earnest workers.—There is a class at Detroit.

OHIO.—Belle Center Chautauqua Circle, the circles at Le Roy, Marble Cliff, and Milford (Holmes Circle) send brief reports of encouraging import.—Delphia Circle, at Carrollton, organized by Carroll Circle, has entered with much spirit into the course, and shows as a result, good work in large quantities.

INDIANA.—Study clubs report from Knightstown and South Bend, the latter with twenty-eight members.

ILLINOIS.—Oliver Wendell Holmes Circle, organized under the auspices of the Garfield Boulevard M. E. Church, Chicago, numbers about twenty members. From Chicago comes also news of the activity of Grace Circle, and a circle of sixteen members, of whom four took last year's course and the rest are '98's.—Durand Circle, Kewanee Circle of about thirty members and classes at Mt. Morris Soami, Atwood, and Windsor are progressing with energy.—The class at Vienna has fifteen members. Its meetings are marked with earnestness and enthusiasm.

MICHIGAN.—Arbutus Circle of Cass City, and a circle at Grand Rapids are heard from.

WISCONSIN.—Active circles are located at Elkhorn, Milwaukee and Waterloo.—Oshkosh has a fine circle of twenty-eight members, and in another portion of the city an interesting band of young people has organized for C. L. S. C. study.—A physician at Madison is "reading the third year's work in the special course in English." He writes, "In order to start a circle, I have taken up the undergraduate course. I thoroughly enjoy the course and I am sure I can do both. We have a circle of fifteen members."

MINNESOTA.—There is a thriving circle called the Aurora, at Morton, and classes at Glencoe and Excelsior are well under way with their lessons.—In his letter announcing the formation of a circle at New Ulm, the president of that organization says: "You may be interested in knowing that this circle is being formed in a Turner German town, where ninety-five per cent of the people speak German in their daily life, and where for several years after its founding it was impossible for a minister of the Gospel to receive a courteous hearing. The circle is being undertaken by a few of those interested in Americanizing the town."

IOWA.—Reports full of cheer come from Chaucer Circle at Waterloo, Vincent Chautauqua Circle at Des Moines, and a circle at West Side.—Classes announce organization at Clermont, Greene, and Ocheyedon.

KANSAS.—There is a fine circle at Princeton.—The circle at Ellis has sixteen members, who are making a good record as Chautauquans.

NEBRASKA.—Very promising circles have been formed at Grand Island and Clarks.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—All the members of Hudson's circle are '98's.

COLORADO.—Gladstone Circle at Denver is an ambitious band of women who are taking double lessons in order to catch up with the prescribed program.—Silver Circle of Ouray and a little class at Akron have organized with determination for success.

CALIFORNIA.—Live Oak Circle at Templeton, already in working order last year, resumed its C. L. S. C. functions with a membership of fifteen. Deep interest is shown by all the members. Each one takes his part in the questioning, for which two are appointed each week, one to question on the magazine, the other on the text-books. The class motto is "Eyes turned to the Light," and the sturdy live oak serves as class emblem.—An Epworth League in Santa Clara has formed a fine circle that is doing a high grade of work.

OREGON.—There has been organized a Chautauqua reading circle in Oregon City, West Side, and one in Heppner.

IDAHO.—A class of C. L. S. C. students reports from Pocatello.

REORGANIZED CIRCLES.

OHIO.—St. John's Circle of Toledo re-enlisted with a membership of twenty. New members have been added and all are making fine progress. The circle's programs and other C. L. S. C. items frequently appear in the daily papers.—"Worthington Circle of Springfield," writes the secretary of that club, "commenced the new year's work on the evening of October 2, with an unusually large attendance. The house of the hostess was beautifully decorated with autumn leaves and wild flowers. The three members of the Class of '94 occupied seats of honor on the platform. The new president delivered her inaugural address and announced the committees. Meetings are to be held every Tuesday evening.—Prosperity is reported by classes at Bloomingburg, Fremont, and Piketon.—At Youngstown, Spinoza Chautauqua Circle and a number of guests welcomed in the new year. Music was added to the usual literary program. Among the recitations, quotations, and original productions given by the various members, the most applause greeted Miss Hattie Weil's reading of "The Curtain Falls," to which she added the sequel:

Over the yearning our minds have been taught,
Over the knowledge our studies have brought,
O'er the labor Chautauqua has made us,
Over the kind words that ever repaid us,
Over the hand clasps at parting and meeting,
Over the pulses in sympathy beating;
Now at the end of the flying year,
Year, that to-morrow will not be here,
Steadily onward the New Year calls,
As over the old the curtain falls.

But upon nobler and merrier things,
Upon all, that to strive recompense brings,
Upon all, that our hearts may be better;
Upon naught that a hope could fether.
Upon true thoughts, upon good deeds,
Upon only that which a grand life needs;
Now at the end of the closing year,
Year, that to-morrow will not be here,
As joining the dead past, another year dies;
Upon "A Happy New Year" may the curtain rise.

MISSOURI.—The cheerful annals written by the

secretary of the Martha Gammon C. L. S. C. of Odessa, show that circle to be in a flourishing condition.—The circle at Montgomery City is thriving. One of its young members lately favored it with an original recitation, which entertained all present with its humor.—Clio Circle of Springfield, though disappointed in the fact that its prospective graduate of '95, who was its valued president, is obliged to suspend her C. L. S. C. work for some time, reorganized with flying colors. A rule of the circle provides for the appointment by the president of a program committee of two, to serve one month.—Ten ladies' literary societies and their invited guests assembled at the First M. E. Church of Carthage to listen to a delightful program, the principal feature of which was an address on the "Pleasures and Profits of Literature."

NEBRASKA.—The young circle at Lyons shows a degree of interest and ability not often surpassed even by older circles.—At Fullerton there is a prosperous circle of fourteen members. They hold weekly meetings at the homes of members taken in alphabetical order. Economics has been made the special study. One lesson each month is on the articles in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*. Seven public school teachers in the same place are reading the Chautauqua work as a special course and find it very satisfactory.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—A loyal Chautauquan at Battineau published a charming appeal to "men and women wearied with using the same faculties daily," to accept the "boon" offered them in the invitation to "enter the circle and realize the influence of the class spirit, mottoes, songs and liturgy."—The class at Aberdeen opened its sixth season of work.

CALIFORNIA.—Those circles that are dissipated with their present outlook should take courage from the account of the Gleaners at San Diego: They started with very poor prospects but progressed until at the close of the year they had fifteen enrolled members.

IDAHO.—A desire for mental improvement and attainment of knowledge actuates the proceedings of Rimrock Circle of Genesee, all of whose members "appreciate the intellectual gain received by this practical and socially pleasant system of mutual help." The circle comprises Episcopalians, Congregationalists, Catholics, and Universalists, and its cosmopolitan character is sustained by representatives of three European nations and various distant portions of the United States.

WASHINGTON.—Olympus Circle of Seattle has been very active during the past year. Most of its members belong to the Class of '96. The fourth meeting of each month has been of a social nature, when the programs were lightened by various instructive literary games, and refreshments were served. A few outsiders were invited to attend on these occasions, which have proved so enjoyable to all that they probably will be continued throughout the four years' course.—Sunset Chautauqua Circle of Snohomish held its first meeting promptly in the season. Twenty-one were present, and entered on the new work with bright anticipations.

NEW MEXICO.—The successful circle called the Prescott, at Raton, has grown until it numbers about twenty. Its weekly meetings are always enjoyable and well attended. The secretary of this class has one more year of study before completing the White Seal course.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Travels in
Three Continents.

In a large, handsomely bound, profusely and well illustrated book Dr. Buckley has published the story of his latest travels in Europe, Africa and Asia.* That so long an itinerary embracing so many places of marked interest could be so thoroughly and effectively written up in one volume bears evidence of the author's perfect command over terse and expressive English. Added to what might be called the true instinct of traveling, he enjoyed the further blessing of already being a trained traveler. Starting with a well defined plan he lost no time in unprofitable exploration; he sought directly the chief points of interest, riveted his attention upon them, and questioned

keenly as to what he wished to know about them. These same traits were brought to bear in writing his book, and in a strong, clear style he has reproduced in word pictures striking representations of the scenes he witnessed. His reader rejoices with him in the beauty of Paris, wonders at the fascinating superstition of Lourdes, is lost in romantic reveries at the Alhambra, and is awed by the grandeur of great cathedrals. In Egypt he sought with special eagerness the spots which have proved so enticing to Egyptologists, and his account impresses one anew with the great antiquity of that land. A fine opportunity for the study of Mohammedanism was embraced here, and resumed again when his journey had extended into Asia. Most impressive is his description of Palestine. With the Bible as a guidebook he traversed the land of sacred story, seeking in its present the traces of its

*Travels in Three Continents. By J. M. Buckley, LL.D. 614 pp. \$3.50. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis.

past. A passage expressing joy that the Turks are possessors of Jerusalem rather than the Jews or the Greek or Latin Christians has at first a startling effect upon the reader; but he explains that the former would care little for Christian antiquities, and the latter would be exclusive, while the Turks, as Mohammedans, are impartial. From Greece and Constantinople he wends his homeward way through Hungary, Austria, and France. Rapid as is the movement, large opportunity has been found for a penetrating and discriminating study of the different peoples met, and for a close examination of the puzzling problems pertaining to various lands; pertinent philosophical questions have been inquired into afresh; striking contrasts and similarities both as relating to the past and the present and also to widely differing localities are artistically noted; political interests are discussed; and the effect of the different religious beliefs upon the character of the people is closely studied. Rich alike in information and in interest, in humor and research, in incident and study, the work is an unusually desirable one.

Rare historical pictures are given in *Biography and Letters*. "The Sherman Letters,"* the published correspondence between the renowned brothers, General and Senator Sherman. Beginning in the year 1837, when the General was a cadet at West Point, they form an almost continuous record of most original character of the history of the country from that time on until the year 1891. Stationed as an army officer in different parts of the country, the General's letters furnish an epitome of the events of national interest; while the Senator's letters, written from the standpoint of a politician who has spent year after year in Congress, touch upon causes, conditions, and remedies as connected with the different phases of the development and progress of the nation. Of especial interest is the full correspondence concerning the Civil War; and the double reflection from the soldier's and statesman's standpoints brings out many knotty questions in a clear light.

"The Life and Letters of Charles Loring Brace"† furnish a fine insight into the personal history and the untiring and effective labors of that great philanthropist. His wide travels, furnishing him with fresh, strong material for lessons on his especial life work, are most interestingly described in unconventional style in his letters, and in them is to be found the key to the motive power in many of the actions of his noble life. The biographical part, closely sympathetic as it is, is impartial and discriminating and in good literary style.

*The Sherman Letters. Edited by Rachel Sherman Thordyke. 398 pp.—†The Life and Letters of Charles Loring Brace. Edited by his Daughter. 503 pp. \$2.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

An eminently worthy contribution to the Great Commander Series is the life of General 'Hancock.* Save only the briefest personal sketch of his early life, the whole work is devoted to his career as connected with the Civil War. The man was thoroughly and genuinely a soldier in all the fibers of his being, and this fact was fully appreciated by the author who with rare skill has made his pages ring and glow with the true military spirit. As in a panorama, the battlefields of Chancellorsville, Gettysburg, the Wilderness, and other noted campaigns, unroll before the absorbed reader. Accurate, critical, sympathetic, the work is a clear record of a salient part of American history as well as a just record of an important man.

A most useful book of historical reference, and at the same time an entertaining book for general reading is "The Presidents of the United States."† It is composed of a collection of sketches written by different leading scholars, in which no attempt has been made to follow in detail the separate careers, but which in striking outline delineate the chief facts connected with the life and times of each one. Many of the articles have been revised and enlarged from those which have been published in Appleton's Cyclopaedia, but many are entirely new. The book contains a full page portrait of each president, besides numerous other illustrations.

A life of Abraham Lincoln‡ forms one of the volumes in the series of the Heroes of the Nations. Written in a pleasing narrative style, it both tells the story of that wonderful career and sets forth the conditions of the remarkable times in which he lived.

A volume bearing the title of "Abraham Lincoln,"§ prepared especially for younger readers and for school uses, gives a brief, forcible sketch of the great president, and a voluminous collection of anecdotes and incidents revealing different traits of his manifold nature.

A compilation of American poems¶ selected with reference to furnishing the student with types of this country's poetry ought to be an inspiration to further study of our best authors. Biographical sketches precede the selections

*General Hancock. By General Francis A. Walker. 332 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

†The Presidents of the United States. By John Fiske, Carl Schurz, William E. Russell, Daniel C. Gilman, William Walter Phelps, Robert C. Winthrop, George Bancroft, John Hay, and Others. Edited by James Grant Wilson. 526 pp. \$3.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‡Abraham Lincoln. By Noah Brooks. 471 pp. \$1.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

§Abraham Lincoln. By D. D. Thompson. 236 pp. 90 cts. New York: Hunt & Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curt.

¶American Song. By Arthur B. Simonds, A.M. 310 pp. \$1.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

adding to its value as a reference book or for use in the class-room.

The best thoughts from the poets on the theme that has inspired more poems than any other, have been chosen with rare discrimination and bound in a dainty volume* of cream and gold. The range of authors is wide, nearly one hundred and fifty being represented. Many fugitive pieces are included, none the less sweet because the names attached are not well known. It is safe to predict a warm welcome for this admirable compilation.

According to the author of "Back Country Poems"† the greatest singer is one

"Who writes no learned riddle,
But sings his simplest rune,
Takes his heartstrings for a fiddle,
And plays his easiest tune."

Judged by this standard those dialect verses rank high. Moreover they are full of sly humor and homely philosophy, mingled with a warmth and kindness of spirit that cannot fail to win a hearing.

A random quotation will show Mr. Coit's peculiar use of italics as well as the quality of his "Inspirations."‡

"Never let *thyself* be foremost
In thine head or in thine heart;
Rather call yourself an actor
Destined only for *its* part.

"Sinful man may not *now* see it,
But if he *in truth* believe,
Later will there come that blessing
Which the pure in heart receive."

Surely Polyhymnia was not the source of these inspirations! The following are among the foot-notes: "Written January 23, 1893, at office, during part of a hot afternoon, and finished at midnight, three days later." "Written April 5th, 1894, during a few minutes while waiting for dinner." We are sorry to say that the world of literature is none the richer because that dinner was late.

An artistic cover, with conventionalized roses and thistles, a rubricated title page, gilt top, uncut edges, even a pretty bookmark, combine to do their best for this volume of verse,|| but proves the skin-deep quality of beauty. In vain has the reviewer searched for a commendable poem or even stanza; all are dull, prosy, and commonplace to a degree.

Miscellaneous. Of that remarkable undertaking which has met with such remarkable success in its execution, "The Book of the Fair,"§ we

* Because I Love You. Selected and arranged by Annie E. Mack. 224 pp. \$1.50.—† Back Country Poems. By Sam Walter Foss. Illustrated by Bridgman. 258 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Lee and Shepard.

‡ Inspirations. By John O. Coit. 29 pp. San Francisco: The Bancroft Company.

|| Roses and Thistles. By Rufus C. Hopkins. 480 pp. \$2.00. San Francisco: Wm. Doxey.

§ The Book of the Fair. Parts Two and Fourteen. \$1.00 each. Chicago and San Francisco: The Bancroft Company.

note Part Two and Part Fourteen. The former carries on the detailed history of the earlier steps in the development of the great enterprise. How the plans were made, how the forces were organized how the money was collected and the material gathered, and how the immense enterprise was set going, is graphically told. Pen and camera vie with one another in revealing the rapid evolution of the work. From the preliminary steps of breaking the ground in Jackson Park, the order in which the work was done is accurately followed. In rapid description the text makes the circuit of the whole grounds, noting even the minor buildings and exhibits. The *personnel* in the General Management and in the special departments, and the scope of each division are clearly presented, and special features are explained. Part Fourteen continues the elaborate description of the Fisheries Building, begun in the preceding number, and then proceeds to a detailed consideration of the Transportation Building. Five full page half-tone illustrations of rare clearness and finish are contained within this number, and every page besides is decorated with from one to four pictures of similar quality. The work is a model of beauty and of perfection in art.

"Colonial Days and Dames"* is a series of bright, quaint, instructive pictures from life as it was passed in the early days of our nation's history. Through the hardships and the sorrows, the deprivations and the longings which marked that whole period, and which are so well portrayed in this production, there stand forth with marked distinctness and singular beauty the portraits of many of those noble women who left as their legacy to ensuing generations the proud honor of claiming descent from them. The book is the result of much research and is a fine tribute to the women of early America.

"Animals' Rights"† is a strong plea for the weaker forms of creation which were put under the dominion of man. That man has abused his authority is claimed, and arguments and proofs are brought forward to substantiate the claim. The needless sufferings inflicted under "the plea of domestic usage, food demands, sport, fashion, and science," are strongly denounced. The necessity of animal food to the human race, and of vivisection to the advancement of science, is questioned. The author takes radical ground in his opinions, and radically urges his beliefs. In education and legislation he sees the hope of reform in this matter of cruelty.

Natural history students will find in "Wild Beasts"‡ a very exhaustive and critical study of the

* Colonial Days and Dames. By Anne Hollingsworth Wharton. 248 pp. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.

† Animals' Rights. By Henry S. Salt. 176 pp. 75 cents. New York: Macmillan & Co.

‡ Wild Beasts. By J. Hampden Porter. 380 pp. \$2.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

elephant, tiger, lion, leopard, bear, wolf, jaguar, and puma. The nature, instincts, habits, distinguishing traits, and organism of each are considered. The efforts made to tame them, the effects of trying to acclimate them in other than their native lands, and the accounts of scientific studies made regarding them are all considered, together with many incidents and anecdotes, which give to the book a popular trend. Fine pictures of the different animals are contained in it.

That "The Mountains of California" was written by a true lover and student of nature every page bears witness. Descriptions of magnificent scenery, studies in natural history, and invigorating lessons suggested by the surroundings make up a most useful and entertaining work. The studies have been carried quite into detail and furnish valuable scientific information.

Among books that are so helpful "on occasions" must be classed "The Social-Official Etiquette of the United States."† Very vexing are the questions which frequently arise concerning the proper thing to be done under certain conditions of official life; but the author of this book, who is an authority on the subject, points the way out of them all.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of winter literature see pages 226 to 256 of the December number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

*The Mountains of California. By John Muir. 381 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.

†The Social-Official Etiquette of the United States. By Madeline Vinton Dahlgren. 88 pp. \$1.00. Baltimore: John Murphy & Company.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE CENTURY COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Shaw, Albert. Municipal Government in Great Britain. \$2.00.
The Century Magazine from May to October, 1894. Vol. XLVIII. New series Vol. XLVI. May, 1894, to October, 1894. Bound in gilt cloth, \$3.00.
St. Nicholas. Vol. XXI., Part I. November, 1893, to April, 1894.
St. Nicholas. Vol. XXI., Part II. May, 1894, to October, 1894.

FLEMING H. REVELL COMPANY, NEW YORK AND CHICAGO.

Kerr, John H., A. M. An Introduction to the Study of the Books of the New Testament.
Mann, Dr. Edward C. The Rights and Duties of Citizens of the United States.
The Student Missionary Enterprise. Edited by Max Wood Moorhead. \$1.50
Revival Sermons in Outline. Edited by Rev. C. Perren, Ph. D. Mills, B. Fay. God's World. \$1.25.

LEE AND SHEPARD, BOSTON.

Merriman, Effie W. Mollie Miller. \$1.25.
LeBaron, Grace. Little Miss Faith, 75 cts.
May, Sophie. Wee Lucy. 75 cts.
Townsend, Virginia F. Six, Only Seventeen. \$1.50.
Optic, Oliver. Brother Against Brother. \$1.50.
Optic, Oliver. Asiatic Breezes. \$1.25.
Post, C. W. I Am Well! \$1.25.
Keith, Allyn Yates. A Hilltop Summer. \$1.25.

MACMILLAN & CO., NEW YORK.

Jespersen, Otto, Ph. D., Dr. Progress in Language. \$1.90.
Zimmern, Alice. Methods of Education in the United States. \$1.00.
Burstall, Sara A. The Education of Girls in the United States. \$1.00.
Brumwell, Amy Blanch, B. Sc., and H. Millicent Hughes.

The Training of Teachers in the United States of America. \$1.00.

Page, Mary H. Graded Schools in the United States of America. 60 cts.
Gaye, Selina. The Great World's Farm. \$1.25.

D. APPLETON AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.

A Free Lance. Towards Utopia. \$1.00.
Barrett, Frank. The Justification of Andrew Lebrun. 50 cts.
Cotes, Mrs. Everard. Vernon's Aunt. \$1.25.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK.

Phyfe, William Henry P. Five Thousand Words often Misspelled. 75 cts.
Valentine, Oswald. Helen. 50 cts.
Crockett, S. R. The Play-Actress.

D. LOTHROP PUBLISHING COMPANY, BOSTON.

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VOL. XX.

MARCH, 1895.

No. 6.

A MONTHLY MAGAZINE.

CONTENTS



Chauncey M. Depew.....*Frederick*

REQUIRED READING

Queen Victoria and Her Children.....	<i>S. Parker Cadmore</i>	841
Christianity and English Wealth.....	<i>David H. W. Lester, L.L. D.</i>	603
Underground Railway in London.....	<i>A. E. Daniels, B. A.</i>	654
Gustavus Adolphus.....	<i>Bliss Lewis</i>	655
Sunday Readings.....	<i>Selected by Bishop Doane</i>	656
The World's Debt to Medicine.....	<i>John S. Billings, M. D.</i>	658
Scott's "Woodstock".....	<i>Professor R. G. Moulton, Ph. D.</i>	671
Glimpse of a German Watering Place.....	<i>Julius W. Schuman</i>	673

GENERAL READING

The Blue Bonnet. A STORY. (Chapter II).....	<i>Charles Barnard</i>	621
Chauncey Mitchell Depew.....	<i>Franklin Morris</i>	624
The New Reign in Russia.....	<i>Victor Pavlov</i>	628
The Bayle—Its Pleasures and Perils.....	<i>Robert Low Seymour</i>	703
The Laws of Temperance.....	<i>Alfred Angell</i>	707
On Presenting an Infant to a Friend.....	<i>John Howard Jeffries</i>	711
Journalism of the Catholic Church in the United States.....	<i>The Rev. James J. Flannery</i>	712
Opposition.....	<i>Charles P. Nicholson</i>	720

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE

"Queens' Gardens".....	<i>Beth Moore</i>	721
Princess Bismarck.....	<i>John S. Billings</i>	724
Women Among the Early Germans.....	<i>Louise Peckham Foster</i>	724

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK

A Special Statement: Catholic Journalism; The Value of Reminiscence.....	728
--	-----

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION

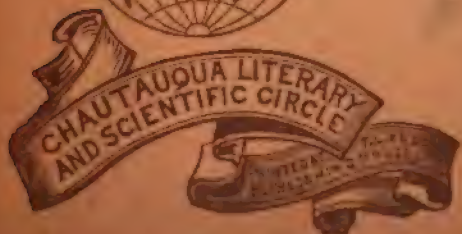
Death of Lord Randolph Churchill; Death of Judge F. Rockwood Hoar; Sunday Opening of Season in New York; An Appalling Ocean Disaster; Annual Meeting of the Chautauque Teachers; Death of the Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs; The Late Ward McAllister of New York; The Currency Question; A Year's Working Days in Many Nations; Shall Women Wear Hats in Theaters? The Political Crisis in France; Report of the Lewes Committee; Tokio, Japan; The Fourth Largest City in the World; The Brooklyn Strike; Royalist Uprising in Hawaii; A Pastoral Letter; Summary of News.....	731
--	-----

C. L. S. C. WORK

C. L. S. C. Outline and Programs.....	735
C. L. S. C. Notes and Word Studies.....	737
Questions and Answers.....	739
The Question Table.....	740
The C. L. S. C. Classes.....	741
Local Circles.....	742
Talk about Books.....	743
The Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.....	744
The Chautauqua Correspondence College.....	745
Collegiate Department of Chautauqua.....	746
The Chautauqua Season for 1895.....	747
Index to Advertisements.....	748

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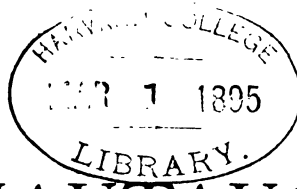
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CHAUNCEY MITCHELL DEPEW.

See page 694.



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MARCH, 1895.

No. 6.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

QUEEN VICTORIA AND HER CHILDREN.

BY S. PARKES CADMAN.

QUEEN VICTORIA'S drum-beat encircles the world, from the stately ceremonies of St. James and Windsor to India's jungle-outposts and the Australasian deserts. Her crown and monogram are embroidered on every uniform and banner and stamped on every sword and rifle of her incomparable navy and small but gallant army. The national hymn of Britain is one sustained prayer for the queen, a prayer besieging Heaven more frequently than any other petition extant.

With us it is "God save the country," with our cousins, "God save the queen," since she is, to them, the country incarnate, the soul and center of an empire which causes the full glory of Rome to pale.

This anthem of hers is appointed to be read and chanted

in churches amid scenes of peace; it is blared by military bands in days of war; devoutly sung by godly companies met to worship; and savagely shouted amid the bitterness of death by that band of thirty forsaken heroes who perished in Africa a few months ago. *The queen*: there is no need to ask,

Which queen? There are queens many, but to English speaking folk the world over Victoria has the right of way and those who rejected the sway of her grandfather reverence his gracious descendant as the first lady of a great race of people whose nations are numerous and powerful. But none save the Englishman-pure can enter into the strong, if silent, and thoroughly loyal devotion, felt by the British people for Her Majesty's person and crown. Tennyson has told it with exquisite



QUEEN VICTORIA
At the age of twenty-one.

measure, cadence, and truth, in his "Dedictory Ode."

When Victoria was born, seventy-five

* The Notes on the Required Readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

years ago, somebody inclined to poetry remarked how the May day's sun glinted and played over the snowy blooms of Kensington's chestnut groves. The augurs were prone to believe the omen favorable, and indeed there was need of comfort. Never since Cromwell's day had the British throne trembled and quaked as it did during the reign of the queen's uncle, George IV., the "first gentleman" and sorriest scamp in Europe; a man who broke even the traditional standards of so-called honor in vogue among his fellow debauchees and whose chief accomplishment was a knowledge of the mysteries of rum punch and how to brew it.

Her Majesty's father, the Duke of Kent, George III.'s fourth and most respectable son, died when the future queen was six months old. Her mother, who, when she married the duke, was the widow of Prince Leiningen, utterly refused to allow either

George IV. or William IV. to control her daughter's education. Frequent commands, backed by as frequent curses, were issued, that Victoria should repair to Windsor, but her prudent and courageous mother disregarded both. The eccentric and passionate William IV. gave way to a fit of temper on his birthday, August 21, 1836. A hundred persons sat at dinner with him, and among them were the queen and her mother. Greville tells that the king uttered a furious philippic against the Duchess of Kent, insisting that

she ignored and insulted him, and demanding that Victoria be allowed to appear at his Court. The aggrieved duchess ordered her carriage, and announced her departure; poor Queen Adelaide wept, and so did Princess Victoria, while the king fumed and finally patched up a sort of truce. This did not end the dispute, however, for when Victoria came of age at eighteen, he offered her \$50,000 a year if she would displace her mother and allow him to name the officers of her establishment. Of course the offer was declined.

Of course the offer was declined.

It would be difficult to overestimate the obligation of Britain to the Duchess of Kent. Her husband had been ostracised for his liberalism, and she found herself, a stranger in a strange land, persecuted, derided, and jeered at, because she dared to impart to her child the unsullied purity Victoria's uncles had long since lost. By her prompt vigorous action, she preserved



QUEEN VICTORIA.

From her latest photograph.

the character which she had imparted.

The first view I had of Her Majesty convinced me that she was a lover of fresh air and good food. She dresses in black and is partial to rare lace, cashmere shawls, and ostrich feathers. Like all her family, the Guelphs, Victoria has become increasingly stout with years, a stoutness the more perceivable because she is short of stature. But she is mistress of the royal art of dignity and Madame Albani expressed what all who have watched her feel, "One can

easily see that she is the queen."

Balmoral among the heathery hills of Scotland, is her favorite home. In fact, the

schools. Her private band and the bands of the Household Troops, conducted by the famous Godfreys (one of whom won the



PRINCE AND PRINCESS OF WALES AND THEIR CHILDREN.

queen loves all things Scotch, tolerates the English of it, and dislikes her warm-hearted but wayward subjects of Hibernia. John Brown, of blessed memory, was her chosen gillie,² the only one who could tell her when her bonnet wasn't straight, or her attire did not suit the occasion. She visits London when she cannot avoid it. Windsor's magnificence is chilled by the memories of death, and many of her state ceremonies, such as dinners, drawing rooms, and levees, she delegates to the Prince and Princess of Wales. It should not be hastily inferred that the queen has ample leisure. She is an early riser, a hard worker, and has great capacity for business. Her voice is quiet, clear, and well modulated, penetrating to the furthestmost recesses of the House of Lords or any other public building of normal size. She has failed in health recently, although she does not care to admit it. Her hair is whitening rapidly, and her rheumatism compels her to use a cane.

She retains her love for music of the best

first premium at Gilmore's Peace Jubilee in this country, in '76, with his Grenadier Guards Band) are among the best in the world, and they perform while the Court is in residence at Windsor and Osborne. I recollect Her Majesty's evident interest in a selection played by Mr. Charles Godfrey's Band of the Royal Horse Guards (Blue) which was arranged from the works of Handel. As the band struck the opening chord, she drew nearer, and while the melody continued she beat time with her head and cane, oblivious of all her surroundings.

The queen does much work which never appears to public view. In one year she has read not less than twenty-eight thousand despatches. Every day the sealed boxes are brought to her wherever she is, boxes filled with government documents and the daily report of the prime minister. These duties constrain Her Majesty to follow strictly her own routine, from which she is loth to deviate. She is in constant communication with her cabinet ministers and,

as Melbourne, Palmerston, Disraeli, and Gladstone have often proved, she displays rare ability and discriminating tact in the handling of the most delicate and important matters of public business.

Her very handsome hand has signed more state papers, with larger results, than any other swaying the rod of empire to-day. It has been reverently kissed by men and women whose names will live for many generations,—by Wellington and Macaulay, by Peel and Tennyson, by Peabody and Lowell, and thousands of the gifted, the generous, the brave, and the fair, who have moved through the pure halls of her Court.

The queen, when young, was somewhat hasty tempered, and even now the native fire of her ancestry flashes up at intervals for a brief space. Her life and character met their saving balance in her consort, Albert the Good, the Prince of Saxe-Coburg. "He revered his conscience as his king, and made his glory the redressing of human wrong." The queen's less spiritual flame



PRINCESS OF WALES.

was absorbed into his full-orbed and clear luminary and they made one radiance together. That luminary gave the United States light, when the way was long and the night was dark. Almost the last piece of state policy Albert fashioned ere he sank, worn-out, to die, was the instrument which defeated the projects of interference in our grievous strife thirty-four years ago. The Good Gray Poet Walt Whitman wrote a little tribute for Her Majesty's birthday, May 24, in the year 1890:

Lady, accept a birthday thought—haply an idle gift and token,

Right from the scented soil's May-utterance here
(Smelling of countless blessings, prayers, and old-time thanks)

A bunch of white and pink arbutus, silent, spicy, shy,
From Hudson's, Delaware's, or Potomac's woody banks."

The American poet sent that wealth of arbutus to Victoria because it is certain that she, prompted by Prince Albert, positively canceled the arrogant and peremptory notes of the British minister to America concerning the "Trent affair." On such minor incidents often depend the great growths of civilization. It was the queen's happy fortune to swing the pendulum of modern history in a grand oscillation which brought righteousness to all concerned and honor to her name.

For Victoria, the light of life vanished when the prince consort died. She knew to the full his value as her chief adviser, but she also knew, and with a knowledge no one else shared, that though she was earth's greatest monarch the awful loneliness of a solitary pathway stretched before her, a loneliness which could mend only with the ending of death. She cast herself across the bed where Prince Albert had lain, and piteously cried, "There is no one near me to call me Victoria now."



EMPERESS FREDERICK.

The queen once wrote as follows to Prince Leopold, her uncle: "Albert daily grows fonder and fonder of political business, and I grow daily to dislike it more and more." Yet with all this dislike for politics, Her Majesty never fails in her duty of studying state questions carefully. Melbourne was her favorite prime minister during her earlier reign, and Beaconsfield, the brilliant Jew, basked in the sunshine of the royal smile at a later date. Palmerston she did not like, and Mr. Gladstone seemed to have inherited a measure of the prejudice. But during the last two years Mr. Gladstone had stood nearer the queen than he did before. Every other government official who saw her crowned in Westminster fifty-seven years ago is now dead and he alone is left to her.

The family of the queen is an extensive one, consisting of nine children, five daughters and four sons, two of whom, Princess Alice and Prince Leopold, are dead. Few royal children have been more anxiously and carefully trained and educated. Their parents strove to make them worthy in every sense of the word for the exalted position to which they were born. The daughters are gifted women, the sons, in the main, show resemblances to the gross House of Hanover.

The influence of their father was seen most clearly in the two who have rejoined him, Alice and Leopold.

The queen has small reason to fear that her race will become extinct. She has had, so far, sixty-six direct descendants; children, grandchildren, and great-grandchildren, of whom fifty-seven are living.) The last comer, the infant Prince Edward, son of the Duke of York, grandson of the Prince of Wales,

great-grandson of Queen Victoria, and heir to the British throne, is the third cousin of his father, and the second cousin of his mother. This makes his relation to himself somewhere between that of a third and fourth cousin. Such a problem is common enough among the princely families of Europe.

This numerous progeny costs the British government about five million dollars annually. Of this amount, the queen receives \$1,925,000; she also owns large estates, and any property without heirship, unless otherwise willed, reverts to the crown. She manages her complicated interests with skill and frugality, and is probably one of the wealthiest ladies of her empire.



PRINCE OF WALES.

The Prince of Wales receives \$200,000; the Princess of Wales \$50,000; Crown Empress Frederick of Germany \$40,000; the Duke of Edinburgh \$125,000; Princess Christian \$30,000; Princess Louise \$30,000; the Duke of Connaught \$125,000; Princess Beatrice \$30,000; the Duchess of Albany (widow of Prince Leopold) \$30,000; the children of the Prince of Wales \$180,000. The revenues of the duchy of Lancaster belong to

the queen, and these amount to about \$250,000 per annum. When the royal children and grandchildren marry, dowries are provided for them. The last of the queen's children to marry, Princess Beatrice, received \$150,000 as a dowry from the British people, and sorely she needed it, for her husband, Prince Henry of Battenberg, was a pauper. On several occasions the nation has paid the debts of the Prince of Wales. Yachts, villas, hunting studs, castles, and parks, with adequate circumstances and unlimited provision, are lavished upon the Royal Fam-

ily by Cousin John's munificent hand. He is not sparing in expense, and where his dignity is at stake, as here, John delights to honor himself in honoring his representatives.

The queen's private gardens at Osborne House, Isle of Wight, form a miniature paradise : three acres of flowers all one blaze of color in the balmy summer season of the southern Channel. Here stands to-day the tool house built by the Prince of Wales

widow of Frederick the Noble, emperor of Germany, was born in November, 1840, and is therefore fifty-five years of age this year. When her husband was a youth of twenty-four, he ascended the hills of Balmoral with her, and plucking a piece of white heather, the emblem of good luck, he offered her the throne of Prussia and, though then they knew it not, the imperial crown of Germany. An informal engagement was entered upon. The marriage followed two



DUKE OF SAXE-COBURG. EMPEROR OF GERMANY. PRINCE OF WALES.
DUKE OF CONNAUGHT. QUEEN VICTORIA. EMPRESS FREDERICK.

and the Duke of Edinburgh in 1857. The building bears marks of good workmanship, the boarding being substantially put on and the roof gables mortised in a scientific style. Here, too, was a miniature fortress known as the "Albert Barracks," where the Dukes of Edinburgh and Connaught fought sham battles and defended the building against the rest of the royal children, valiantly led on by the Prince of Wales.

The eldest child of the queen, Victoria Adelaide, princess royal of England, and

years later. Empress Frederick is an abler woman than her mother or any of her sisters. Bismarck and a bigoted Prussian following could not crush this gifted iron-willed little woman, whose husband worshiped her and believed her to be his guiding star in all things.

"I love the War March of the Priests in 'Athalie,'" said Frederick to an English lord, "and do you know why? Because that was the tune they played when I marched down the church with my wife on my wedding day."

When Emperor Frederick died, after that brief tenure of power, and the present war-lord took his place, his callow and unchastened utterances had no more severe critic than his mother. She knew to the full her son's lack of experience and that it could not be supplied by declamatory appeals to departed greatness. But the temporary estrangement between them is happily at an end. He has, perhaps unwittingly, avenged her wrongs upon the Court clique which nearly drove her to despair when she was crown princess of Prussia.

Although Empress Frederick has done much to cultivate the home-life of the Fatherland, it is beyond dispute that her influence in Germany is very limited. Her magnificent husband was not sufficiently localized and, must I add? fossilized by military discipline to suit the tastes of many of his subjects. "Unser Fritz" was beloved by his armies, but the average German, or, more correctly, the average Prussian, grunted with dismay at the thought of "the Englishwoman's" control over him, especially when he remembered the friendship of Queen Victoria for Napoleon III. and Engénie,⁶ a friendship for which her daughter was suspected and maligned.

The full name of the Prince of Wales is Albert Edward Guelph. He was born at Buckingham Palace, Nov. 9, 1841, and is the eldest son, the second child, and the heir apparent of Queen Victoria. The uniform he wears in the illustration is the "undress" tunic of the Royal Horse Guards. He married on March 10, 1863, Princess Alexandra, eldest daughter of Christian IX., king of Denmark, and sister of the dowager empress of Russia. The picture of the family group of the prince and princess represents them with their five children, the two princes and three princesses. The death of Albert Victor is still fresh in our memories.

The sweet and gracious Princess of Wales is more popular in England, her adopted country, than any of the queen's children. Her husband is next to the queen and his wife in popularity and social influence. He has a fascinating personality, of which

Charles Kingsley wrote enthusiastically many years ago, and which enables him to adapt himself to all conditions of men, to talk theology with a bishop, statecraft with Mr. Gladstone, and pugilism with one of "the fancy"; a facility which is a little too facile to be recommended.

There are reasons why darker phases exist in his life, phases the more dark because of their contrast to the pure exaltation of his father's career and labors. For thirty years the prince has been the titled, flattered social functionary of the British Empire. His royal mother during all those years has steadily refused to leave her somber retreats, but she has jealously reserved to herself her governmental privileges, and the nation has been even more careful than the queen concerning the reservation. Thus the prince's aims and sympathies are so limited that unless he had been possessed of true native dignity and weight, he could not have been other than he is. If there be any truth in hereditary law he had a large amount of original sin laid up to his credit by his mother's ancestors.

Albert Edward is not so willfully vicious as he is good-naturedly weak. He is more liberal in political tendency than his mother, as witness his kind treatment of Mr. Gladstone; and his open-handed giving partially explains his debts. He scatters that which he has not gathered. The gambling affair at Tranby Croft in 1891 gave the *coup de grâce* to the worst associations of the prince's life. It shocked the staid conventional royalists, to say nothing of the ardent progressive radicals, to know that the heir to the throne had cheats and blacklegs for his companions.

Mr. Stead recently said, "When you ask at headquarters for what is actually true in the disquieting rumors concerning the prince's conduct, it is speedily discovered that many widespread stories are fabrications." For instance, the old tale that Sandringham⁷ was mortgaged for debt is a falsehood; again, he and the princess are entirely devoted to each other; whatever may be said to the contrary, their home life is tender and beautiful. The princess is not anxious for anyone to avenge her by un-

favorably criticising or calumniating her husband. His father was king in all but name, the son has been bored to death with interminable ceremonialism, and has never been allowed to transact any serious business. He is not a genius, he is not an imbecile: he has turned to the mire and, as someone phrased it when he recovered from his almost fatal illness, "England has been cursed by the burden of a granted prayer." But England should not only pray for the prince, she should also find him something sensible to do. "Look at my nephew," said he, a few years ago. "He is only a youth, but he is the center of everything. He orders everything, directs everything, is

everything. Whereas I am not allowed to do anything at all."

"What could he do were he allowed the chance?" mutters a distrustful one. Well, since the death of the czar, he has had his first opportunity, and a great one at that. England and Russia have hated and glared at each other for the past thirty years. But they forgot their hearty hate during the thirty days after Alexander III. died, when the prince stood by his nephew, the present czar, as his intimate and beloved adviser. This has given more joy to both nations than any event in their connection with each other since the Duke of Edinburgh married the aunt of the reigning Russian emperor.

(*To be concluded.*)

CHRISTIANITY AND ENGLISH WEALTH.

BY DAVID H. WHEELER, LL. D.

AT the outset, let us understand what we mean by wealth. It is inadvisedly and unfortunately much discussed as though it were the opposite of well-being, and, indeed, the principal obstacle to general prosperity and comfort. Wealth is the scientific term to designate any part of or the whole of the products of human invention, skill, and toil, including the uses we make of earth, sea, and sky and their fecundating powers. This scientific sense of the word ought to be accepted and left in full possession of it. If we wish to speak or write of the property of an individual which is employed in some way harmful to the rest of us, it should be easy to describe the abuse we wish to combat. Wealth is the aggregate of our physical means of well-being; and any part of the whole is wealth. The cottage of a workman and the clothing of his family are wealth. There are but few persons who have absolutely no wealth; and such persons are found chiefly in prisons and asylums.

To connect Christianity with wealth may still, notwithstanding the progress of science, offend some prejudices. Our Lord is said to have condemned wealth. On that pre-

text, there are still in the world people who take vows of poverty, and then proceed to live upon the labor of other people. The statements of our Lord are sufficiently consistent with the scientific conception of wealth. He reproached certain persons who were *rich*, that is to say had a large amount of wealth in their individual hands; and those reproaches implied that their abuse of riches damaged their fellows. If we would follow our English Bibles and say *rich* and *riches* when we refer to individual sharers and shares of wealth, we should easily understand our New Testament. The conquest of Nature is the oldest economic law and you will find it in Genesis. The conquest of earthly well-being is one of the clearest individual duties of a Christian; and to share his wealth, little or much, with others in need, is that Good-Samaritanism which has come to be called charity in all Christian lands.

Some small and fervid troops of Christians have in all times wandered into asceticism; that is to say they have become pious tramps, under one or another pretext; or they have persuaded better people to build them snug retreats out of reach of the

primary calls of duty. But the rule has always been that a Christian should be industrious, thrifty and charitable; that he should provide his household with shelter and forecast the wants of his little ones. So soon as a man settles down to an orderly life, accumulation sets in. His flocks increase of themselves. His grain yields ten, twenty, thirty, or a hundred fold. Set in such a natural order, the sane mind—and Christianity is perfect sanity—employs the gains of labor applied to nature in building up life into rounded well-being and adorning it under the guidance of a developing esthetic faculty. This expansion—produced by the brain guiding the hand—has its ever present perils. The rich man may be a bad man; his son may be a prodigal. The gains may be wasted in wars, in vicious pursuits, in governmental bankruptcies, in the orgies of Roman imperialism or in the luxuries of a French Court. If the whole sum of human effort in producing abundance—the surplus over annual use—be counted up, it will be found that the greater part has been lost.

The earth is full of the ruins of cities; and every such ruin represents a human bankruptcy. It is a vast aggregate. Wide regions—for example, around the shores of the Mediterranean—were once amazingly fertile, and are now swamps and sands. Another bankruptcy. Lost arts of industry make another vast bankruptcy. It is true that much wealth is created to be soon destroyed by legitimate use; but the distinct trait of a rich people is that the larger part of their wealth is of slow consumption—lasts for decades and centuries—and each piece of such wealth is a fecund producer of new wealth. Wealth, in its best sense, means durable homes, shops, mills, roadways, machines, drains, and a vast more of permanent enjoyables and permanent productive devices.

A problem of human society is: How can we preserve our gains? Not against the laws of physical decay, but against the depredations of humanity itself. A second problem is: How can we develop in ourselves the highest productive force and maintain it? No Christian reader of these

essays doubts that a genuine Christianity would enable a people to keep its gains and to increase its productive force. Two things concur: 1st. Christianity, as I have tried to show in a former essay, has had a freer hand in England than elsewhere. 2d. The power to keep economic gains and the growth of productive power have produced the distinction the English enjoy as a wealthy nation. It is not difficult to show that this concurrence is not a fortuitous one.

That the situation of England makes the people rich is a favorite folly. During some thousands of years before Christianity England was poor enough. This situation theory is full of vagaries: such as the one about cities springing up at the mouths of great streams; there are too many exceptions to the supposed rule. Nor is the climate theory any better. There is as good climate where people are poor. The truth is that the English people *have made* their island the center of the world. Run a belt round the earth and you may find a hundred places where the same kind of a humanity would have produced the same result. Towns and civilizations are not built by nature but by man; and often the best building is done in the face of resisting nature. Have we not seen the second American city spring up in a swamp during the last half century?

The English people acquired the power to keep their gains through the Christian zeal for man which gave them Magna Charta, and which fought down generation by generation the three vices which consumed wealth in ancient civilizations, and in less measure in the contemporary Europe. These three: 1st. Oppressive and irregular confiscation by the crown. 2d. Debauching and wasteful luxury in the court and among the nobility. 3d. The wastes and ruins of wars. The Christian heart of England achieved protection of wealth not all at once, not in perfection, but through a progressive and unrelenting movement to emancipation. Perhaps the largest cause of the French Revolution was a movement in reverse order—to insecurity for any gains of productive energy. The contrast between the French and English in the matter of luxury is a constant one

for centuries. The Parisian still regards the Londoner as a crude and coarse creature; and the feeling is as old as the Conquest. The English courts have been frivolous and wasteful; but they never had a hundredth part of the wasteful power of the Court of Louis Fourteenth.

From the Charta onward, a clear note of English public life, growing clearer age by age, is industrial freedom from restraints and above all from *uncertainty*. The producer has enjoyed a growing sense of security and certainty. And legislators and subjects have been Christians carrying forward this work with openly proclaimed Christian purpose and motive.

But not less important is the individual character and its power of accelerated energy in production. To keep small increments of productive mechanism—such as a roadway or milldam—to protect them from violence or neglect—is to make sure of such gains. But in the modern sense wealth is made by new implements, by control of new natural forces—in short by the inventive powers. The new wealth is not exclusively, but it is conspicuously English and American; and mainly through the inventions of Christian men. Something has acted as a tonic and a stimulant upon Anglican character; and this tonic is obviously in large measure a Christian force. We may see this force in action whenever we set a new enterprise before English eyes.

The sense of living in an orderly and secure world of man must have its natural history. It is wanting in oriental lands; it was a conspicuous lack of medieval times. The history of its development in England is the history of free institutions and of the parallel line of Christian history. For centuries, the English churches have cultivated the sense of personal value and personal power. The Christian school with this constantly repeated text has stirred English youth to its best efforts and roused into action its latent forces. No dreary collectivism, no sleeping drafts of fear and doubt have been administered by Christian teaching. On the contrary Christianity never struck deep into the soul of an Englishman

without calling forth unexpected energy. Mr. Wesley's work among the English poor is a conspicuous example. On both sides of the Atlantic, a hundred years ago, "the people called Methodists" were poor. Their accessions have usually come from among the poor. And yet, "the people called Methodists" are to-day in possession of their fair share of English and American wealth.

The work of John Wesley is simply an example of the effects of Christian influence upon productive power; it happens to stand out where it can be surveyed. The stimulant in this case commands our respect because it is impossible to find any other root of prosperity except that springing up from the seed of the kingdom. We see a group of poor Englishmen isolated by their religious life, and therefore can survey the economic results flowing out of a religious cause. "What will he do with it?" This question may be put when a man makes any gain. He will, in one case, waste it on a pleasure of the hour. In another he will keep it, use it, add to it.

National wealth is the result of a vast number of individual gains and keepings and increments. The force which makes a man march steadily on this highway to competence may not always be as conspicuously Christian as it is among the Wesleyans. The individual, indeed, may not himself know the source of this steadying power. But the observer and student of men may recognize it by its absence in other cases. It is not a matter of course that a boy shall grow up laborious and thrifty. Very far from it; multitudes of young men lapse into idleness and fall into wasteful and ruinous vices. They consume in riotous living the substance of their fathers and they break the hearts of their mothers. Do we doubt, any of us, what is perfect security against such down rushes to ruin? Is there anything so sure to preserve a boy in his economic value as sound Christian life in him?

In a larger way, English lads have grown up in all times under this restraining and inspiring force. As I have written in a former article, English Christianity never declined

into mere ceremonial, never limited itself to the hopes and fears of a future life, never forgot to fashion human character on Christian models. Having its hands free, as nowhere else, our religion has used doctrines to produce practical results in human behavior. The results appear in the economic value of a man of this race; as an inventor, a master or a workman; as a merchant or a ship captain or a clerk or a sailor; he is apt to have in him some reserve of invisible power; and in one or another form such power is the cause of wealth, in modern societies. If the Anglican peoples are the most wealthy—and no one doubts it—the greater freedom with which our religion has acted upon the practical mind of our humanity is the obvious explanation of this superiority. The individual man whom we may have under examination, may not be a Christian by profession; but he has inherited from a Christian ancestry the qualities—all moral at their root—which make him an economic force.

This economic order has followed the political order in being one of liberty. Against some results of liberty in the order of wealth, a protest has grown into considerable strength in the last twenty-five years. The freedom of the strongest in a world of production tends to make others his servants; and strength has found new means of fraud upon weakness. A movement to check such evil tendencies began among Christian people as soon as the evils attracted attention; and the mal-distribution of good things will be doubtless checked as far as possible with the hearty support of the influence of our religion.

But the careless observer may miss the present value of Christianity in the economic world by a too ready belief in every charge of injustice, and by overlooking an important part of the case. Of one thing we are perfectly confident. If at any time—or at this time—you have convinced the Anglican Christian mind that *JUSTICE* requires any specific legislation in restraint of the rich, that legislation will soon be on the statute books. Nay, if from obscure springs evils are flowing, these hidden springs will be

searched out. For my part, I could feel no such confidence in a non-Christian people. To prevent oppression by the rich, the English Parliament began early to build up fences of law; and it has never ceased to build them.

The English Church has often been the first to demand such laws, and its moral weight has always been on the side of the poor. Let me illustrate by one of the earlier forms of check. It is a prayer appointed to be read in all the churches, during the reign of Edward the Sixth. It is valuable evidence because it breathes the very spirit of English Christianity; and because this prayer was read before rich and poor alike, the church in this way reminding the rich of their duties in the presence of the poor. All England heard this prayer; and I am confident that its effect surpassed that which the best possible law on the subject could have produced. Here are the words of this prayer:

"We heartily pray thee to send thy Holy Spirit into the hearts of them that possess the pastures and grounds of the earth, that they, remembering themselves to be thy tenants, may not rack or stretch out the rents of their houses or lands, nor yet take unreasonable fines or moneys, after the manner of covetous worldlings; but so let them out that the inhabitants thereof may be able to pay the rents, and to live and nourish their families, and remember the poor. Give them grace also to consider that they are but strangers and pilgrims in this world, having here no dwelling place, but seeking one to come; that they, remembering the short continuance of this life, may be content with that which is sufficient, and not join house to house, and land to land, to the impoverishment of others: but so behave themselves in letting their tenements, lands and pastures that, after this life they may be received into everlasting habitations."

There speaks the voice of English Christianity, and that voice is still heard all over Angledom. And, as I think, there is no other force in all the world which has had, or now has, a tithe of the restraining power of this Christian pleading against strength and for weakness.

There is, however, a large fact in the distribution of wealth—as it is effected in English production—which is wholly obscured by our current discussions. The fact re-

ferred to is that the large wealth could not exist if a considerable part of it did not flow through the main body of the people. Modern wealth outruns all ancient dreams in its vast proportions. But this aggregate includes all the less and the little as well as the great; and *the great could not exist without the less and the little*. If that nightmare of our fancy, the absorption of all wealth by a few, should become a living reality, it is certain that the increase of wealth would come to a sudden end. The multitude *as a consumer* is the cause of modern wealth; and that means a wide and large enjoyment of the gains of a *régime* of Liberty. The emancipation of our slaves created fortunes by making the slaves consumers on a larger scale. So, a wide diffusion of the blessings of abundance has followed from the Christian instruction and inspiration which have made Anglicans industrious, inventive, frugal, patient, and assured of the future. The belief of collectivists that we might dry up these springs of vigor and endurance, and still have all the abundance, is certainly not supported by any evidence.

I must not hesitate to affirm that English Christianity has wrought its great work in creating English wealth by moving upon the

deep forces of character, and by giving character a free course. In other words, commercial and industrial liberty is the offspring of English religion. No socialistic scheme of binding Samson that he may grind in our mills can satisfy our Christian ideals. We know that he will grind better in freedom; and we hope to be able to see to it that he does not use his great strength to slay us and our children.

The Christian task in economics remains, that which John Wesley achieved in his time, to stimulate and educate productive energy. Many thousands in every generation are not reached and inspired. Could we reach them there would be vastly more wealth. The men who fail in industry, in prudence, in frugality, in self-restraint, do not fail under Christian inspirations but for lack of them. It is not the fault of our religion that they are poor, that they throw away their gains in Wall Street or in saloons, that they live beyond their means or make unwise investments. The stimulant force which Christianity has imparted to a large portion of the Anglicans would create plenty beyond the dreams of socialism if it could reach, inspire, restrain the entire population of the English-speaking world.

UNDERGROUND RAILWAY IN LONDON.

BY A. E. DANIELL, B. A.

THE vast extent of London and the ever increasing number of persons of all classes living at a distance from the scene of their daily work, rendered it—some five and twenty years ago—necessary to supplement by a system of railways the slow and inadequate method of communication afforded by the omnibuses, which were then the only means of locomotion available to that great majority of Londoners for whom the expense of constant cab-hire is prohibitory.

The idea of an elevated railway would not be tolerated in London; it would be considered as an outrageous disfigurement

of the streets, and its proximity to the housetops would be denounced as an unwarrantable violation of the rights of property. Consequently, the promoters of this great scheme were reduced to the necessity of tunneling under the roadway, and there laying their lines.

As years went on the amount of public patronage extended to the undertaking evoked the construction of numerous branches connecting the suburbs with the metropolis, and so quickly do the various trains now succeed each other in the more important stations, that it requires a cool head and a sharp eye on the part of the

traveler to avoid stepping into a wrong one and finding himself landed two or three miles from his destination.

The main line is constructed in the form of a circle, so that a person may enter the train at one of the city stations, and having revolved round London, return by a different route to his original starting place. Oddly enough, this "Circle," which seems quite the embodiment of harmony, is not the property of a single company. It is about equally divided between two separate—and in fact bitterly antagonistic—companies, the Metropolitan Railway Company and the District Railway Company, which are, however, in this particular instance, compelled by Parliament to sink their mutual animosities and work together for the benefit of the public. Each of these companies has some branch lines, but the Metropolitan—whether by better fortune or better judgment—invariably contrives to make a much larger profit out of its business, and and is accordingly the *bête noire* of directors and shareholders of the less prosperous District.

On the "Circle," the trains run every ten minutes in the day and early evening, but later on they are restricted to every twenty minutes. The number of trains on the branch lines varies, regard being had to the respective needs of the different suburbs. By about midnight all traffic has ceased, but it recommences at a very early hour in the morning, when trains specially provided for workmen may be seen crowded with the sons of toil eager to begin the labors of the day. *Relief*

In the outskirts of the town, when sufficient vacant ground existed to allow of these lines' being constructed on the surface of the earth, this mode of progression is not wholly unpleasant, but it is far otherwise in those central districts, including nearly the whole of the "Circle," where the line burrows beneath the soil. No one, who has not already endured it, can conceive the miseries which the unhappy passenger has to bear.

To the chiefly negative discomfort of utter darkness, relieved only by a lamp

of the feeblest description, generally out of order, and always so adjusted that its light may give the least possible amount of benefit, is added the indubitably positive torment of an atmosphere of almost unparalleled noisomeness. The air is densely charged with myriads of sooty atoms which settle, like swarming bees, on the face, hands, and garments of the traveler. His eyes smart and water with the sulphurous vapors caused by insufficient ventilation, while his throat becomes choked with the inky particles which he is constrained to swallow, and his body is convulsed by the coughs which ever and anon break from him, as he vainly endeavors to dislodge the abominable mass of nastiness which oppresses his lungs. If he keeps the window closed, the foul air is almost suffocating; if he opens it, he is at once exposed to a fresh inroad of sulphurous fumes and volatile dirt. In fact, take what precautions he may, the journey is not conducive to his health, his personal appearance, or his mental happiness.

Why, then, it may be asked do so many people use such a noxious method of locomotion? The truth is, they cannot for the most part help it. In these days of rush and bustle, people must get to and fro as quickly as they can. Everything else is but a secondary consideration. The multitude of trains and abundance of stations present advantages which outweigh the sensations of comfort and cleanliness, and judges and laborers, merchants and counterjumpers, aged men and callow youths, delicate women and children of tender years, are all to be daily seen in the Cloaca Maxima^a of the modern Babylon.

The stations are furnished with book stalls, which do a brisk trade in the morning and evening papers, and display a variety of novels, medical compendiums, guidebooks, and political pamphlets; these works, however, are far less in demand by passengers than the "Star," and, on Saturdays, the "Pink'un." It is sometimes possible to obtain a little useful information by turning over the leaves of a book on these stalls, but, as the custodian will probably

pester you to buy it before you have read a dozen lines, this manner of searching after knowledge is precarious, and liable to untimely interruption.

The automatic craze is very much in vogue at these stations. You can weigh yourself automatically, take your own height automatically, obtain sweets, cigarettes, matches, and scent automatically, on depositing a small coin (*i. e.*, one penny) of the realm, in the gaping slot. Refreshment bars are few and far between, being attached to only the most important stations, and even these are hardly worthy of eulogy.

The advertiser is in full force. Photographers hang over the benches those curious frames in which three startled-looking young women, an expressionless baby, a stern bald-headed gentleman, and a soldier in full uniform, are exhibited as specimens of their skill; enterprising bakers affix to the walls cases containing white and brown loaves, with testimonials from physicians of eminence proudly inscribed below; haberdashers stick up little receptacles in odd corners, wherein they stow a shirt and two collars, with a legend to the effect that these articles of apparel present a unique combination of fashion, cheapness, and durability. But the great bulk of the advertising is done by means of boards and tablets, which are ranged about the walls in every available space. Puffs theatrical, puffs journalistic, and the ubiquitous soaps and pills, are massed in a dense phalanx, while that awful example of perverted ingenuity, the electric sign, performs its exasperating gymnastics.

To such an extent is this system of placards carried on that it is often extremely difficult to distinguish the names of the stations among all this superfluity of printed matter. Not long ago an American traveling on the "Circle," seeing "Partington," the name of an eminent advertisement contractor, painted in enormous letters, concluded that this was the name of the station. When he arrived at the next stopping place, he again observed "Partington," emblazoned in the same conspicuous manner. This somewhat surprised him, but he

consoled himself with the thought that there must be two divisions of the "Partington" station; so he continued his journey and shortly afterwards arrived at "Partington" the third. Unable any longer to satisfy himself as to the mysterious recurrence of these letters, he proceeded to make inquiries, with the result of discovering that, misled by this Will of the Wisp, he had gone two stations beyond the place where he had intended to alight.

The pertinacious advertiser does not stop at overloading the walls and every inch of space in and about the stations, but he goes so far as to afford the companies additional means of revenue by disfiguring the higher portions of the carriages with small tablets, which constantly appear before the eyes of the martyred traveler, setting forth exaggerated panegyrics on building societies, patent shoe blackings, quack medicines, and other equally unimportant nostrums.

The carriages on the trains are divided into three classes, first, second, and third. The first-class compartments are comfortably padded, the second are in a sort of intermediate state, while the third are mere boards. The number of persons that can be seated in each compartment is ten—five on each side—but in the third class, at busy times of the day, as many as six people often squeeze in on each side, and it is not unusual to see, in addition to these, three or four men or lads standing in the narrow gangway between the seats. A goodly proportion of this crowd are frequently loaded with bags of tools, unwieldy packages, bundles, and tin cans, and the effect on a sultry July evening when they are all perspiring freely, especially in a smoking-carriage, enveloped in clouds of the rankest "shag-tobacco" propelled from the vilest of pipes, can be more surely conceived than described.

The carriages are not provided, except in solitary instances, with any heating apparatus, and when they are so furnished—which usually occurs in the first-class—a solitary warming-pan about three feet long constitutes the sole calorific agent during the severe frosty weather.

As a rule when traveling in a "Circle"

train and alighting at your destination, it is found necessary to climb a steep and dusty staircase of about twenty or perhaps forty feet from the landing platform before reaching the street.

The pretty and truly picturesque stations at the junctions of the thoroughfares on the elevated system, in New York City, and on the suburban lines throughout the United States, are in marked contrast to the shabby and soot-covered places where one waits for a train in London. Huge glass domes cover the space allotted as a depot, underneath which passengers must either walk or stand upon the dreary platforms or else be content by occupying a hard circular seat arranged against the tomb-like walls of the "Underground."

Then again the telegraph offices are missing at these stations. A person wishing to despatch a "wire" cannot do so at the railway ticket offices, this monopoly being a separate and distinct institution, and solely under the control of the government. Hence it is obligatory to send all electrical communications from branch post offices.

The first-class fares are about double those of the third-class; the second about half way between the first and third. Return tickets can be purchased at the rate of a fare and a half for the double journey, and first- and second-class season tickets can be procured at advantageous terms, a privilege of which business men who have to travel on the line daily, are not slow to avail themselves. There is a considerable number of unscrupulous travelers who, after taking third-class tickets, usurp positions in the first- and second-class carriages to which they are not entitled. These interlopers are, however, sometimes detected by zealous officials who occasionally make an inspection of tickets *en route*, and then their confusion is very amusing to witness.

Tickets are taken by a collector standing in a narrow passage or angle, which must be passed in order to go out of the station. He is so placed that only one person can get by him at a time. It is thus not easy for a person without a ticket to avoid his vigilance. I once, however, saw a success-

ful attempt of this kind made on a dark winter's night at the Edgware Road station, which is situated among a network of small streets. A man, getting ahead of the crowd of out-going passengers, rushed violently up the stairs, and, dashing past the astonished collector, who vainly endeavored to seize him, disappeared in the adjacent labyrinth shrouded by the most unusual gloom. The collector said he should know him if he saw him again; but whether he did so or not, has never been ascertained.

Of course, when there are so many stoppages, the amount of time which can be spent at each station is extremely short, and an unpracticed passenger who wanders deliberately along the platform, eying every carriage with care so as to select the most commodious, will probably be startled by the sudden motion of the train and run a risk of being left behind. This is often the case with elderly ladies, who sometimes scramble with outstretched arms, in terrified haste, into a carriage full of smokers, while the alert guard gives them a push behind and claps the door upon them with a tremendous bang.

The polite attention passengers receive on the American lines from the employees is missing here, as the porters, guards, ticket-collectors, and booking-clerks spare no time to give courteous replies to any inquiries, or in directing passengers how to find their proper trains; but if a small tip, say twopence, is handed to one of these servants, a ready reply will be vouchsafed or you may be conducted either to the right platform or even guided to your train and have the door of the compartment shut quietly after you.

The agility of the guards—a fine athletic set of men—is very noticeable. They give the signal for departure by waving a green flag, shut all open doors with a powerful turn of the wrist as the train rolls by them, and when its speed has become considerably accelerated, make a dart at the foot-board, and clutching the door swing themselves into their vans with a precision which excites the envy and admiration of spectators.

The enormous strides which are now being made in electrical science may prove to be

the means of eventually solving the question, how to establish a speedy method of communication throughout London without the deleterious atmosphere engendered by the smoke of the present underground railway.

A small electric railway has already been constructed, starting from the city and going under the Thames to the southern bank of that river, whence it proceeds to the populous suburbs of Kennington and Stockwell. Access is obtained to the platform by means of lifts, and the traveler is elevated to the surface by similar agency when his journey is done. Though this line may be regarded chiefly in the nature of an experiment, it is certainly very popular in the districts through which it passes, as

may be seen from the busy throngs which hurry to its stations to make use of the facilities thus afforded for getting to their place of work; and a much greater scheme has already received the sanction of Parliament—though it has not yet been actually begun—viz: the construction of an electric railway from Shepherd's Bush, a western suburb of the metropolis, which would run under the Uxbridge Road, Oxford Street, and Holborn to the city, where it would form a junction with the line already existing. This is a great idea, and it would extend railway facilities to the only central parts of London which are still imperfectly served. All Londoners trust that no obstacle may arise to prevent its speedy execution.

GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS.

BY MAX LENZ.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "PREUSSISCHE JAHREBUCHER."

PROTESTANT Christendom is now preparing to celebrate the memory of the northern hero who, in the darkest days of Germany, came forward in the turmoil of most bloody battles, as the redeemer of the imperiled adherents of the Lutheran creed. The political strife of nearly three centuries ago has died away. The German nation, no longer divided and wavering, stands to-day powerful and united, determined to ward off every attack. Long since have the foreign powers who fought out their fights on German soil and took possession of our territory and streams departed, driven away, shaken off, and Sweden even among the first. The old boundaries have been recovered and more faithfully fortified, and alien splendor has faded before the light of the new German crown.

Yet the religious dissension is still perceptible. The modern followers of the old faith of the Middle Ages are disposed to depreciate even now the glory of the great king, because of his hostility to their cause at the beginning of the seventeenth century. It seems as though our defenders of Rome and the papal policy had gone too far to-

wards the justification of the past. Their complaints are directed against the political views which were bound up in Gustavus Adolphus with the zeal of his religious belief. From the heights of national self-consciousness they condemn the selfish policy of the foreign conqueror, and forget in their patriotic agitation that the historians of the new school are bent on nothing less than to justify historically the aims of the House of Hapsburg and the pope, and decry the new state which incorporates German Protestant ideals.

There has scarcely been a period in German history, when the old empire attained greater successes and came nearer to the restoration of religious unity than in the years when Wallenstein and Tilly¹ fought their great fights, and Emperor Ferdinand was preparing, with the aid of the League,² to revoke all promises and treaties the German Protestants had wrung from his family. When, at the end of 1627, the last Danish garrisons were driven out of Mecklenburg and the Cimbric peninsula, it seemed all over with German heresy. The imperial general had become master of the land as far

as Ottensund. His thoughts now rose to the highest flights, even to a crusade against Constantinople, which he would carry on with the united strength of the German army, and the help of Spain, Venice, and the pope. In three years the Turk was to be hounded out of Europe and his dominion divided among the conquerors.

These were imperialistic ideals, to which Charles the Fifth had adhered in the midst of all his wars with the pope and the heretics, with French and Turks, and which always formed the extreme horizon of Catholic statesmanship. Tilly himself cherished these fancies and was fond of discussing them with Wallenstein. But the first duty for both, however, was to secure the northern coasts and seas. The Elbe and Weser were already in their hands. Their regiments were encamped along the Rhine and Ems, as welcome neighbors to the Spaniards, who were pressing toward them from Belgium and the Low Countries. Their posts stretched through the whole realm as far as the Alps. The Lutheran princes and cities bent submissively before the decrees of the Catholic generals, the priests were carrying on their work triumphantly, and the higher officers were greedily stretching out their hands to clutch the rich foundations of the heretic schools and institutions, a booty which the words of Ferdinand had promised them.

The Catholics had already espoused the motives, which they—and also certain Protestants as well—are still accustomed to attribute to Ferdinand and Wallenstein's policy. In the assemblies of the Hanse towns³ at Lübeck the victors unfolded a lofty program of national policy, and revealed to the German merchant the view of restoring the old commercial supremacy. It was a shame, they said, for the German Empire to let foreign nations lay down laws for its guidance in its own seas and rivers. The Germans were allowing themselves to be treated like children. The English had established themselves in their very midst with their monopolies, and had drawn so many millions from Germany that now they were bidding defiance to Kaiser and realm. What was the toll in the Sund,⁴ other than a harmful and shame-

ful tribute of all Germany to the Danes? In the name of national honor and prosperity, the protection of which the emperor considered to be his highest obligation at the present and in the future, the Hanse delegates were summoned to destroy foreign influence in the Baltic Sea.

The position of the imperialists, however, was somewhat equivocal. Near the emperor's ambassador, even more urgent than he, was the Spanish, the representative of the power which for seventy years had striven to annihilate state and religion in Holland, and for a still longer time had endeavored to involve the empire in all the adventures of its world-embracing projects. Consequently the cities would only have opened their harbors and the German Sea to a new master, and have been compelled to surrender the remnant of their independence. They would have become nothing else than useful members of the Spanish world-power, their political and religious ideas subverted, destroyed in their victories, and perhaps in their defeats also, and ever exposed to the danger of paying the costs of any reverses of the imperial policy.

For the opponents of Austria were not wholly overthrown. If England was injured by her internal dissensions, the Dutch were becoming stronger and more united. They were victorious on the North Sea, in the West Indies, and were never more eager for war on the Continent. At this very time the subjection of La Rochelle could inspire Richelieu⁵ with the hope of renewing the glorious plans of Henry IV., while leaving his hands free to accomplish them. The North was still undaunted. The Danish king stood firm upon his islands, and unattainable by the imperial arms and torches were the ships and havens of Gustavus Adolphus. To be sure, Wallenstein was preparing for action by water, and was having twenty-four men-of-war built. But the Danes soon blockaded the mouth of the Trave. So we can understand how the Hanse towns rebuked the tempters who, in order to buy their souls, showed them the treasures of this world. They still hoped to maintain their neutrality—which in the

long run was indeed impossible. Christian IV. was once more struck down in a fresh combat and North Germany was thrown entirely on her own resources. Persecution and confiscation were holding full sway. Though driven back from Stralsund the Duke of Friedland⁶ was still in possession of the remaining harbors of Pomerania. He held Rostock, Wismar, and all Mecklenburg, bound fast by citadels and strong garrisons. And from the Sund he could still send his best régiments, under his trusty lieutenant Georg von Arnim, to Prussia in order to help the Poles against Sweden.

In the face of this danger, which was already threatening himself, Gustavus Adolphus determined to undertake a campaign in Germany. Certainly this was not pure idealism. He represented the might of Sweden and was eager to extend it, just as Ferdinand desired to magnify the House of Hapsburg. Zeal for religion and political self-interest were the inseparable moving forces with both monarchs, as with all statesmen of those times. The interests of dynasty also had the greatest weight with the Swedish king. He was merely continuing the work of his heroic father, who had maintained the rights of the Protestant Wasas⁷ against the Polish Catholic branch of his house, and had succeeded in establishing them on new and firm foundations. Both proved themselves to be genuine scions of the Wasa stock, in that they led their personal interests ever along the road of the greatness of Sweden and Protestantism.

It was old German soil, the Hanse territory and the domain of the Teutonic Knights, over which Gustavus Adolphus established the lordship of Sweden. Everywhere where his banners were borne the German merchant and the German sword had ruled. Germantail had first carried civilization into the barbarous lands of the East. German had been the mission band. Then in the centuries of the hierarchy, our ancestors were the champions of the creed of Rome, which they planted round about on the Baltic Sea; while beyond their frontiers Lithuanian heathenism and the Muscovites remained long in darkness. Afterwards their polit-

ical supremacy, as well as their religious unity, was broken. But the latter, at least, had quickly and decisively restored itself in its new spirit. It was as though these outlying regions, these latest won provinces of Rome, had the more easily repudiated her, according to their national bent. Not without conflicts, but at the bottom still without any deep agitation of the masses, this alienation had taken place, which made the change by no means comparable to the profound overturnings to which the state and social system of Central and South Germany, or Western Europe, had been subjected. The great crisis which German Protestantism had to undergo in the wars of the Smalcald League and in the last decade of Charles V., had scarcely affected this northern world. In the midst of victory, at its very frontier at Wittenberg, the emperor had turned his back on it.

And this faith which rooted itself here more deeply than anywhere else was the German faith. Never, before or since, have German ideas ruled so thoroughly in the northern kingdoms as in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. All expressions of active life in the broad territory from Wittenberg to Upsala and from Lübeck to Dorpat were stamped with their impress and tinged with their colors. First of all religion itself was proclaimed in all rectories and churches, in its most original and German form. Unmixed with reformed doctrines and Presbyterian ordinances the spirit of Wittenberg⁸ ruled in sermon and church constitution. Enthusiastically, with scholarly zeal, it was cherished in the universities, between which a genuine exchange of instructors and students was in force. How often in the time of Chemnitz and Pufendorf⁹ German professors were called to Swedish universities, and how often among the matriculates at Greifswald, Wittenberg, or Frankfurt do we find the names of Swedish students. The connection was by no means of an intellectual character only. In the great market of the North, vigorous and expanding Hamburg, the recruiting sergeants of the Swedish and German armies were accustomed to meet; and nowhere did the

North German nobility serve more gladly than under the blue and yellow banner of Sweden. In Gustavus Adolphus' armies German and Swedish officers stood on equal terms, and the former occupied even the highest posts. In the royal councils, during the German war at least, almost more German than Swedish pens kept busy. The talented Georg von Arnim had served the king in Livonia and Prussia as both colonel and diplomat, and represented him also at the court of Berlin as suitor for the hand of the Hohenzollern princess. Gustavus himself spoke and wrote German as well as he did Swedish, and appeared among his German cousins almost as one of them. In economic ways also our nation maintained the front rank before all rivals in the old lands of its supremacy. However much the German merchant might be injured in the Baltic markets by the jealousy of his northern neighbors or the encroachings of the Protestant powers of the West, yet these conflicts were not poisoned by religious hatred, since under Elizabeth and the princes of Orange the Protestant nature of their states had fully declared itself.

Where were then the dangers which threatened this civilization which was so well established and united? They came from the East, from the Russians, who with barbaric savagery, already in the sixth and eighth decades of the sixteenth century, had thrown themselves upon the distracted and deserted abodes of the German tradesmen and knights in the Baltic provinces. Where could they have found safety had Gustavus Adolphus not come to their assistance? He championed not the German state, which scarcely existed then, but German belief, the individuality of the German spirit, powerful in all the North, and therefore the principles of German power. For these he drew his sword. And if to-day the Baltic provinces can still hold out against the new pressure of Muscovite barbarism, they owe no one for it more than the Swedish conqueror, who in that era of the past hurled back their oppressors over the Embach. Even more threatening than the danger from Russia, which had flooded the German villages like

a mountain torrent, and like it had run off again, was the attack of the other Slavic power, the one allied to Hapsburg and Rome, Poland. Favored by the avarice of German traders and a Slavonic nobility she had pressed over the Vistula into the very heart of the German colonies, and was stretching out after all the Prussian coasts, and even over the sea to Sweden itself. Who can mistake that here also Gustavus Adolphus preserved in defense and offense German culture against the Catholic Slavs? And together with this the third danger more fearful by itself than the others, and the greater since Hapsburg and Poland pursued in religion and politics closely related goals.

Thus here on the strand of the German Sea came together in hostile array the two beliefs, which had striven for a hundred years with each other. Pressed back to the brink Lutheranism found its hero at last, and prepared itself to turn upon its merciless opponent. It was a fight for life and death for which the Lutheran creed was to get itself ready, for beyond its present limits there was nothing left but icy wastes.

More than once Gustavus Adolphus had been tempted to engage in the war in Germany with Christian IV., especially in 1624, when the Danish king, favored by an anti-Hapsburg coalition of the great powers, took up the fight. But the negotiations had always fallen through. Between the two rivals no union was possible. Besides, at that time everything in Sweden was still to be regulated by her king, who wished to clear and simplify the relations obtaining in his monarchy. For there all was rancor, pettiness and powerlessness. "In your counsels," he wrote to his German relatives, "is no harmony, but pure discord, by which great things are undone; for what outcome is to be expected when the Low Saxon Circle idles away its time and considers in what way it may remain quiet and become the spoils of victory." With righteous anger he beheld the narrow self-seeking of his cousins in the Empire, who in the struggle with the great powers, looked after their own immediate advantage, while the knife was being held to their throat, and wished to

turn away the danger with paper rather than with steel. "They should recruit and arm themselves," and then he would come to their aid with a royal army and fleet, and with God's help teach their enemies a lesson.

In him the entire energy of a whole political system dwelt, a system which was based on the universal element of the Protestant belief. He held in contempt the barren activity of the German courts, where more was spent on one banquet than a man-of-war would cost. In him also were prominent the qualities of personal application, ambition and thirst for deeds, though he never lost sight of the general interest, and was ever conscious that he stood on guard against the papacy, the conflict in which he had grown up, just as his hero and model, Maurice of Orange,¹⁰ whose actions and sayings he so constantly praised. To him fear was unknown. Almost rashly did he seek for danger; yet individual courage was ennobled in him by the strength of a faith which assures of eternal life. How greatly do those mistake Gustavus Adolphus' heroic nature, who impute to him no other motives than those of desiring to win for Sweden outposts on the German coast. He had, so he once wrote, much too strict a conscience to wage war for the sake of land and subjects; he would indeed have no war in which he might not die like a warrior blessed, and appear gladly before God's face.

But wherever he came forward he wished to command by himself. Where he planted his iron blow he maintained it firmly. Georg von Arnim noticed this immediately on his landing in Germany. The first important thing, at that time, was for the king to win the German coast, Pomerania, which he from the outset had desired as the reward of victory; first the islands and mouth of the Oder, then with quick onset the capital and the other strongholds of the country.

Slowly, therefore, he worked along up the Oder. He could have driven Knyphausen out of New Brandenburg and, I believe, have delivered Magdeburg, as he had promised the faithful Falkenberg. But he did not wish to leave anything behind him, give up the Oder or fail to make sure of

Brandenburg and its fortresses. Step by step he pressed forward, ever concerned with keeping his connections open with the coast. Then after the laurels of Breitenfeld, which he had gathered in on the way, he begins a more speedy course. He breaks over the Thuringian Forest into the valley of the Main, rushes down to the Rhine and back to Franconia, throws himself again on wavering Tilly and inflicts on him, at the gate of Bavaria, his second defeat, and death. After this triumphal march with quick resolve he makes his last journey, through the heart of the Catholic countries against the Duke of Friedland, whom he defies at Nuremberg. Finally he himself on the field of Lützen finds in victory over this mighty one that death which so often had roared in vain around him in the thunder of battle.

What his last intention was, whether he had from the beginning a fixed point in view or, as Oxenstiern¹¹ claimed later on, was merely drawn step by step to unknown goals, whither the giant strife, in which his appearance, and the whole war in Germany, was only an episode, might have carried him, who can say? It is possible that his victories might have joined more closely the great country of the Lutheran faith to the Swedish monarchy and have led politically to a *Corpus Evangelicorum*.¹² The constitution of the Empire would then have hardly held together, and might have met the fate Chemnitz prophesied for it.

Hapsburg and Rome have known few more dangerous political opponents than the Swedish king. His existence was fixed on war like the life of the Protestant hero whom he imitated. So long as the old Empire had arms no peace was possible with the Lion of the North.¹³ No one knew this better than Gustavus Adolphus himself. "What is neutrality? I don't understand it," he exclaimed to the envoy from Brandenburg, who brought the cowardly and uncertain proposals of George William¹⁴ to his camp at Stettin.

To-day, as we have said, the political breach, which at that time prevented religious peace, has disappeared, and the world has changed. Scarcely anywhere now can

be found a trace of the dynastic and political interests which ruled the statesmen of those days. But if it is true that our Prussia, the corner-stone of the new Empire, rests on the religious ideas which prevailed in Gustavus Adolphus' dominions, and which, according to Ranke, found a late support and expression in the monarchy of Frederick the Great, then we must honor, as our own, the king who threatened the old Empire with destruction. National interests, in the present meaning of the word, were by no means in force at that time, when all was permeated

with private views. It was not the fluctuating relations of state combinations or family advantages which moved the governments of the seventeenth century, but the social-religious question. This lent to personal ambition a color and content, when the reformers first introduced it into general life, binding political parties together without distinction of nations, and giving the idea of nationality itself a new meaning. On this common ground, the ground of our existence, stands, united with the creators of our state, the Swedish king.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

[March 3.]

REGENERATION.

Except a man be born again, he cannot see the kingdom of God.—JOHN iii., 3.

IT was in the spring of the year A. D. 26 that a conversation between two men occurred, of which this text is a part, which was, I have no question, the most memorable conversation that ever took place in connection with the religious life and development of men. The two were strangers to each other; their relation in this conversation was strange, and stranger still was the fact that they should be in conversation at all. They were widely separated in social position. One of them was a young Galilean peasant, of lowly origin, of pure but poor parentage, and humble to the last degree; the other was a Pharisee of Jerusalem, high in the counsels of his people, the third ruler or teacher of the Sanhedrin. If the young Galilean had sought the elder man we should not wonder; the wonder lies in the fact that the seeking was the other way.

Yet is this not altogether a wonder, for this young man had been doing certain unusual things in connection with the great feast of their nation, there in the capital city. He had cleansed the temple of its polluters as with the authority of the Christ. He had

wrought certain miracles, which had filled the minds of the common people with wonder and astonishment. So mighty had he shown himself, and so frequent had become the comment upon him and his teaching, that the Sanhedrin itself had met to discuss the assertion made by John the Baptist, that he was the Messiah who should redeem Israel; and the decision to which they had come is plainly given in the first speech by this fair-minded teacher as he said to the Galilean, "Rabbi, we know that thou art a teacher come from God."

But in that sentence, Nicodemus denies the claim which some were putting forth, that he was the Christ. It was Oriental courtesy of the highest, most beautiful kind, which this old man showed to the young one; he, an aged teacher, to one just appearing on life's stage—"Rabbi, teacher, we recognize you for what we think you are, a teacher come from God."

There is almost brusque directness in the reply, as Jesus says to Nicodemus, "Your speech comes to me with this thought in it. You know that I am a teacher come from God, and you, yearning to know something more of the things that pertain to the Kingdom of God in this world, are come to me to ask if I can give you more knowledge, more light upon the things to come than

that which you already possess. That which I have to say to you is this: You need nothing additional. What you need is fundamental. You want no new knowledge, you want right adaptation to the old knowledge, to the things that are. You want no new insight into spiritual things. That which you want is a new birth."

The old Jew stumbled when he heard that phrase "new birth." That thought of a new birth is nothing new to Nicodemus. "To be born again" was a common phrase on the lips of the Jew of his day. If men outside of the Jewish church came into it, they must come in accordance with the requirements of a certain ritual, and such ones in the common phrase were said to have been born again. But he, the third ruler of his nation, he need to be born again! Was not the Fatherhood of God pledged to the fact that he and every Jew was a member of the spiritual Kingdom of the Eternal God?

It is easy enough for us at this distance of time to say that he ought to have understood. But the thought which lies in that simple word which I quote from His lips, His first utterance to Nicodemus, has become the fundamental doctrine of the church of all ages; and it stands to-day as the one eternal condition by which men may enter into fellowship with God's spirit. Moreover, the Nicodemus answer, the Nicodemus spirit, "How can these things be?" is the spirit which still strives against the God-spirit in the midst of this evil world; and therefore that conversation was the most important conversation, as I believe, of which the world has ever had record. For if the world—if the *world*—if the *WORLD* could absolutely be born again in the sense which Jesus meant when He spoke those words, the questions which vex society to-day would be forever, *and forever*, AND FOREVER settled.

[*March 10.*]

THE full phraseology of the text presupposes that this "change," this "new birth," is a matter entirely supernatural. The Greek word which is rendered "again,"

means "from above." "Except a man be born *from above*, he cannot see the kingdom of God." Except upon the soul of man there comes a force not controlled by the physical nature, upon the soul held down to life by chains which the physical cannot break until death come—except there come upon each individual soul a force extra-physical and outside of the world in which it lives, it cannot enter the Kingdom of Life. That is what the text means.

Now I can best make the thought which I have in mind plain to you by an illustration somewhat extended; and I ask that you will not so center your minds on the illustration as to lose the thought, the spiritual truth, which lies behind it. Suppose that I hold in my hand an egg. Its chemistry is simple. Here is the outer wall. Chemical analysis tells me that it is of the same material that makes the limestone rock, the basis of this earth of ours. Within, as I break this chalky wall, I find a thick and tough, leather-like parchment which surrounds that which is still within, keeping its delicate, fluid-like contents away from all harm if by any means the external wall should be dented, bruised, or even broken, if it itself is not broken. Within, there are two fluids; the first pure albumen, the second almost pure sulphur, and at the center one little spot which biologists call the life cell, impossible, almost, to detect, and yet the atom in which the life, if there is to be life there, is supposed to have its center. Nothing there which has any life at all.

Now, as a fact of natural history, that was produced by natural causes. It was generated. Experience teaches us that it is endowed with a certain potency. If we never had had experience, and if for the first time in the history of man we were to-day to see that little article called an egg, neither you nor I would know of what it was composed or with what potency it had been endowed by God. These things I have mentioned—chalk, parchment, albumen, sulphur—are absolutely inorganic; that is, there are no organs by which they can perform any operation that will make

this egg a living, moving, organized being of God. These things we know. There are two ways by which it may be changed from its inorganic into an organic condition. Before these two changes occur some intelligence outside of its world could say to it, and say to it with truth, "Except that egg be awakened to life by some power outside of itself, it never can enter into the Kingdom of Life; except it shall be born again, it cannot see the Kingdom of Life."

One of these powers which work to awaken it to organic life we call assimilation. I take this egg and place it in boiling water. At once it is changed from its inorganic condition to something still inorganic, but utterly different from what it was before. It is edible now and in the usual condition for food. If we take it as food it will be worked upon by the forces of the body and pass into life and become a part of our organized active being. It has, by assimilation, become organic. Let me take the same article and subject it to the same amount of heat, or similar heat, but in a different way, by degrees, and not suddenly, and I bring about a vastly different result. If I subject it to the heat produced by the wings of a nursing mother through three weeks of time, then there will come a breaking of the outer wall, not from without, but from within, and there will stand out from it that which was inorganic but is now an object of organized life. This change has come to it not out of itself; this change has come to it from a power outside of its own world; a power supernatural to it; that is, above it in nature; not contrary to its nature, but higher than its own nature; it has been brought by the nursing process into life and power. As it existed in the first instance a result of generation, it exists now in the Kingdom of Life a result of regeneration.

Still one more thought in regard to it. Let me place that egg upon the pulpit and leave it, let no hand touch it for a year or two or more. Let it lie there intact, then let me come again and take it; will you use it for food? Will you try to hatch it? Let me subject it to the process by heat, in

boiling water, or let me subject it by heat, under the brooding wings of a hen, and it will never become an article of food, or awaken to organic life. Why? Because the forces within it, by which it was *by nature* acted on, have worked its ruin and it has become degenerate. No power outside of its world has worked upon it; but that which was in it by nature has worked in it, and its own degeneration has ensued.

Now for the application. Let us forget the illustration entirely. The human soul in connection with the physical nature exists. Where it came from I do not know, but that it is I do know. It exists in connection with the physical nature, and is the result of that inexplicable mystery which we call generation, by which human life is awakened out of other human life. Second, this human soul, in connection with a physical nature—for we do not know the soul in any other connection—is capable of degeneration. Third, the text asserts that the human soul in connection with a physical nature may become regenerate; that is, awakened into a new and different spiritual life. And we claim that such a potential result is a logical one; for if nature can furnish an analogy for us in things which are seen, it is surely logical that the same analogy exists and is carried into the realm of the unseen. For nature is one always and unchangeable; and the life which characterizes the grass there at my feet, and which characterizes the supremely great form of manhood, whose power we reverence, that same form of life is the life which characterizes the Eternal God.

[*March 17.*]

The second of the two points which I had in mind at the opening of this discourse is contained in the thought just now advanced. Before stating it again, there are two or three preliminaries necessary. The Savior in these words, "Except a man be born again, he cannot see the Kingdom of God"; uses three ideas which are purely physical. These three are: birth, sight, and kingdom; three ideas which are purely physical, and deal with the physical;

but He uses them as analogues of three ideas which are purely spiritual, and which can only be spiritually comprehended. "Except a man be born again" is the analogue of the "new birth"; that which we call regeneration. "He cannot see" is the analogue of that spiritual insight which we call "faith," and which attends the new birth into the Kingdom of God. By "kingdom" He carries the idea of organized force in society, and that thought "organized force in society" He uses as the analogue of the "Kingdom of God," by which He means primal power operating along the line of eternal righteousness in the Universe. To these spiritual ideas "new birth," "Divine insight," "Kingdom of God," the world of that day was absolutely blind, but no more blind than is the world of to-day, in which men are forever and forever asking, "How can these things be?" And the more exclusively a man devotes himself to the study of material phenomena, thinking thereby to answer the questions as to the spiritual things, which in their essential nature lie outside of the world in which his investigations are made, the louder will be his cry, "How can these things be?"

My second thought therefore is this: If a man rejects the ideas of regeneration, of spiritual illumination, and the Kingdom of God, because there is no forthcoming answer to his question, "How?" then, if he is logical, he must also reject the ideas which stand analogously for these things; if he rejects those ideas which are before him outside the range of experience because he cannot see "*how*," he must reject also those things which are behind him, within the range of experience, because he cannot tell as to them in the last analysis *how they can be!*

Let us take the first thought. Here is the open hand. It shuts, it opens. My will says "shut"; my will says "open"; "raise"; "lower"; by and by the time will come when the hand will no more shut, nor open, nor raise, nor lower, and men will look at the lifeless form and say, "He is dead." What is dead? What has gone? Where did it go? What is the body worth

now that it is gone? What is it? Where is it? Why did it go? Come with your philosophy and scientific investigation and tell me how this could be that one moment I should raise my hand, and in the next it should have become still forever.

All you know of physical life are the manifestations of physical life, and you know just as much of spiritual life as you know of physical life. I have seen physical life; I see it now. I know I see it; that is, I see its manifestations. I have seen spiritual life; I know I have seen spiritual life. I see it now. You may as well tell me I never looked upon the form of my father in the flesh, as to tell me that my eye has never looked upon the spiritual form of my Father which is in heaven. Any man can see Him who with open eyes and trustful heart looks out from the surroundings of time straight into God's Kingdom of Heaven and waits with patient spirit to see His manifestations.

[*March 24.*]

LET us take an illustration—sight. "Except a man be born again he cannot see." The general structure of the organ of sight in animals is the same in the highest and the lowest. Man as an animal has an eye made in a certain way. We can see in this light: but let us come into this room at night when there is no light within; let the sky be hung with black clouds that utterly cut off the small light of the stars, and we would be wholly ignorant of each other's presence so far as sight goes. Again, I have in my hand a stick. I walk along the road, and there on a low branch sits a bird. I put up my stick and push him; he winces and moves, but he cannot see, to know what disturbs him, at all. But let the darkness of night come over the scene, and let him sit there upon the low-reaching branch, he is all keenness now. If a field mouse runs across the ground beneath him, he sees that and in an instant is down from his perch, and has seized his prey. There runs across the floor a little animal we call the house-cat, with eyes so made that the light by which she sees in the day she stores up in

those orbs for use in the night, and both by day and night she sees. She goes her way by night or day at will. Why can she see in the night *and* in the day? Why can I see in the day and *not* in the night? Why can the owl see *in the night* and not in the day, having the same organ of vision which we call the eye, of the same general physical structure? Why? All we can say about this organ of sight is this: there are certain physical manifestations, in connection with the eyes of birds, of beasts, of men, which we see, but cannot tell how they operate or why they operate in certain ways. Now I assert that we know just as much about *spiritual insight* as we know about *physical insight*. All we know of either is in their manifestations—if you reject the one because you cannot understand and tell how it can be, you must reject the other because you cannot understand or tell how it can be.

[*March 31.*]

LET us take the third thought, "Kingdom." Here in this Kingdom of nature are objects of the same kind, whose visible life is governed by exact and apparently unalterable laws, and yet they produce very different results. Here are two shrubs by the side of my house. I am told they will blossom in the spring; they look just alike as they grow. When they open this bears a white blossom, and that a purple. Why? The rootlets are just the same, the fingers that are below the soil playing with nature's forces are just the same; but one set of rootlets picks up out of the soil that which makes the blossoms of the shrub white as snow, and the other in just the same soil and having just the same care, takes out of the soil that which makes the blossoms purple.

How can these things be? Here are three creatures fed on corn. I feed corn to my sheep, I feed corn to my horse, I feed corn to my hen. Wool grows on the sheep's back, hair on the horse's back, feathers on the hen. Why? The same food, the very same food, produces in the three animal organisms three different results.

I have two sorts of sand here. That

which I hold in this hand I subject to heat and mechanical process and I produce a beautiful clear plate glass, through which I can look, and am unconscious that glass is between me and the object seen. The other I subject to heat and mechanical process, and I have that formation which we call steel, and through it no light can pierce. Again with a certain kind of drill, I could put a hole through the steel, but I might drill forever on the plate glass, and only wear that same tool dull. Let a ray of sun come down upon the flinty glass, and it goes through it; but let the same ray of light shine upon the polished steel for a thousand years, and it would not go through at all. Why? How can these things be?

You see the believer in spiritual things and the believer in material things are not different in their attitude towards things around them. Neither one can answer the ultimate question to which we are forced when we come down to the last analysis. And so I press upon you, if there be one reader who assumes the attitude of rejecting the spiritual phenomena because he cannot answer "How?" the proposition, that if it is logical to reject the phenomena of the spiritual world because you cannot answer "How?" it is equally logical to reject the phenomena of the natural world because you cannot answer "How?"

Friends, be honest. Acknowledge that you are afloat on a boundless ocean. For you the blue expanse over which your life sails begins nowhere, ends nowhere. Beyond you lies the horizon which is nothing; beneath you lies an ocean which is nothing. You yourselves are coming from nowhere and are going into the nowhere. You are nowhere; you are *no thing*; an undreamed dream; a delusion that exists not. You are not material, not physical, not spiritual, nothing! Ah, but you say that is mental suicide. Yes, it is mental and spiritual suicide, and you have already committed mental and spiritual suicide, as far as the logical analysis goes, if you take the position of the man who calls himself agnostic, or unbeliever, because he cannot see "How?"

My readers, we are not shut up to such an awfulness of desolation as that. There is life and we know it; there is sight and we know it; there is growth into a Kingdom and we know it; and above the voice of the baffled seeker after *things*, who cries, "I ask, and I receive *no thing*; I seek and find *no thing*;" I knock and it is not opened unto me," yet there is the still, small voice that whispers, "Ask and ye shall receive; seek and ye shall find; knock and it shall be opened unto you."

I see two souls go down life's hillside; one with the unanswered question ever held like an open book before him, with shaking head, with trembling step, with shivering heart; down life's hillside he goes toward the valley of the shadow of death. His feet touch the brink of the stream yonder. "How?" is the only word and thought that fills his soul. At the touch of the icy stream there is a shiver, a struggle, a cry "No God!" a leap in the dark! The waters gurgle and he is gone. I see

another walking, in the language of those wonderful words, "Though I walk through the valley of the shadow of death, I will fear no evil: for Thou *art* with me; thy rod and thy staff they comfort me"—and he comes down to the water of the stream. Unshrinking he enters; the chill strikes to the center of vitality, but above the tremor of nature, "Then shall my latest breath whisper Thy praise," rises a song of prayer to God. Deeper he goes; still calm; deeper and deeper, the death wave sweeps upward; and yet he sings: "Jesus, Thou Prince of Life, Thy chosen cannot die." And now it is almost over him. The wave is icy chill to him too, now; and from his lips the cry, "O Christ, my Christ, can this be death?" And then he sinks from sight; and all is over. Over! Oh, no, not over. For there comes the rush of angel spirits, and the triumphant soul is borne away in song of cherubim and seraphim up to the throne where Christ sitteth at the right hand of God.

—R. S. Holmes, D.D.

THE WORLD'S DEBT TO MEDICINE.*

BY JOHN S. BILLINGS, M. D.

THE word "medicine" in the title of this article is used in the broad sense of including surgery, obstetrics,¹ the various specialties relating to diseases of the eye, ear, throat, skin, etc., and the so-called medical sciences such as anatomy, physiology, pathology,² and pharmacology,³ as well as the treatment of disease by means which do not require the use of instruments, or internal medicine as it is sometimes termed. Modern sanitary science and practical hygiene are not included, because these will be treated of in another article. Taken in this extended sense medicine has been of benefit to the world both directly and indirectly. Its direct effects have been produced by preventing, or by removing or mitigating the effects of, disease or injury; by making life more comfortable for individuals; its indirect benefits have consisted in part of

the good work which has been done for the family and the community by those persons whom it has preserved and sustained, and who could not have done such work without its aid, and, in part, of the results of the powerful stimulus which it has given to other branches of science and of art, and of the effects of the influence which it has exerted upon psychology,⁴ theology, and jurisprudence.

Medicine holds a high rank among the civilizing agencies of the world, and the history of its development is, to a great extent, the history of human progress. Perhaps the simplest way of giving some idea of the world's direct indebtedness to medicine will be to contrast the possibilities of relief three hundred years ago with those of the present day, in some dangerous conditions or diseases.

Let us take first the improvements which

*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

have been made in the management of childbirth, and their results. In 1594, for every thousand children born, at least fifteen and often forty, mothers died. In those days they had no anæsthetics;⁵ they knew very little of the nature of the difficulties which sometimes involve a fatal result both to mother and child if they are not removed; and the instruments which the physician of to-day uses in such cases with excellent results had not yet been devised. They knew nothing of the causes or nature of puerperal fever, which followed the visitations of certain physicians, nurses, or midwives like a pestilence, "which closed the eyes just opened upon a new world of life and happiness, bowed the strength of manhood to the dust, and cast the helplessness of infancy into the stranger's arms, or bequeathed it, with less cruelty, the death of its dying parent," and they could suggest no useful remedy. They saw the eyelids of the newborn babe redden and swell, and yellow matter exude from between them, and could foretell that in a few days or weeks the child would be partially or wholly blind; but they knew nothing of the simple and efficacious means by which the skilled physician of to-day averts such a calamity. To-day more than half of the dangers and terrors of childbirth are put aside by medical art, puerperal fever is almost unknown in cases where the proper precautions have been taken, and the death-rate of the mothers is less than five per thousand births.

As the child grew up, three centuries ago, one of its greatest dangers was due to small-pox, which appeared in epidemic form at intervals of about six years. All grown people in those days had either had small-pox, and were more or less pitted with its scars, or had proved themselves insusceptible to the poison. It became epidemic in a community as soon as enough young children had accumulated to furnish fuel for its flame, and the mothers and fathers waited helplessly to see which of their three or four young children was to fall a victim to the scourge. Now, thanks to vaccination, this danger is almost entirely removed.

Diphtheria existed in the old days; but it

was not known by that name; it was the malignant sore throat, or the *garrotillo*, or strangling disease, and absolutely nothing was known as to its course or proper treatment. This disease has caused a greater mortality within the last fifty years than it has ever done before; but the causes of its spread are now becoming understood, and there is good reason to hope that the persistent study and experimentation of a few physicians during the last three years has resulted in the discovery of a remedy which will greatly reduce its mortality.

In the sixteenth century fevers and dysenteries decimated the villages, the armies, and the prisons. No one knew anything definite about the differences between various kinds of fevers, and the corresponding differences of treatment which they demand. Malarial, typhoid, typhus, and relapsing fever were confounded. They had no quinine or cinchona⁶ bark. Gradually we have learned to distinguish between some of the different forms of fever, although there is still something to be done in this direction; and we have also learned how to treat some of the specific forms in such a way as greatly to reduce their mortality. The death-rate from typhoid fever under modern treatment is only about half of what it was fifty years ago.

Little attention was given in the sixteenth century to the recording of deaths or to the calculation of death-rates; and hence we cannot state accurately how much greater the expectation of life is in civilized countries to-day than it was three hundred, or even one hundred years ago; but we do know that it has decidedly increased. The average duration of life among the better class of Roman citizens, according to the Pandects⁷ of Justinian, was 30 years; in Geneva during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries it was not more than 20 years; fifty years ago it was about 38 years, and now it is between 45 and 50 years. This great saving in human life is due probably much more to better hygiene than to improvements in therapeutics,⁸ but it should be remembered that improvements in preventive medicine have been largely due to the

increase of knowledge by physicians in the matter of distinguishing different forms of disease, that is to say, to improvements in diagnosis.

Until the physicians had learned to distinguish the so-called "Devonshire colic" from other forms of abdominal pain, and had shown that it was due to poisoning from lead dissolved in cider, little or nothing of value was done in the way of prevention. It was not until the differences between typhoid and typhus fever had been discovered, and it had been shown that the former was rarely directly contagious, but was due to excreta,⁹ while the latter spread by contagion which depended largely upon overcrowding and lack of ventilation, that rational measures could be taken to prevent, or limit the spread of, these diseases.

The most direct evidence of the prolongation of life and relief from suffering for which the world is indebted to medicine is to be found in the records of surgery and some of its special branches.

Three hundred years ago, when a surgeon was bold enough to amputate a crushed or gangrenous limb, to remove a large tumor, to attempt to relieve a strangulated bowel, or to extract a stone from the bladder, he had no anæsthetic, and his great dread was of the spouting blood from the vessels which he was obliged to cut. In 1564 Ambrose Paré had described and recommended the method of ligating blood vessels divided in an operation, instead of using the red hot iron to burn the ends, as was the usual method; but it was more than a hundred years after that before the ligature came into general use for this purpose. It is only within the present century in fact that we have come to understand the importance of shedding as little blood as possible in operations, and the best methods of doing this. The surgical patient in old times deferred the torture of an operation as long as possible, and when he was at last compelled to undergo it, he did so with comparatively little hope of surviving its effects; for pyæmia¹⁰ was then the rule rather than the exception after an operation, especially in hospitals. In a large proportion of cases in

which the surgeon now operates with a fair chance of success, such as tumors of various kinds, crushes and gangrene in the upper part of the thigh, dilatations of the great arteries in the neck, the armpit, the groin, etc., there was then no hope of relief, and the unhappy sufferer could only look forward to inevitable death.

If he had a cancer of the lip, or she had a cancer of the breast or womb, death was prayed for to put an end to the persistent pain and horrible sights and odors with which they were afflicted, while now such persons, if they present themselves in time to the surgeon, can be relieved in the majority of cases, and thus the bread-winner of the family is preserved, the mother remains with her children. The patient inhales a little sweetish vapor, and sleeps. The surgeon works deliberately and carefully, every bleeding vessel is secured at once, everything that is allowed to touch the wound has been carefully sterilized by heat or chemicals, so that none of the bacteria which cause supuration can gain access to it, and when the patient awakes he finds himself in his bed looking up vaguely into the face of the trained nurse who stands by its side, and wondering why the operation has not commenced. He does not have to look forward to weeks and perhaps months of suppuration, with daily dressings, before his wound has healed—for several days he has nothing to do but eat and sleep, his bandages will be looked at, but probably not touched before the end of the week, when they will be removed, and instead of an open wound there will be seen a thin red line marking the place of the future scar.

The world's debt to surgery does not consist merely in the number of lives saved by the latter, but it also includes the vast shortening of the period of suffering and unproductivity which formerly existed after an operation.

It is in what is called abdominal surgery that medicine has recently obtained some of its greatest triumphs and has conferred some of its greatest benefits. The removal of ovarian and uterine tumors is now so common and successful an operation that

it is a little difficult to realize that less than a hundred years ago the means of relief for these affections did not exist.

In former days many people died of painful diseases of the abdominal cavity, of the true nature of which little was known, and which were vaguely called inflammation or obstruction of the bowels. Now it is known that many of these are due to inflammation and perforation of a little worm-like body attached to the beginning of the large intestine in the right side of the lower part of the abdomen, and which is known as the appendix vermiformis; and hardly a day goes by that a successful operation is not somewhere performed for the cure of disease of this organ.

Wounds of the abdominal cavity implicating the intestines were formerly considered to be almost necessarily fatal, and no attempt was made to put the injured organs in a condition to repair the damage done; while now in such cases the abdomen is opened almost as a matter of course, the bleeding is stopped, the effused blood and other matters removed, the openings in the intestines closed, and in many cases life is preserved.

Turning now from these triumphs of general surgery, the list of which it would be easy to greatly lengthen, let us consider for a moment the great increase to the comfort and producing-ability of man which has been brought about by the studies of physicians on the mechanism and diseases of the eye. The number of men and women who have been freed from headaches and various obscure forms of nervous irritation, and who have been enabled to do their daily work with comfort, and to enjoy the beauties of nature and the pleasures of literature, by means of glasses properly fitted to correct the effects of the irregular and distorted structure of their eyes, is very great, and is becoming greater every day. The operations for the removal of cataract, and for the making of an artificial pupil have literally given sight to the blind in thousands of cases.

The benefits of medicine in diseases of the ear are not so marked as they have been

in diseases of the eye; but the many deaths formerly caused by the extension of inflammation from the internal ear to the membranes and venous canals of the brain are now being prevented by the timely operation which physicians urge in cases of chronic discharge from the external ear.

The removal of tumors from the larynx, and the passing a silver tube into the organ in cases of croup or diphtheria have already saved many lives, although they are comparatively recent discoveries.

The resources of modern medicine for the relief of pain are great and manifold. With the aid of the hypodermic¹¹ syringe and of the alkaloids obtained from narcotic plants, such as morphine for example, agonizing spasmodic pain like that caused by the passage of a calculus¹² from the kidney can be promptly done away with, while such drugs as the bromides, chloral, sulfonal, etc., are available to procure rest for the weary brain. Besides ether, chloroform, and other substances for producing general anæsthesia by inhalation, we can produce insensibility in a particular part by the use of cocaine, or by the intense cold produced by the ethyl or rhigolene¹³ jet, and thus be able to perform many painless operations.

Recently it has been discovered that a peculiar disease characterized by a swelling of the face and extremities, and by increasing mental weakness, and which is known as myxedema, is due to a failure of a gland situated in the front of the neck, called the thyroid gland, to perform its proper work, and such cases, which were formerly almost surely fatal, are now cured by means of an extract from thyroid glands of sheep.

Many of the disorders of old age which make life a burden are now susceptible of palliation or relief so as to secure comfort to the patient, although the degenerations of tissues and organs which give rise to them may be beyond the reach of art.

I have space for but one more specimen of the direct benefits which medicine has conferred upon mankind, and this is the improvement which has been made in the care and treatment of the insane and feeble-

minded. For hundreds of years these unfortunate creatures were supposed to be special objects of divine displeasure, to be possessed by demons, or to be suffering from witchcraft, and exorcisms were almost the only remedies applied. If these failed, the stake or the gallows was resorted to in many cases, and these were quite as fortunate as most of those who were confined in asylums in which all sorts of lunatics were huddled together like brutes. As Dr. Conolly remarks, it is difficult to account for the long neglect, in civilized communities, of those afflicted with a malady more dreadful than most other maladies in that, before it destroys life, it destroys all that makes life valuable or desirable. Yet nothing is more certain than that this complicated misery has been, not only the subject of neglect, but of the greatest abuse and cruelty. Through the investigations and efforts of a few physicians all this has been changed, and the majority of the insane are well housed and fed and receive skilled medical treatment, which in many cases results in their restoration to their families "clothed in their right mind."

Great as is the debt which the world owes to medicine for the saving of life and the relief or mitigation of suffering, this is small in comparison with the indirect benefits to society which it has conferred. Its practical utility extends far beyond the relief of individuals, for the actions and work of kings, of statesmen, and of the leaders of human thought and progress are at times dependent upon its aid. Medicine is the parent of the biological¹⁴ sciences, including anthropology¹⁵ and modern sociology.¹⁶

Educated physicians have led the way in all branches of natural history, and have contributed much to chemistry. Medicine has exerted a powerful influence, not merely by the discoveries which it has made and announced, but by disseminating the

modes of observation, of investigation and of reasoning, of its votaries. For hundreds of years the flickering and feeble flame of true scientific thought was kept alight mainly by men who had studied medicine, and in the organization of great scientific societies in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the physicians took a most prominent part.

The physician does not so separate the consideration of the psychical part of man from that of his physical organization, as is commonly done by the theologian or the jurist. The more he studies his subject the more he is convinced that with every mental or spiritual manifestation there is some co-ordinate change in bodily structure; that body and mind exert a powerful influence upon each other, that disorder of the one may produce disorder of the other, and that both must be taken into consideration in dealing with ignorance, folly, vice, and crime. This view has gradually become prevalent among educated men, the modern jurisprudence of insanity is based upon it, and it is beginning to be accepted by criminologists and social reformers.

The influence of the physician in social life has always been great, because he becomes the trusted personal friend of many persons who seek his advice and opinions in matters unconnected with their ailments, and it cannot be doubted that this influence has been almost invariably exerted for good. The example set by him of habitual self-sacrifice, of giving up his own comfort, and sometimes risking his own health and life for the sake of his patients, of punctuality, and of precision and accuracy in his work, which is often undertaken without the smallest prospect of pecuniary reward, is an example which has some effect upon those who are acquainted with his daily life, all the more because these things become habits which "exact no effort, involve no indecision, and, above all, no self-praise."

SCOTT'S "WOODSTOCK."

A ROMANCE OF THE ENGLISH REVOLUTION.

BY PROFESSOR R. G. MOULTON, PH. D.

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SIR WALTER SCOTT'S romance of "Woodstock" is a literary illumination thrown upon the climax of the best known epoch in British history—the period of the Civil War and Political Revolution. The mutual attitude of parties in that day is substantially the mutual attitude of English parties to-day; Cromwell and Charles still have their worshipers. And I have myself come across persons strongly prejudiced on both sides of the controversy who recognize that "Woodstock" is a wonderfully fair presentation of its period.

The first thing we naturally look for in such a picture is the variety of parties reflected in the personages of the story. In an era of civil war, party lines will be drawn with a sharpness scarcely realizable in peaceful times. Throughout all Britain neighbors must have been sundered like the Everards and the Lees, dragging apart in their schism a pair of true lovers. Men educated side by side, like Holdenough and Joseph Albany, came to be leaders of warring churches. Or here and there would be found those whose early ties were still preserved amid political contests, as where Markham Everard manages to save Roger Wildrake by making him his clerk.

"Chums at college and Lincoln's Inn—we have been Nisus and Euryalus, Theseus and Pirithous, Orestus and Plyades;¹ and, to sum up the whole with a Puritanic touch, David and Jonathan, all in one breath. Not even politics, the wedge that rends families and friendships asunder, as iron rives oak, has been able to split us."

The very name "Woodstock" introduces us to Cavalier associations—a Royal Lodge dating from the time of Henry of Anjou² and the Fair Rosamond. Its varied and multiplied fronts make an absolute banquet to the architectural antiquary, containing specimens of every style from pure Norman to composite Elizabethan. The ranger³ of

Woodstock Park is Sir Henry Lee, and in him we have the old-fashioned Cavalier—the pure "Conservative" of his age—whose fidelity to his king is as absolute, and as essentially instinctive, as the fidelity of his noble hound Bevis to himself. Handsome in person, and picturesque in his Vandyck⁴ dress, Sir Henry represents the stateliness of the old courtly life; he has also the literary veneering of the Cavaliers, and Shakespeare is forever on his lips, though even Shakespeare seems recommended most by his being "the closet companion of my blessed master." The proper surroundings for a knight and ranger are furnished. But the choicest element in the household is the knight's daughter Alice, in whom Cavalier womanhood is seen at its best. The refinement and grace of high birth sit naturally upon her; but there is beneath a heart deep enough to cling to the Puritan playmate of her childhood. As a simple girl who has never been to court she innocently idealizes her king (to the confusion of his guilty conscience). But she can flash out at the king himself when he presumes: more than that, by her mingled dignity and sweetness, she can transform the second Charles for a period into a chivalrous gentleman.

With the Cavalier party is naturally associated the old Church of England. The rector, Dr. Rochecliffe, has been expelled from Woodstock parish, but still hovers about the mansion—to the architectural mysteries of which he is high priest. Not the least touching incident in the story is the evening picture of the rector in his robes reading in the keeper's hut the service of the outlawed church to the dispossessed knight and his kneeling daughter. Another point is worth noting. The bias toward *policy* that invariably goes with the institution of a state church appears—of course in an exaggerated form—in the way that Dr.

Rochecliffe is the arch-plotter of the story. He revels in the thought of holding in his fingers threads of complicated intrigues on behalf of the royal cause, and insists on all his friends' taking their assigned parts without questioning, as if they were living chess men. Of course the worthy doctor is not aware, as the reader is, that all these deep intrigues are known and used by Cromwell.

But there were Cavaliers of another type than this; and they are represented for us by Roger Wildrake, of Squattlesea Mere. In him we see the Young England of the period,—the roaring blades who, under the dashing generalship of Prince Rupert,⁶ had made so much of the king's fighting force. In this particular specimen of them animal spirits have run to the seed of loose living. His Puritan friend says:

"The whole vices of his faction are in this poor fellow individually. He is reckless, intemperate, dissolute . . . yet withal he is kind, brave, and generous, and would have kept the faith with me which he now expects from me."

He has capacity for service to his cause, but even more capacity for drink; he vents loyalty and oaths with equal vehemence; he never passes a church without taking off his hat, but he is seldom seen inside. Yet the core of him is honest, even if his honesty has gone a little moldy. As one of "Lunsford's Lads"—who had the reputation of cannibalism with their frightened foes—he had one day acted up to his reputation and demanded a babe for breakfast. But when a parish nurse with an unpaid bill suddenly took him at his word, and placed her charge in his arms, he not only enjoyed the laugh against himself, but secretly brought up the "bold Breakfast" and made a man of him out of his own slender means. And in the exigencies of the story Wildrake twice proves equal to a great occasion: many a better man than he cannot say as much.

Dr. Rochecliffe's successor in the parish of Woodstock is the Rev. Nehemiah Holdenough, "much famed for the length and strength of his powers of predication." In him we have a representative of the great Presbyterian party.

"He was a tall thin man, with an adust com-

plexion, and the vivacity of his eyes indicated some irascibility of temper. His dress was brown, not black, and over his other vestments he wore, in honor of Calvin, a Geneva cloak of a blue colour, which fell backwards from his shoulders as he posted on to the pulpit. His grizzled hair was cut as short as shears could perform the feat, and covered with a black silk skull-cap, which stuck so close to his head, that the two ears expanded from under it as if they had been intended as handles by which to lift the whole person. Moreover, the worthy divine wore spectacles, and a long grizzled peaked beard, and he carried in his hand a small pocket Bible with silver clasps."

He is of course sincere to the heart's core; and in confidence of faith fearless, equally ready to lecture Cromwell and face the ghosts of Woodstock Mansion. He can be made to quail only before the apparition of a man he thinks he has wronged in the old fighting days. The party of which Nehemiah Holdenough is a type are of course at deadly enmity with Rome and with English prelacy. But they are no less bitterly opposed to liberty of private judgment, and view the times as threatening to make England the very "sink and cesspool of all schisms, heresies, blasphemies, and confusions, as the army of Hannibal was said to be the refuse of all nations."

Next we get the Independents, reflecting as many different sects as there are colors in the rainbow.

"The presumption of these learned Thebans being in exact proportion to their ignorance, the last was total and the first boundless. Their behaviour in the church was anything but reverential or edifying. Most of them affected a cynical contempt for all that was only held sacred by human sanction—the church was to these men but a steeple-house, the clergyman an ordinary person, her ordinances dry bran and sapless pottage, unfitted for the spiritualized palates of the saints, and the prayer an address to Heaven to which each acceded or not as in his too critical judgment he conceived fit."

To this class belong the "military saints," equally ready to expound on difficult points of doctrine and endure the shock of a cavalry charge. The story opens with a characteristic sermon from one of these military preachers, who announces the "disparking" of Woodstock in the form of an outpouring, which applies the "Gird thy sword on thy

thigh" of the forty-fifth Psalm to General Cromwell.

"I can tell you where the sword was forged and tempered, and welded, and grinded, and polished. . . . It was forged at Long Marston Moor, where blows went faster than ever rung hammer on anvil—and it was tempered at Naseby, in the best blood of the Cavaliers—and it was welded in Ireland against the walls of Drogheda—and it was grinded on Scottish lives at Dunbar—and now of late it was polished in Worcester, till it shines as bright as the sun in the middle heaven, and there is no light in England that shall come nigh unto it."

Besides the great parties, the condition of the times was favorable for the formation of knots and factions, and for individual attitudes to national questions. The device of a Parliamentary Commission for the sequestration of Woodstock Park gives Scott an opportunity for some careful character pictures of this kind. Desborough—brother-in-law of Cromwell—reminds us of those who, in any age, rise purely by family connections; stupid and vulgar, his fine dress sits upon him like the gilded armor upon a signpost hog. Harrison represents the "Fifth Monarchy Men." Incapable of fear he is ready at a moment's call to commence the Battle of Armageddon⁷ and usher in the Millennium; in the interval of waiting he has enough of this-worldliness to be glad of an opportunity to benefit his private estate by performing a public duty.

Scott has drawn in greater detail the third of the commissioners—Mr. Joshua Bletson, of Darlington, member for the borough of Littlefaith. Bletson is a purely intellectual politician. Disappointed in the hope of ever realizing the ideal republic pictured in the speculations of Harrington, he looks upon all other forms of government as "equal in their imperfections," and will as soon follow Cromwell as anybody else. He has an equal contempt for ecclesiastical disputes about Prelacy and Presbytery and Independency, disputes over Quakers and Anabaptists, Muggletonians and Brownists:⁸ "as if the beasts of burden should quarrel amongst themselves about the fashion of their halters and pack-saddles, instead of embracing a favorable opportunity for throwing them

aside." All the same, when ghosts are rampant in the Lodge, Bletson conjures Everard "by the *Animus Mundi*"⁹ not to leave him alone; and the only time he is known to lose his temper is when he is found in the morning after the ghost visits with a Bible under his pillow, which he protested was only Lucretius.

"Such was the singular group . . . showing, in their various opinions, upon how many devious coasts human nature may make shipwreck, when she has once let go her hold on the anchor which religion has given her to lean upon—the acute self-conceit and worldly learning of Bletson, the rash and ignorant conclusions of the fierce and underbred Harrison, leading them into the opposite extremes of enthusiasm and infidelity, while Desborough, constitutionally stupid, thought nothing about religion at all; and, while the others were active in making sail on different but equally erroneous courses, he might be said to perish like a vessel which springs a leak and founders in the roadstead."

But of course the Parliamentary cause has other leaders than these. In Markham Everard we have a self-poised character, who is no blind devotee of any system, but picks his way through the perplexities of the age in the light of principles and patriotic wisdom. In religion he is a Presbyterian by conviction, but not to the extent of forcing Presbyterianism on the unwilling. He has become a power both in the field and in council. And he finally decides, not without heart-searching and misgiving, to throw in his lot with Cromwell, because he thinks—and history has been of the same opinion since—that a point had been reached when of the warring elements the strongest was the best for the country.

All these various shades of opinion fall into the two main classes of Royalists and Puritans. And Scott has taken pains to suggest for each of these parties a literary ideal. Shakespeare, so far as he can be classed, is the poet of the Renaissance; and it was to Renaissance ideals that the conservatism of the civil war period was harking back,¹⁰ in vain attempt to stem the irresistible flow of time. So in our story, not only is the knight forever quoting "Will Shakespeare," but the military preacher thumps a First Folio—a veritable Hemmings

and Condell¹¹—as a text for denunciation of Cavalier depravity.

"Verily, I say, that since the devil fell from heaven, he has never lacked agents on earth; yet nowhere hath he met with such a wizard having such infinite power over men's souls as this pestilent fellow Shakespeare. Seeks a wife a foul example for adultery, here she shall find it—would a man know how to train his fellow to be a murderer, here shall he find tutoring—would a lady marry a heathen negro, she shall have chronicled example for it—would any one scorn at his Maker, he shall be furnished with a jest in this book—would he defy his brother in the flesh he shall be accommodated with a challenge—would you be drunk, Shakespeare will cheer you with a cup—would you plunge in sensual pleasures, he will soothe you to indulgence, as with the lascivious sounds of a lute. This, I say, this book is the well-head and source of all those evils which have over-run the land like torrents, making men scoffers, doubters, deniers, murderers, make-bates,¹² and lovers of the wine-pot, haunting unclean places, and sitting long at the evening wine. Away with him, away with him, men of England! to Tophet with his wicked book!"

An exactly equal violence of language is heard from the other side. Markham Everard has been asked, in polite sarcasm, whether "the convulsion which has sent us saints and prophets without end, has not also afforded us a poet with enough both of gifts and grace to outshine poor old Will, the oracle and idol of us blinded and carnal Cavaliers?" In answer he manages to present, as the production of "a friend of the Commonwealth," one of the celebrated passages from the Masque of *Comus*. Sir Henry is much moved, and admits that this is poetry though it were written by an Anabaptist.

"Doubtless, the gentleness of spirit, and purity of mind which dictated those beautiful lines, has long ago taught a man so amiable to say, I have sinned, I have sinned . . . and now he sits drooping for the shame and sorrow of England,—all his noble rhymes, as Will says,

'Like sweet bells jangled, out of tune and harsh.'
Dost thou not think so, Master Kerneguy?"

The Scotch page, with malicious enjoyment, lets out the fact that the quotation was from no less celebrated a person than John Milton.

"'John Milton!' exclaimed Sir Henry in astonishment—'What! John Milton, the blasphemous and

bloody-minded author of *Defensio Populi Anglicani*! —the advocate of the Infernal High Court of Fiends; the creature and parasite of that grand impostor, that loathsome hypocrite, that detestable monster, that prodigy of the universe, that disgrace of mankind, that landscape of iniquity, that sink of sin, and that compendium of baseness, Oliver Cromwell!"

The story having moved, in its earlier parts, through contrasts of parties, and individuals, and even literary ideals, like these, for its climax brings on the stage the leading figures of the controversy—Charles and Cromwell. In both portraits Scott has shown depth and historic discrimination. Charles is painted as dissolute, but the author takes pains to suggest that it is the vice bred by a vicious atmosphere; and in the purer air of Woodstock the fugitive prince becomes capable of better things. But Scott has reserved his force for attacking one of the great problems of history—the character of Oliver Cromwell. Cromwell is perhaps best summed up as a colossus of sagacity born into a movement great enough to give that sagacity full scope. He was sincerely religious, to the extent of enthusiasm. But the first simplicity with which he worked for the good cause became impossible as this work revealed in him a personality that must dominate; measured by contact with other men he was forced into leadership, and personal aims were added to public service. He was no hypocrite, but one who honestly attempted to serve two masters,—honestly, because he thought, and had good reason for thinking, that God's way and the way of his own rise to power were one and the same. So his action became invested with a doubleness, that was however never a conflict. And this doubleness—of plans, of motives, of speech—Scott has well painted. True, worn out by long strain and failure of his *coup-de-main*,¹³ Cromwell is represented at the end of the story as venting his feelings in an unjust and indiscriminate sentence on the captives. But his attendants know too well the general drift of his character to execute it promptly; and when Cromwell awakes with recovered tone he dismisses all his foes with a leniency that is born of conscious power.

GLIMPSE OF A GERMAN WATERING PLACE.

BY SIDNEY WHITMAN.

THE magnificence of recent growth of German towns has seemingly not yet had time to influence the character of the inhabitants in the way Ruskin would bid us believe—that splendor of design ought to influence the mind: *i. e.*, to enlarge and ennoble it. Until yesterday, German towns were petty; and the character of their inhabitants—particularly of the female section thereof—essentially narrow-minded. Hence the extraordinary prevalence, even to-day, of mutual backbiting and slander. To a stranger, mixing freely in German town life, it is absolutely astounding to note the amount of ill-natured gossip which passes current for truth all the year round.

You exchange a few words in the street with a man you met at dinner the evening before in one of the first houses of the town. You notice that he is a cultivated man, and you are given to understand that he is wealthy as well. You have hardly separated from him, when you are accosted by somebody else—somebody whose acquaintance you may have made in a beer-house—but a man of education and social standing, for all that. He will tell you, with the blandest smile in the world, that he is surprised to see you speaking to X, as it is a well known fact that he made his fortune by usury.

There is Countess Y, one of the loveliest women it is possible to imagine outside the frame of one of Titian's masterpieces; and she is in truth as charming as she is beautiful. But you must not say so in Z, where she resides: you will be told that she is enameled and that her second child is not recognized by her husband. He is a coarse brute. They lead a cat-and-dog life. You know it is all a base lie; you know the husband well. You know he is not only one of the most gifted, but also one of the most high-minded of men. You know he dotes on his wife. But you must not hope

to convince the envious neighbors that they are wrong; for time is money and you would be losing it. Many are the instances of baseless slander of this description which have come under my notice in Germany. And the worst of it is, the legal penalties for taking away that which cannot enrich others but leaves us poor indeed, are ridiculously inadequate.

Now it has occurred to me that among a high-minded race—such as the Germans undoubtedly are—pettiness of circumstance and envy by themselves are insufficient to account for the source of it all. It must have something to do with a sluggish liver, and Germany is—particularly German towns—the home of hypochondriasis.¹

Drunkards and dipsomaniacs² (especially females) are very rare in Germany; and yet what quantities of light wines and beer Germans will consume, besides being, as a rule, hasty and voracious eaters, taking little exercise and living in badly ventilated rooms. No wonder then that chronic troubles of the digestive organs, and their accompaniment, hypochondriasis, are so common in Germany. One of the most objectionable forms of this hypochondriasis to the foreign visitor is the general mortal dread of a "draft." They call everything a draft, from an open door to the suspicion of a chink in the window sash. To force fresh air upon them is often like putting castor oil to the nose of a child. It will make them squeal. The same men who slept on the soaking sod from Woerth to Gravelotte will fight to the death in a railway carriage in the heat of a summer evening, unless you agree to have both windows closed. "*Es zieht*" (there's a draft), he moans. German houses, in many respects superior to our own, are diabolical in their design of excluding every current of fresh air. No wonder their womankind get sallow-complexioned in the prime of life.

There is little of downright boisterous

humor to be found in Germany, either in literature or in social life. Also it is very rare to see a man or woman of advanced age retaining the buoyant spirits or youthful appearance we often meet with in England in conjunction with happy old age, those splendid testimonials to a perfect digestion. And yet there are exceptions, for it was a German old lady who, receiving on her death-bed an invitation to a tea party, sent her apologies. She could not come, she said, as she was busy dying. But this woman had given birth to an Olympian³: it was Goethe's mother.

The tendency to brood over the state of your health is one very widely spread in Germany, and some years ago, the publication of a treatise on Health and Illness, in a widely read family magazine, did a deal to foster this inborn tendency toward hygienic self-contemplation. Bearing this in mind, it is surprising that there is so little quackery to be met with. In fact, there is so little of it of home growth, that when the Germans want a quack medicine they have to send abroad for the article.

Happily in many cases the anxiety of the German for his health takes a sensible form, and sends him in the summer—if he can afford it—to one of the many lovely watering places studded all over the country. There for several weeks he takes the cure in form of sundry daily glasses of mineral water. Or he simply diets himself and lives in the open air according to the laws of nature; though, sad to say, only too often in order to break them again during the remainder of the year. But while he is taking the cure, he is usually everything to everybody; he feels at peace with mankind and has fortunately left his backbiting tongue behind him. Let us follow him in his healthier, more compact frame of mind to the congenial little Bavarian Bad,⁴ Kissingen.

Situated in a lovely valley amid the Franconian hills, Kissingen is one of those German health resorts, which, like Wiesbaden, Homburg, Ems, Schwalbach, and many others, attract the ailing and the healthy alike from all parts of the world. To arrive there is to feel that the mere aspect of the

place must contribute to your well-being. Nor is it nature alone which makes these German watering places the most renowned of their kind all over the world. It is the genius of the country which adds its imprimatur⁵ to their charm. The dazzling cleanliness of the streets and houses, the number of excellent hotels and restaurants, the carefully laid-out shady walks which enable the visitor to wander for miles under the shelter of thick-leaved trees; the pretty theater, the imposing Kurhaus⁶ with its large Concert Hall, lastly, the general air of ease, simplicity, and contentment of the population—all these combine to make Kissingen what it is: one of those delightful places peculiarly German in character and simple attractiveness. The population is as yet unspoilt—unlike that of the Rhine or the Riviera; which has gradually become a race of grasping harpies⁷ by living on the stranger from one generation to another.

Simplicity of living distinguishes the visitors as well as the residents. There are no luxurious carriages and gorgeous liveries on the one hand, and beggary and bands of seedy musicians staring you in the face on the other. The millionaire or "high" and "transparent" noble visitor enjoys his evening glass of Franconian wine in one of the picturesque little wine shops of the town, sitting perchance at the same table with the barber who shaved him in the morning.

What adds materially to the simplicity of Kissingen life is the universal medical prescription of simple diet. Many people buy their own provisions and take them home to their lodgings. Even the English peer, who at home is eaten up alive by his servants in these hard times, will think nothing in Kissingen of entering a grocer's shop and buying sixpenn'orth of cold ham or sausage and a penn'orth of butter and carrying them himself home in a parcel in triumph to his "Lady" for supper.

It will always remain one of my most genial memories of Kissingen that while there I was privileged to contribute in a humble way to the happiness of a charming Boston family. Walking in the Promenade one

afternoon, I caught sight of Lord Mulligatwny and his "Lady," and was able to point them out to my Bostonian acquaintances. I still remember with pleasure their delight and their gratitude. The chubby farmer-face of His Lordship and the well-nourished figure of Her Ladyship made a deep impression on them. "You can see at once that they are to the manner born," the mother reverently ejaculated.

Of a summer afternoon you can see people of all conditions and nationalities sitting promiscuously in the Kurgarten listening to a splendid orchestral band. Monarchs retired from business, English princes sitting side by side, yes, cheek by jowl, with the Bavarian peasant, who drops in from the neighborhood of a Sunday afternoon to hear the music. I have even seen a country yokel take the chair of an English prince by mistake, and the latter, instead of annihilating him with a glance, quietly make shift with another seat. And all is peace, serenity, and harmony, except if ill-luck has it that some female member of the English upper middle-class should sniff the presence of royalty! In such a case then good-by to princely repose.* Should royalty be of English extraction, it will beat a hasty retreat.

Among the characteristic features of German fashionable watering places are the peculiar types of our countrymen and countrywomen who congregate there: types you may not meet with at home if you live a lifetime in England. It is one of the riddles which a prolonged stay in Germany offers for our solution, where all the insular rubbish hails from which we meet abroad. And a riddle it will always remain to those of us who have our dearest and best friends at home, where the many objectionable caricatures of our countrymen—if they exist—at least do not attract our attention.

The English clergyman has a keen eye to business. He holds morning service as well as evensong in the hotel drawing room—or,

at a pinch, in the dining room, ousting the natives—in return for gratis board and lodging—to the intense disgust and annoyance of all but our tolerant countrymen. There are few types that spread abroad so keen a dislike for our countrymen as these aggressive psalm-intonating, free-boarding English parsons.

London club loafers, suffering from a disordered liver, also favor Kissingen with their patronage. And if you ask one of these how he likes the place, he will tell you that it is infernally slow, the waters are all bosh, the Scotch whisky at the hotel is execrable and, do what he may, he cannot get a fourth hand for a rubber.

It would be ridiculous to tell such a person: "But, my dear sir, pray be reasonable. Just think for a moment. Here, at least, you have no vile drinking bars smelling of stale alcohol; no foul betting crowd with its latest list of winners, no filthy gathering of drunken racing men." He would not understand you. But you might playfully venture to remind such as he of the British sailor, who, arriving at The Nore⁸ from the Mediterranean, exclaimed: "Thank goodness, no sunshine here."

The visitors' list of Kissingen shows us a queer medley of names and titular distinctions. Side by side with their "Excellencies" and their "Transparencies" you find X., *Fleischwaarenfabrikanten Gemahlin*: literally translated: "meat goods' manufacturer's consort." Freely rendered: "the estimable wife of a pork butcher." Or again: *Königlich Hofsilbergeschirr Putzers Tochter aus Berlin*; translated nothing less than: royal silver plate cleaner's daughter from Berlin. Harmless love of nomenclature, how you have been ridiculed, and yet somehow I prefer you to our edition of the same article. Our titles mean something, if it be only the possession of money; and we know how to truckle to them, too!

Honest sausage maker's wife, and you, fair-haired royal plate cleaner's daughter, the chances are that you and yours are content with the humble position Providence bestowed upon you, and are happy. The chances are that in your simple way you are

* It is a well-known authenticated fact that when one of our much to be pitied royal princes engages a berth in a steamer bound, say, to India, the berths are immediately eagerly competed for by this section of English society, in the groveling hope of being able to scrape acquaintance with royalty during the voyage.

both well off; and when you come back to your household gods, will find a hearty welcome in a bright clean home. You might have eked out the expenses of your "cure" if you had let your flat furnished in your absence. But, humble though you are, you do not like the idea of strangers sleeping in the family linen. You are simple folks, who have yet a deal to learn: even from a proud aristocracy which lets its houses, its family plate and crested linen to American *parvenus*,⁹ while airing its jaded nerves among the hills of Homburg.

But wait and look. Plain "Mr. Harcourt, England," figures in the list. How unpretending and yet how distinguished! None of your tawdry foreign titles here!

Who is he?

Why, you don't know the Harcourts! Are you a tradesman, or some such vile snob? But even if such be the case, you ought to know the Harcourts, were it only from having served them behind the counter or blackened their boots! Why, sir, the Honorable Mr. Harcourt is the younger son of Lord Orpington. He is the vicar of South Greggletoncum-le-Church. The living has been in the family these last three hundred years. He married a widow with £10,000 per annum, and he pays a curate £80 a year to do his duties ten months out of the twelve. He has come here to take the waters, while his wife and family are at Homburg eager to share the intimacy of Royalty with sundry transatlantic elements. He is related to half the peerage, and his friendship is as good as an investment in the Three Per Cents. This man can dispense with a title.

Not so Lady Montague Mackintosh *aus London mit Dienerschaft*: translated literally, a "staff of servants." Thus does the complaisant Visitors' List herald the bunion-toed maid Her Ladyship has brought with her from the neighborhood of Cavendish Square. Her "Ladyship" who impresses the natives with all the nimbus of a real live hard-lipped peeress, is the spouse of a successful medical man! She is ordered to take the waters to set up her jaded nerves. The London season has been too much for her.

Sir Montague Mackintosh has written

popular treatises—medicine made easy—something like French learnt in twelve lessons. He gives popular lectures on local diseases, and these lectures have been widely noticed by an indulgent press. He is *the* fashionable specialist of the day and his house is a center of "high" art, literature, journalism, and fashion. They are a happy couple, for they are both shrewd, pushing, and ambitious, without ever colliding. The husband's ambition is to scrape fees together by hook or by crook, and her ambition is to attain a social position by dexterously spending those fees on dress and entertainment. He is a good fellow in his way, as long as he is not gripping a wealthy patient by the throat. She is a vulgar Englishwoman—something akin to a city alderman's "Lady." But that fact is not so easy for foreigners to "diagnosicate"; and at home it is rather a recommendation than otherwise. At Kissingen Her Ladyship has exchanged cards with the fair representatives of the English upper middle-class, and the English clergyman has been favored with the donation of a twenty-mark piece toward the building of the new English church, the site of which is a gift of the town. What that church will be like remains to be seen. But one thing is certain,—that before its roof is on, there will have been more clerical begging, cadging, and toadying mixed up with its bricks and mortar than would go to build a Catholic cathedral. Let us move out of this into the open air!

Follow the course of that dear little historic river, the Franconian Saale, for half an hour, or take the tiny screw steamer which whistles its willingness to have you. It will land you at the so-called Saline. There are the renowned hot spring baths, and splendid indeed they are. Thither comes Bismarck year after year in search of health. When he comes, the regent of Bavaria always sends his own carriage for his disposal. Here stands his statue. And in this very town, the bullet marks of his Pomeranians are still to be seen in the walls and shop windows. Not far off a memorial stone is fixed in the wall of a house:

"Here by Divine Providence Prince Bismarck was saved from the hands of the assassin Kullmann."

Bismarck is the pride of Kissingen. The inhabitants show their appreciation of him by respecting his privacy.

After four weeks of the somewhat relaxing Kissingen waters, let us go in for the orthodox "after cure." The "after cure" is supposed to brace us up after the weakening effects of the Kissingen waters, and simply consists of breathing the ozone-charged air of hilly pine forests. Thus we exchange the hot sultry valley of the Saale for the bracing air of the Black Forest.

The Black Forest, instead of being full of game, is black in the summer with tourists and visitors from all parts taking the "cure." It contains perhaps a hundred so-called "cure" resorts, from the fashionable Triberg, Rippolsau (and, above all, Wildbad with its famous mineral springs), down to the humblest little village which boasts a picturesque situation. There even the peasants let lodgings and go in for catering for the stranger.

It is this simple country life which attracts us most, for it is still in some degree typical of the nation. Here in the most democratic and liberal part of Germany, we find a strong religious and conservative peasantry,—a peasantry tilling its own land and imbued with an honest class consciousness and pride. The peasantry of the Black Forest,—in fact, right through the Grand Duchy of Baden and the Kingdom of Württemberg, form a strong and prosperous element of the country. To an Englishman a Black Forest peasant wedding is indeed a strange sight.

Between a hundred and a hundred and fifty of both sexes meet at the largest inn in the neighborhood—many driving thither in their own conveyances, and each party paying its own expenses. The women in their black velvet bodices and caps, richly embroidered with gold, the peasants in their characteristic garb, all enjoy themselves in their rough spontaneous manner. Feasting and dancing are kept up from the afternoon until the small hours of the morning. Their manners are coarse, if you will, but far removed from brutality and bestiality.

Men of the best social standing throw off the cares of state, and come for recreation, many to live in peasants' houses for weeks and weeks together. While the politicians of all Germany are criticising the government of the country, one of its chiefs, a cabinet minister, is living plainly in a peasant's cottage in the Black Forest. While Bismarck and Pope Pius IX. were fighting over the notorious May laws,¹⁰ their originator, Dr. Falk, the Prussian minister of state, was recouping his energies in the pure air of the Giant Mountains, staying with his wife in a humble peasant hut, content to share the simple life and fare of these folks. This is indeed a healthy sign, when compared to the luxury of our better classes. Mr. Gladstone, it is true, fells trees, but they are the trees in his own park. That intermingling with the humbler classes is unknown in our aristocratic country. On the other hand; the dirt and drunkenness of the lower orders in England is unknown among the humble classes here—not only among the peasantry, but throughout Germany.

Notwithstanding the political hatred of the German social democrats for everything that does not form part of their own party, notwithstanding the line of demarcation between the aristocracy and the middle classes, and many other idiosyncrasies slumbering in the community, there is, in some respects, far less distance between the different classes of the population than with us.

It has been said that one of the reasons for sport being so popular in England is, that it brings different classes together in community of feeling and pursuits. That may be true, as far as it goes; but it does not go very far. In fact, it is a solitary exception to the whole social character of life in England, and applies only to those sporting elements that are the least reputable in the kingdom. It is one of the curses of aristocratic England that it is so. It is one of the causes of the immorality and degradation of our masses,—class isolation, the social gulf between wealth and poverty. And you feel this truth keenly when you come to Germany.

(End of Required Reading for March.)

THE BLUE BONNET.*

BY CHARLES BARNARD.

CHAPTER II.

THE early summer had given a hint of torrid days to come and the East Side had already put on that pallid, worked out appearance that it wears in the heated term. The tenement windows were all wide open. The hideous fire escapes were packed with children, out there to get a little air. There began to be sickening odors of stale vegetables in the street and at every corner horrible clouds of flies gathered about the piles of beer barrels on the sidewalk. In the rear of the tenements the tall poles carried hundreds of garments, for it was wash day on the East Side. Everywhere on the sidewalks and stoops were children, half-clad, pale, noisy, sickly, and quarrelsome. Idle, stupid, and vicious boys were leaning against the walls at the corners. Sallow, flat-chested girls chattered in the hall ways, and inside the foul, ill-smelling saloons, men sat in drunken stupor trying to forget their misery and the heat. Not far from the corner of Forsyth Street on one of the cross streets that stretch to the east from the Bowery there was a beer garden, the garden being represented by a number of dead and yellow hemlocks in green tubs along the sidewalk. Behind these there was an empty lot, in which grew a solitary tree. Under the tree were cheap wooden tables and chairs. In the rear of the forlorn garden there was a piano that had seen better days and a violin that had lost caste. Two shabby men sat by the instruments waiting till the fast gathering twilight should bring customers to this scene of festivity.

High in a five story tenement next door a woman stood in the back room of a shabby set of closets called a flat, looking out of the window down on the dreadful garden. She was a thin, sharp-faced woman of that curious shiftless type sometimes found in New England—indolent and proud,

peevish and complaining, yet content to live in the midst of disorder and confusion.

"There's that band in the garden getting ready to toot up again as soon's it's dark. I aint a mite surprised the music's all out of tune. Most anything would go 'stray in such company as they keeps there. I declare I'd see my Sadie dead and buried, 'fore she should set foot in such a short cut to Sodom and Gemorrer."

Then she turned to the door as if she heard a footstep on the creaking stairs.

"Somebody's coming. Guess it's the agent for the rent. Twelve dollars for this cubby hole and the hull of it no bigger than the sitting room of our house up to Poverty Scrabble. Well, I've got one satisfaction. When I'm dead that agent won't collect no rent on my heavenly mansion. He'll be too busy hunting for the iceman."

The door opened softly and a man entered the room,—gray, old before his time, shabby, and yet with a certain air of decayed respectability.

"Evening, mother," said he. "Any pie in the house?"

"Pie? There's nothing in the house but bread and tea. Where have you been, Belial Helplessing, that you desert your family like this? On the Island again?"

"No, mother. I haven't been to the Island this time. I've been traveling—and hotels and traveling expenses took all my money."

"Well, Belial Helplessing, what are you going to do next? Sadie can't get her wages and Tom's out of work and twelve dollars due for rent and nothing to eat in the house but bread and tea."

"I've got property, mother. I've struck great luck, but I had to spend all my spare change buying *Heralds* looking for the reward."

"Reward! What did you find?"

The man drew forth from his ragged coat

*The right to dramatize is reserved by the author.

a miniature set in gold and held it up before his wife.

"It's a miniature, mother. Rolled gold and jewels onto it. Abrams says he'll give me ten dollars for it, case I want to put it to soak."

"How did you come by it?"

"Found it. I say, mother, ain't there any pie in the house?"

"No, there's tea and bread."

"I ain't well enough, mother, to drink tea."

Just then the door opened and the worthy Helplessing hastily hid the trinket in his coat. A young girl almost seventeen entered the room. She was thin and sallow and her hands were long and red. She pulled off a hideous straw hat and displayed a beautiful mass of tangled hair. There was in her thin, sharp face a certain potential beauty. Properly fed and clothed she would pass anywhere for a pretty American young woman of the eastern type.

She had a bundle in her hand wrapped in a newspaper and as she came in she threw it impatiently on the table.

"What you brought your apron home for?" said the woman sharply.

"Discharged again. Said I spoiled eight yards of material and what with fines for being late I did n't get a cent."

"And lost your place, Sadie?"

"Yes, ma! And that's the last of working in a shop. I'm tired of working for nothing. One of the girls said I orter go to the Working Girls' Protective League and I walked way up to Eighth Street, but they wouldn't do anything."

"Those charity sharps never do anything for poor folks."

"They just took down my name and where I lived and said they'd tend to it."

"You said they would n't do anything."

"And they won't, ma. This charity business is all humbug. They never help poor girls. Besides, I'm sick and tired of working. I want good clothes and nice dinners same as other girls have."

"Guess I'll go out, mother, and see 'bout supper," said the man.

"That's just like a man. You're going out to raise money to get drink."

"O, don't be hard on father," said the girl. "He ain't to blame for things."

"There ain't anybody to blame. Time was when me and your father had plenty of money. Many a time says I to Belial, put your money under the cellar stairs, but he would put it in that Half Dime Savings Bank 'gainst paying for our house."

"Oh, give us a rest, ma. I don't care for what we had once. I'd like to know what you've got now. Is there any supper?"

"There's tea and bread."

"Oh, I hate tea and bread. I'm tired and hungry and I want a good dinner and I'm going to find somebody to give it to me. I've seen lots of girls with real stylish clothes and they have good dinners, too."

"And pays for their fun with their souls. You've been into that beer garden again. That's where you see such girls. Don't you ever set foot in that Jezebel's garden again as long as you live."

The girl made no reply, but sat sullen and defiant, looking out of the window at the dreary brick wall of a rear tenement.

"I guess I'll go out, mother, and get some supper."

"Oh, very well. It ain't a mite of use to tell you not to buy drink."

And without a word in reply the old man shuffled off and down the stairs.

"You can get yourself some bread in the closet, Sadie. I got to go in the next room and take the wash off the line."

The girl made no reply and permitted her mother to resume her labor in the next room. She sat silent, sullen, and resentful. Sadie Helplessing was the result of unfortunate parentage, misdirected education, and her environment. Not naturally bad, but weakly good, she had done no wrong, contemplated no wrong. She was simply suppressed. Of a lively and pleasure loving disposition, affectionate and generous, she had passed her early youth of indulgence and idleness only to find it suddenly end in the absolute necessity of earning her own living without the slightest preparation for any useful work. Her common school education had been literary. She had read the poets and could not make her own clothes. She had

studied English history and didn't know whether New York was in Connecticut or Delaware—and didn't care. The greatest defect in her education was a complete and total denial of all sensible and natural girlish pleasures. She was stunted for lack of joy. Of a happy and sunny disposition she had been snubbed and repressed at home till she had sunk into a kind of resentful defiance against her work, her poverty, and her barren unlovely life.

For the fifth time she had been discharged from the shops when she had tried to do something that would bring money. The last place had been in a factory for making women's garments on Sixth Avenue. Thus it happened that she worked ten hours a day in the sight and sound of the shopping district and twice a day mingled in the great throng of women that sweeps through West Fourteenth Street. She saw beautiful things in marvelous abundance. She saw thousands of girls well dressed, fat, hearty, well fed and happy—and it filled her heart with rage. Why did they have all and she nothing? Why did men work for these women? No man worked for her.

As she sat thinking of these things with bitterness in her heart she heard the awful piano and violin start up into rattling melody in the beer garden. Mechanically she went to the window and looked down upon the scene of festivity below. There were sundry couples seated at the tables. It was the old thing. Men feasting women—always a man doing something for a woman. She did not see its grotesque humor. She only saw strong, hearty young fellows able to earn money spending it on young girls who laughed and chattered and were happy. Then she smiled in a pitying way.

"Oh, beer! That's all they can afford. We had a dinner last night—four courses and ice cream."

Then she returned to the table, nervously opened her bundle and took out a torn and faded apron which she hastily threw on the back of a chair. Then she took a cheap straw hat fresh from its bargain counter and a handful of bright green and yellow ribbons. She opened the top drawer of a dilapidated

bureau by the window, rummaged among its assorted contents, and finally found a needle and some thread. She then sat by the table and began to trim the hat.

"I don't care what ma says. If he asks me to dine with him to-night I shall go. Anyway, he is a real gentleman. He didn't ever ask where I lived. It is much better to just meet him in the Garden than to have him call here. Ma is so fussy about things. I hope he will like this hat. He said my hair was too beautiful to be ruined by a bad hat. What a dinner he gave me last night! It must have cost two dollars."

She rose and went to the window and looked down into the Garden. Then she resumed her work on the hat. A moment later there was a knock at the door.

"There's that man for the rent. Well, I have n't got it. I suppose I've got to see him."

She reluctantly rose and opened the door and then held it open in stupefied surprise. It was young Mr. Barry Ewing.

"Ah, Miss Sadie, I've found you out. How is my little Bowery beauty to-night?"

"Hush! Ma is in the next room."

Mr. Barry Ewing entered the room confidently.

"I came to see Mrs. Helplessing. Does she live here?"

"Why, she's my mother. What do you want to see her for? It's nothing about me?"

"Oh, no! Fact is I didn't know Mrs. Helplessing was your mother. I called to see her this morning on business."

"Nothing about me, is it?"

"Well, no. I'll see your mother now and then we dine at the Blue Elephant."

"Where will I meet you?"

"Oh, I'll give the band in the Garden a tip to play 'Annie Rooney' and then you come down. I'll be at the entrance of the Garden. Now, if I can see your mother."

"Certainly, I'll call her."

She went into the next room leaving Mr. Barry Ewing alone in the shabby sitting room. He seemed out of place there. He was indeed. An accident had thrown him into the society of Sadie Helplessing. His

idle, pleasure-loving nature had been pleased for a moment with the free and natural gaiety of this East Side girl—for Sadie in spite of the repression under which she lived, was naturally light-hearted and had the happy faculty of throwing off her cares, and then she appeared at her best—lively, talkative, and winsome. She was such a vivid contrast to the young women he met in society that he was attracted to her at once and had twice invited her to dine in one of the half obscure, half public restaurants on the Bowery. He was absolutely unknown there and was glad to throw aside what he called the “restraint of society” and be just a man with a pretty maid. He would have one more little dinner and that would end it, particularly as he had now learned her name and knew something of her family.

His resolution was confirmed when Mrs. Helplessing appeared. If this was her mother, the girl was impossible.

“Oh! You have come back again, Mister. I didn’t know’s I’d see you again.”

“Have you found your bank book yet, Marm?”

“No. I’ve looked for it, but I can’t seem to lay my hand on it, just yet.”

“Very well, Mrs. Helplessing. If you can find it and will sell it to me I’ll give you ten cents on the dollar and that is the only way you can ever get anything for your claim against the Half Dime Savings Bank.”

“Belial said as perhaps ’Rastus Brown’s daughter might give us something for it. She’s got money and Belial says she orter pay something to us. ’Rastus Brown and my husband used to go to school at Poverty Scrabble. They both came from the same town and Belial always said that ’Rastus Brown’s bank was as solid as a meeting house. Belial used to know ’Rastus Brown’s daughter. She was a good-natured little thing and we thought perhaps she’d give us something, seeing it was her father’s bank.”

“Eleanor Brown knows nothing of her father’s affairs. I am the only person who will ever give you a cent for your Savings Bank account.”

Impelled by curiosity Sadie Helplessing had slipped into the room almost unobserved.

She heard the reference to the Savings Bank book in a vague way. It meant money and the fact that the young man offered to pay something for the book impressed her. He must be rich to buy an old Savings Bank account.

“I’m real sorry, Mr. Ewing, I can’t find it. Mebby if you was to call again to-morrow I can come across it.”

“Oh, very well, Mrs. Helplessing. Any time you wish to sell, let me know. And remember Mr. Brown’s heirs will not pay you anything whatever. I must go now. I’ve an invitation to dine with a friend. Let me know if you wish to see me.”

“I’ll let you know right off. Evening, Mister.”

“Good evening, Mrs. Helplessing.”

A moment or two later a tall, overgrown boy entered the room and demanded something to eat. The tea and bread were not to his fancy and he demanded money and failed to get it. Sadie’s brother was, like herself, a failure. He had tried many things and did nothing. And with it all he was proud, proud of himself and of his sister, whom he regarded as a beautiful girl who by some cruel injustice had been deprived of her rights. He, too, had in some way been cheated of his right to a living. He resented the offer of tea and bread. He wanted a dinner or, at least, a drink and was cross and ill-tempered in consequence. In the midst of a wretched quarrel over the family misery there was a knock at the door.

“If that’s the man for the rent, Sadie, tell him to call again.”

“I’ll see him,” said Tom Helplessing. “You open the door and I’ll fix the feller.”

“Now, Tom, don’t you get into no trouble.”

“Oh, I just want to have a little fun with the man.”

Sadie was more than willing to take part in any little scene with a rent collector and opened the door while her brother stood by ready to receive the unfortunate agent. To their surprise a young and beautiful woman in the plain blue cloak and poke bonnet of the Salvation Army entered the room. It was Eleanor Brown.

"What do you want, Hallelujah?"

"I want to be of service."

"Oh, we ain't holding any service," said Sadie.

"And we are not giving our experience to-day."

"No, and we ain't suffering for salvation."

"If you children will give me a minute's peace," said Mrs. Helplessing, "I'd like to speak to the lady."

"Lady!" said Tom, "Hallelujah."

"Shut up, Tom. She's a lady," said Sadie. Then she added sheepishly,

"Won't you come in, Marm?"

"Thank you. Perhaps I disturbed you at dinner."

"Dinner! Oh, no. We are all through dinner, Hallelujah."

Eleanor Brown with a smile came into the room and taking out a bill offered it to Tom saying,

"Then I'm just in time for dessert. Could you kindly step out and get something to finish the repast?"

"Finish the repast," said Tom, stupidly looking at the bill.

"Yes, some fruit or dessert of some kind."

"Hallelujah! I beg pardon for speaking rough. You're a brick. I'll be right back. Sadie will get you a chair, I'll be back in a minute."

"Get a pie, Tom," said Mrs. Helplessing, "and a slice of ham."

"Oh! I know what to get, ma."

The young man unobserved by the others picked up an old tin kettle from the stove and disappeared.

Eleanor calmly entered the room as if it were her own drawing room. Her generosity won the hearts of the two women at once. To Sadie, the Salvationist seemed like some superior being, not direct from heaven, but lately from Fifth Avenue—a lady, true, sweet, gracious, and beautiful. To Mrs. Helplessing Eleanor seemed more angelic—less human and more divine.

Seeing the partly trimmed hat on the table Eleanor Brown took it up and said to Sadie,

"Is this your hat?"

"Yes. I was going to trim it."

"Oh! Let me trim it for you. Come and sit by me and let us see how it fits."

To their surprise Eleanor had seated herself at the poor wooden table and drawn from her cloak a dainty "housewife" and from its silken folds she drew forth a thimble, needle, and thread. Sadie pleased and flattered sat down beside the Salvationist and submitted to a trial of the hat on her head.

"You have beautiful hair, my dear, but that is not the best way to wear it. It would be more becoming to wear it higher up to show the neck and the shape of the head."

Even Mrs. Helplessing was interested and remarked,

"Time was when me and Sadie could wear real becoming things—'fore we lost our money."

"Oh! I'm sorry to hear you lost your money. Let me take the hat now. I think I can trim it better than that—though perhaps you prefer it that way."

"Oh! no, Halle—I mean, Miss, trim it any way you think best. I never could trim well."

"You must be a born milliner, Marm," added Mrs. Helplessing. "You're real handy 'bout it."

"Oh, no. I'm not a milliner at all. I never did anything till I joined the Army and now they say I'm becoming quite expert. Tell me, how did you happen to lose your money?"

"It was all along of Belial, he's my husband, trusting it to a Savings Bank. I remember the time as if it was yesterday. We had saved it all up against making the last payment on our house when the bank failed and we couldn't pay for the house, so we lost it."

"What bank was it?"

"The Half Dime Savings Bank."

Eleanor Brown's hand trembled slightly, but she gave no sign, she bent lower over the cheap hat and its awful ribbons. Mrs. Helplessing went on glibly giving more particulars of what she called her trouble.

"Belial always trusted to that bank, 'cause he and 'Rastus Brown was from the same town and after 'Rastus died, Belial went up to the house where he lived to see if any-

body could tell anything about the bank."

"You called at—at the president's house?"

"Yes. Up near Washington Square. We heard his second girl had money but—lands—it wasn't no use expecting she would do anything."

"She's a mean selfish thing, keeping our money," said Sadie.

"Don't say that, Sadie. It isn't any use to be too hard on 'Rastus Brown's daughter, Eleanor."

"Why, how did you learn my—I mean this girl's name?"

"I was telling you only just now that Belial and 'Rastus Brown, that had the bank, was from the same town. We always knew their folks. 'Rastus Brown's first wife left him and went to Europe and his second set out to climb the golden stairs'fore she was married two years and her daughter—Eleanor's her name—was brought up by old Mr. 'Rastus Brown and you never can expect much of hand raised girls."

"Perhaps you misjudge the girl."

"Tom says she's a mean, selfish thing," remarked Sadie.

"How does Tom know?"

"Why, if it was our money her father lost she ought to make it up to us—somehow. I don't think it's right she should keep it all."

"Let me try the hat on once more."

Eleanor Brown put the hat on the girl's head, tried its effect and then said quietly,

"The ribbons you selected are not harmonious. Have you no other colors in the house?"

Sadie's lip quivered. It seemed a piece of inhuman cruelty that she must confess that she had not whole boxes of ribbons from which to select.

"That's all I've got. It took the last cent I had to get that—and they was remnants."

"Oh, my dear! You shouldn't have done that. One color would have answered. Besides, do you not need other things more than ribbons?"

"I had to get 'em. A girl must look pretty when she goes out or she won't stand no chance."

The calm frankness of the girl seemed to Eleanor Brown shocking and for a moment she said nothing, but went on with her work, thinking the while, Was the girl wrong? Was it not a simple statement of the unspoken thought that guided hundreds of girls she had met in society? And yet it was all so humiliating. To think that a girl must look her best at any cost or stand no chance in the struggle for existence! What did she mean by "her chance"? Her chance to win a husband who would support her? What was the truth of it all? Wherein did this poor child differ from the young girl in society who must win a husband or sink into a soul-destroying dependence on others? These thoughts passed with instant rapidity through her mind. She was learning much in these days under that blue bonnet.

"We will make one color answer for the present."

"Oh! That's beautiful. Let me put it on."

"Just as I always said," remarked Mrs. Helpless with enthusiasm. "Sadie's a born lady soon's she the least bit fixed up."

The girl turned her head this way and that and crossed the room to the bureau to see the effect in the glass. She was undeniably pretty. Pleasure and gratified vanity gave her a new animation and Eleanor Brown wondered to herself what difference really existed between this girl and hundreds of young women up town. Were she "dressed" she would be fairly presentable anywhere. And yet there was a difference. The girl was not a lady. Why? Was it birth or education? She was a woman! That was evident enough and to Eleanor Brown's heart came the remembrance of that night when she looked out of the window of her father's house upon the street. There seemed to be something dreadful in the girl's vanity, something sinister in her brutal frankness.

"You must put it right away, Sadie, and keep it fresh to wear Sundays."

"I guess not, ma. I shall wear it when I go out."

"You're not going out to-night?"

Sadie made no reply, but continued to admire the new hat.

"I think, my dear," said Eleanor Brown, "you had better put it away for the present. I wish to talk with you about other matters and perhaps this evening will be the only opportunity I shall have to see you."

"Oh! I thought as much. Now I suppose we shall have prayers. Don't let me keep you, Hallelujah, go right on. Don't mind me."

She would ignore the girl and speak to the mother.

"You were saying that you lost money by the failure of the Savings Bank. Have you kept the bank book?"

"I had it only just a little while ago. But I can't lay my hand on it to-day. There was a man here just now said he would buy the book if I could find it."

"You surprise me. A man wished to buy your bank book?"

"Yes. Said he would give me ten cents on the dollar for it."

"Yes," added Sadie. "He's rich and I guess he can get the money out of that Miss Brown."

The statement was so remarkable that for a moment Eleanor Brown was at a loss for words. Then she said quietly,

"I think you had better not sell the book. Could I not help you find it? It is quite possible that you may receive the money with interest."

"I wish to goodness we could. Oh! wait a minute. There's somebody coming up stairs, Sadie! See who it is and if it is the man for the rent tell him to come again."

"Oh! It's only Tom."

It was Tom—yet he hardly seemed himself. He had evidently been drinking and carried a tin pail partly filled with beer. He stumbled into the room and put the pail on the table.

"Give me a mug, Sadie. I want a drink."

To his amazement he saw the Salvationist quietly take up the pail and pour the beer into the sink by the window.

"I did not tell you to buy liquor."

The young man started forward and raised his arm as if to strike.

"You howling temperance hypocrite.

What do you mean by throwing away my liquor?"

"It was mine. You bought it with my money."

He took a step toward her and stopped abruptly, angry and ugly.

"What have you done with the change?"

There was something in her calm dignity, something in her imperious attitude and strange beauty that fascinated him. If it had been his sister who had destroyed the liquor he would have felled her to the ground, perhaps trampled on her. But this woman, this Salvationist! He might have murdered in his heart and yet he hesitated.

His mother seemed to read his thoughts.

"Are you stark, staring mad, Tom Helpless? If you kill a woman you might be hanged for it some day. If the folks in the house heard you struck a Hallelujah girl they'd tear you to pieces."

"Oh, Tom! Why did you do that? I threw the liquor away because you do not want it. It doesn't help you. It only makes you forget your troubles for a little while. Because my—I mean others have taken your money it does not follow that you must sell your manhood like that. Shame on you, Tom. Must a woman bar the door of the saloon against you?"

"Hallelujah! You've got sand. I respect you for it. I wouldn't take such talk from no living woman. It's them blue bonnets you wear makes folks give in to you."

"Is there any change left?"

"Yes'm."

"Then go to the store and get some tea and sugar and milk and anything else you wish."

The boy sullenly picked up his hat and went silently out of the room.

"Oh, Hallelujah! I never thought I should live to see this day. I've spent years a wrestling in spirit over my poor boy. He's going in his father's footsteps. That's the first time Tom was ever under liquor. You never should have given him the money. It's the heat and along of us being so poor he was drove to the saloon. He's going the way of his father. Ever since we lost our money, time the bank failed, Belial's lost

his holt and he's took to drink—he just had to—he was that discouraged. Sometimes I wonder if 'Rastus Brown can sleep in his grave for thinking of the busting of his bank. I never could have stood up again Tom the way you did—no—never."

"Perhaps, Mrs. Helplessing, things will be brighter some day. Let us see if we cannot find your bank book."

"Well. If you don't mind the looks of things. Mebby it's in my room."

"Suppose we examine the room."

So it happened that Eleanor Brown followed Mrs. Helplessing into the next room leaving Sadie alone in the common room that was at once kitchen, living, and dining room.

Sadie went at once to the window and looked down into the Beer Garden.

"I wonder he don't let the band play 'Annie Rooney.' Then I'd know he is ready. Oh, he's come back!"

She heard a man's step on the stairs and at once opened the door. She did not wish to have him knock and attract attention from her mother and Hallelujah. To her surprise it was a gentleman and a stranger.

"Does Sadie Helplessing live here?"

"What do you want to know for?"

"I have come from the Working Girls' Protective League. I think you reported that your employers would not pay you."

"Yes. Come in, sir."

"I thank you. I merely called to ask a few questions."

He took out a note book and Sadie gave him full particulars as to her wages and place of employment. Suddenly in the midst of these inquiries he heard the piano and violin in the garden below play "Annie Rooney." The effect upon the girl was most peculiar. She went to a closet and hastily took out a winter cloak. It was shabby, out of season, but it was plainly all she had.

"Sorry I can't wait, Mister. I've got to go now."

"Oh! I'll not detain you. The League will investigate your complaint."

"Yes. I wish you would. I've got to go now—got to meet somebody."

"All right I'll call again when you are not in such a hurry."

"You see ma, Mister. She'll be right in. Sorry I can't stop."

And then he heard her quickly running down the creaking stairs. He went at once to the window and looked down on the Beer Garden.

"Just as I supposed. I wonder if it is my duty to follow her and take her away from that well-dressed brute. It would do no good. I have not sufficient warrant to interfere—and yet—Oh! the pity of it all. And what can we do?"

He turned from the window and was surprised to see a woman in the dress of a Salvationist. He felt sure he recognized her.

"Oh! Ensign Brown. I'm very glad to see you. I didn't know you were out. I called several times at the house and they told me you were getting on nicely."

Eleanor Brown instantly recognized that he mistook her for Ensign Brown, whose cloak and bonnet she wore and who was no doubt still at her house. She would let him remain under this misapprehension.

"Thank you. I am none the worse for the accident."

"You must have had a delightful convalescence at Miss Brown's house. She seemed to me one of the most charming women I ever met."

She could not help smiling faintly. He seemed very earnest and honest in his opinion.

"Oh! I didn't know you were acquainted with this Miss Brown."

"Why, no, Ensign, I am not. I never met her till I picked you up from under her carriage and certainly I never entered her house till I carried you there. It is such a fine, homelike old mansion I imagine you had every comfort while you were in it."

"Oh, yes. They have always treated me well—I mean they did treat me well, while I was there. Have you been there since that night?"

"Why, yes. I told you just now I called there several times to see how you were getting on."

"You called on me?"

"Well, yes. I asked for you at the door and twice I asked for Miss Brown. I thought it

only fair to call on her and see if I could be of further service. The man who came to the door said that Miss Brown was away visiting friends. I was sorry for I should like to meet her again. I think I rather envied you, Ensign."

"Envied me!"

"Why, yes. You were there for two weeks, I know, because I called often to see how you were getting along. And twice every day I pass the house, but it is shut up. I've seen her coachman take the empty carriage to the Park every day. The last day or two the house seems quite closed and deserted."

The ground seemed to be dangerous and she tried to change the subject, yet, in her heart, she would eagerly have let him go on talking about herself. He had all the earnestness and sincerity of a lover discoursing of the woman he loved to a mutual and admiring friend.

"You haven't told me, doctor, what has brought you to the East Side."

"I came to see Sadie Helplessing."

"Oh, indeed! She's a rather attractive young person in her way."

"Do you think so?"

"Why, yes. She seems a girl likely to please men."

"Yes. I noticed that."

He said this absently, as if thinking of something else, and then went to the window and looked down into the Beer Garden. To Eleanor Brown this trivial action seemed to have only one meaning. He was looking for Sadie. He had called to see her and thought she might be in the Garden. Then he came to her and offered his hand.

"I'm glad to have met you, Ensign, again. I'm in much the same work among the poor as yourself."

"Are you?"

"Yes. In my little way I'm trying to do what I can to bring the rich and poor together and to teach them to respect each other. I must not keep you longer from your work, Ensign. You will pardon my saying so much about Miss Brown, but I felt sure you admired her as much as I do."

"Oh! I'm very glad to hear what you

say about her. At the same time, Doctor, perhaps she is not worthy of your high regard."

"Now, Ensign, I know that is not like you at all. You of all women, you who have, in a sense, withdrawn from the world, will forgive me if I say I have never met a woman who so instantly won my respect and admiration as this Eleanor Brown."

She held out her hand as an earnest of sympathy and a rosy smile lighted her face.

"Sometimes I think we are all led of the Spirit—in these things."

"Oh! I feel sure, Ensign. Good-by. If you should ever see Miss Brown you might tell her I called to see how you were."

"I shall certainly see her, but, Doctor, why not call on her yourself? She will be very glad to see you."

"Why! How do you know?"

"Oh—I am a woman—myself."

"Oh! I know, Ensign, I know—there is a woman's heart under every blue bonnet."

And then he left her and she heard his footsteps on the creaking stairs. For a moment she stood silently toying with the ribbons of her poke bonnet. A charming smile found a harbor on her lips and yet her eyes were dewy.

Many things had happened to Eleanor Brown since the night when she put on that blue bonnet. She had bravely and honestly put her hand to the plow and had not, till this moment, looked back again. It had been a rough and stony furrow and her heart and limbs had been wrenched by the misery and suffering she had seen and had helped to relieve and yet, now that she had for an instant stopped and looked back, it seemed as if the rough path she had made for herself had suddenly bloomed with flowers.

She had briefly explained her position and mission to an officer of the Army at the Headquarters at Reade Street and with his counsel and assistance had taken up Ensign Brown's work just where she had dropped it the night of the accident. She had gone literally with her heart and her life in her hands into the lowest slums of the East Side and had "done what she could." A

certain faint resemblance to the Ensign and the fact that she bore her name had made it easy for her to actually step into her work and to all the people and to many of the members of the Salvation Army she was indeed Ensign Brown. A natural aptitude for acting assisted her in assuming something of what she thought might be the Ensign's spirit and manner, and at the end of two weeks she was to all appearance a trained officer of the Slum Brigade. She was herself surprised at the ready acceptance by the people of her assumed raiment and character. In this she was assisted by a circumstance that she did not recognize or understand till it became clear a little later, when, as she said—the light came.

Unknown to herself, that night was to be her last under the blue bonnet for "her warfare was accomplished." She had made a good fight. The night was far spent—and the dawn was at hand. Yet, it is always darkest just before the dawn and she was yet to suffer, that her heart be purified and made strong. For the moment her heart was full of joy. An unspeakable happiness had come to her. She knew she was loved and it had all come to her so strangely that she could only marvel at herself. How had she talked with him so calmly? How had she been able to hide her happiness from him? He had spoken with love in his eyes of herself, to herself—and her heart was glad.

For a moment she compared this man with others who had gone before. Lovers, they had called themselves—and yet beside him they seemed vain creatures prating about the unknowable. She recognized also an immense change in herself. She had come in touch with human beings. She had ministered to the weak, the infirm of purpose, the morally sick and the poor. She had come in touch with women—and it had made her a woman in truth, sweet, charitable, thinking no ill, and above all patient. Whether she had done any good she did not know—she only hoped it had all been for good. She never knew and never could know, but were the hearts of men and women laid bare that week in

the East Side she would have seen a golden track as of some beautiful meteor across the black night. The memory of the beautiful Ensign lingered long unspoken and yet remembered east of the Bowery—a gleam of light in the lives of many who sat in darkness.

Her reveries were suddenly interrupted by footsteps upon the stairs, the frightened step of some hunted creature. By a sort of frightened instinct Mrs. Helplessing entered the room quickly at the same instant.

"It's Belial. He's in trouble again."

The door was flung open and Belial Helplessing staggered into the room.

"Mother! mother! Where are you?"

He seemed suddenly to discover the Ensign, for he spoke to her at once.

"Oh, Salvation! They are onto me. They know I took it."

Mrs. Helplessing sat down and covered her face with her apron and sobbed. She evidently understood the situation.

"You took what, sir?"

"Oh! Salvation. Don't you be hard on me. I never seen you before, but you Hallelujahs always help us. The cops is got onto me. They found out I took it."

"You took what?"

"This picture." He took out the miniature and held it face downward in his grimy hand. "Oh, Salvation! I knew it would bring bad luck—It was from a Hallelujah I took it."

At this instant there was a loud rap at the door.

"It's the cops, Salvation."

"Come in," said Eleanor, for she felt it best to have the protection of the police in this new experience. An elderly officer with iron gray hair entered the room, closed the door and stood before it.

"What do you want, officer?"

"Beg pardon, Salvation. This man is wanted and he'd better go peacable."

"Excuse me, sir, but what has this man done?"

"There was a woman knocked down in the street by a carriage—one of your women, too, and this man robbed her of a miniature set in jewels."

"Why! How could he do such a thing?"

"Oh! Easy enough, Miss. He saw the girl fall and pretended to help her up and took the opportunity to rob her."

"What became of the girl?"

"She was taken into a house near by and cared for and afterwards she reported the loss to the Station House. Got the locket with you?"

This last he addressed to the frightened Belial.

"Well, I don't deny it."

"Pardon me, Mr. Officer, will you let me see the miniature?"

"Certainly, Miss."

The officer calmly took the miniature away from Belial and gave it to Eleanor Brown.

She took the little picture and then stood staring at it in unfeigned surprise.

"You don't happen to know anything about it, Miss?"

"Yes. I know the owner."

"You don't know who it is?"

"Why, yes. The miniature belongs to me."

"Guess not, Ensign. One of your people complained, as I tell you, that she was knocked down by a carriage and lost it. She said she valued it highly as it was her father's picture."

"Nevertheless, Mr. Officer, it belongs to me and I will call at the Station to-morrow and explain everything."

"Whose portrait is it?"

"Oh! you mean who is it? Why, it's my father."

"Now, Salvation, we make it a point to believe you people, but hold on. Let me see the picture."

She gave it to him and he looked at it curiously and then at her.

"Salvation, your story looks queer, 'cause I happened to know that man. That's a picture of old 'Rastus Brown, the banker. I used to be watchman in his bank just 'fore it busted and I could tell you a long story 'bout goings on in that bank, but that ain't here nor there now. If Eleanor Brown was to give me all you're giving me about that's being your father, I guess I would not believe her."

"May I not have the miniature, Mr. Officer?"

"No, Miss. Not unless you are Eleanor Brown."

"Oh, very well. I will call at the Station House to-morrow."

"Come along there—and be lively."

"Excuse me, Mr. Officer, must this man go with you?"

"Certainly, he must. He'll have to be up for a hearing. It will be about eleven o'clock to-morrow—you can be there if you want to, though I must say, Salvation, your saying the miniature is yours has mixed things up considerable."

So it was the officer went away down the creaking stairs, his prisoner stumbling along after him.

The little episode of crime and wretchedness was to Eleanor Brown instinct with tremendous import. It had come as an overwhelming discovery. For a moment she stood motionless, almost stunned by what she regarded as an event of transcendent importance. She said, at last, mechanically,

"The light has come—I must go home."

She was suddenly called to the surroundings by a sob from Mrs. Helplessing.

"That's two of them—gone in one night."

"What do you mean?"

"Sadie's gone—and now her father will be sent up for two months."

"Sadie? Why, where is she? She was here not long ago."

"I knew it would come all along. She's run away. I was afraid of it when you was trimming that hat. I knew it would come when I heard him a talking in this room."

"You heard whom talking?"

"Why, the fellow that's been calling on Sadie. Tom's seen her meet him twice and it's much as I could do to keep Tom from harming the man."

"Oh! You do not mean the—the man who was here just now—"

"That's him. He's been hanging 'round Sadie for quite a spell and now she's run away with him—and her father took up the same night."

Just at this instant Tom Helplessing suddenly pushed the door open. He looked white and scared and began instantly to look about the room as if searching for something.

"Have you seen your father, Tom?"

"No, ma. But I've seen Sadie. I was just coming along with your tea, Salvation, when I see Sadie getting into a cab 'long of a gentleman. I tried to speak to her, but I couldn't and they drove off 'fore I could stop 'em. I throwed your stuff away and ran after the cab. Ah! that's the ticket for me."

Saying this he picked up a bread knife from the table and began to sharpen it on the edge of the stove.

"Tom! Tom! Don't you get into no more trouble."

"What are you going to do with that knife?" said Eleanor, coming close to the boy.

"I'm going to do the man that's carried off my sister."

"What man?"

"Now, Salvation! Don't you interfere. The man was here just now. He's been here before and if you had any sense you would have kept Sadie at home. He's taken her to the Blue Elephant. I followed the cab there and tried to go in after them, but the bouncer fired me into the street. I'm going back to do the fellow."

Suddenly he felt the knife snatched out of his hand and saw the Ensign calmly throw it out of the open window into the Garden.

"If there is any vengeance it is mine."

The audacity of the movement for the moment cowed the boy.

"Oh," wailed Mrs. Helplessing. "It all comes of that 'Rastus Brown's doings. Sadie wasn't never brought up to do any work. She always wanted fine clothes and good living and she's sold her soul to get 'em. I hope Eleanor Brown won't have a minute's peace after her wicked conduct to me and mine."

"Hush, woman!"

"I won't hush. It's all along of her keeping our money we have come to this."

"Well, I ain't going to stand here fooling with a Hallelujah lunatic. Some of the gang will lend me a gun."

Mrs. Helplessing suddenly fell on her knees before the Ensign.

"Oh, you can save my child, Salvation, you can save my child."

"Be you crazy, ma? No woman can go into the Blue Elephant. The toughs there would do her up."

Mrs. Helplessing buried her face in the Ensign's blue cloak.

"You can save my girl, Hallelujah. Under that bonnet a woman is safe anywhere."

"There! there! Mrs. Helplessing. Try to bear up. I will bring Sadie—back—to herself."

"I'll get a gun and go with you, Salvation."

"No, Tom. Stay here with your mother. I will go alone."

And so it was Eleanor Brown went once more into the streets of New York with only the protection of a plain blue bonnet. Her heart, almost crushed with shame, misery, and disappointment, seemed dead within her breast. There was nothing left now but duty—and she would do it at any cost—and then go home.

(To be concluded.)



CHAUNCEY MITCHELL DEPEW.

BY FRANKLIN MORRIS.

CHAUNCEY M. DEPEW on more than one occasion has been referred to as a typical American. Just what the American type is; whether it is to be found in Davy Crockett or Ralph Waldo Emerson, Henry Ward Beecher or Buffalo Bill, neither Mr. Hamlin from his Kansas outlook nor M. Bourget from his ocean of observation has informed us. But this much is tolerably clear to the present writer,—that Chauncey M. Depew is more distinctly the outcome of metropolitan than of national conditions and belongs peculiarly to New York City. In fact, the New York newspapers, with particularizing fondness, have fallen into the habit of calling him "Our Chauncey," in which there is a lurking intimation that he does not belong to Philadelphia, could not have been developed in Chicago, and was not fashioned to be a lion in Boston.

Just here the sense of paternity in the New York press somewhat obscures a generous patriotism.

Mr. Depew is a New York "feature," just as Gilmore's band *was* and Mr. Ward McAllister *is*. No other American city could have produced him because in no other American city do the elements of wealth, prodigious organized power and social distinction exist so interchangeably or combine so readily to effect the status of an individual.

In Chicago they are very apt to ask of a man, What did he do? In Boston, they inquire, What did he say? In New York it is sufficient to remark, See where he is.

It was as a village lawyer and politician, that Mr. Depew started in life at Peekskill on the Hudson, where he was born April 23, 1834. The Hon. James Husted, familiarly known at Albany as the "Bald Eagle of Westchester," not long ago gave some pleasing recollections of his youthful companionship with Chauncey M. Depew, and

from those sprightly reminiscences we gather that the boy who was to become "Our Chauncey," was not distinguished among his fellows for that masculine audacity and recklessness which usually win the admiration of young men. We take it that he was, on the contrary, remarked if not celebrated for a discretion and an accommodating good humor somewhat beyond his years. This ray of light is shed upon him at the Peekskill Academy. There is a soft radiance surrounding his subsequent career at Yale, but no illuminative blaze. The Class of '56 has not shown us that it had any foregleams of his genius or any memories of his exceptional prowess.

On his return to Peekskill he began the study of the law with the Hon. William Nelson and was admitted to the bar in 1858. In 1860 we find him "on the stump" already exercising a gifted tongue to some purpose, for in '61 he was elected to the Assembly, to be returned in '62. The official record of these years discloses a marvelous faculty in a young man not yet thirty, for discreet self-advancement, along the lines of *savoir faire*. It does not appear from the utmost searching that he ever made an enemy. In '63 he was nominated for secretary of state and he would have been collector of the Port of New York if President Andrew Johnson had not torn up the commission in a pet which grew out of a political squabble at Washington. William H. Seward then secured his appointment as minister to Japan, but Mr. Depew had already fixed his eye on something else and declined it. In talking with Frank G. Carpenter not long ago, Mr. Depew said that the refusal to accept the Japan mission was the turning point in his life. To show that he had, above all else, a frugal mind, I quote his own words: "I reasoned," said he, "in this way. If I go to Japan, my career must be a political one. As it is—I am about thirty years old—I

have a fair practice, and a good acquaintance. Mr. Vanderbilt has offered me the attorneyship of the New York and Harlem R. R. It is a small corporation, but it may grow, and if it does, I will grow with it. If I want then to go to the Senate or get a mission when I am old, I can get it. So I made my decision and I've never regretted it."

Once settled in the service of the richest man in America, we can see how his talents would be employed and sharpened for special administrative work. The elder Vanderbilt had got his eye upon him at Albany, and the commodore, it is now known, was the first to detect in the young man the tact, shrewdness, and *finesse* of which he was specially in need. The direct proposition of the commodore as reported in Mr. Depew's own words, was this: "You'd better come with us—there's no money in politics." This was in 1866. Mr. Depew did go with Mr. Vanderbilt and in effect relinquished, for the time being, his political ambition.

The rapidity with which he rose is remarkable. In 1869, he was the attorney of the New York Central and Hudson River Road. Then he was elected a member of the Board of Directors and in 1875 he became the general counsel of all the corporations which make up what is known as the Vanderbilt system. Only the rarest ability, the highest probity, and the keenest sagacity could have been behind this remarkable progress.

It is not however for these qualities of intrinsic excellence proven by practical results, that New York delights to celebrate "Our Chauncey." I do not find in the measureless mass of tributes accumulated by the newspapers, any great interest in or clear recognition of the acumen, the diplomacy, the comprehensive generalship, the masterful co-ordination of details and far-seeing judgment which can adjust and regulate and hold equably to the mean of success, all these vast and complicated interests. What I do find is an overflowing admiration for his protean geniality, his graceful fluency, his ineradicable good humor, his matchless after-dinner oratory, his inimitable stories, and his tireless affability to reporters.

The New York press is a chorus, not a critic, of Mr. Depew, and if anyone will undertake to measure up the real responsibility of the man, he will find how much easier it is to be one than the other. Mr. Depew lives two lives—one is the attorney's and railroad president's—the other is the public's. To estimate the latter, we have but to listen to him. To estimate the former, in all its relations and obligations, we must enter into the tremendous problem of the American railroad itself and consider where it touches legislation, the labor question, and all the issues of the commonwealth, which have come up in our day. Of course it is impossible to do all this in the compass of a sketch. Nor is it likely that it will be done by the press of New York. Mr. Depew's relations as the representative of an enormous system whose issues are beginning to create sectional jealousy and to attract the attention of the national government, are too large to be adjusted in the narrow focus of local partiality. They need a national perspective.

Perhaps it is not too much to say that Mr. Depew handles the New York press with something of the same adroitness that he employs in supervising the Vanderbilt system. He is forever in print, but by some means, hypnotic or evasive, he always avoids getting into print upon the vital side of the railroad's responsibility to the public. Innumerable reporters have gone, grimly enough, to the New York Central's inner office to press that button, assured that Mr. Depew would do the rest, and have come away satisfied with a funny story or an inimitable circumlocution, and have brimmed with the consciousness of Mr. Depew's fathomless frankness and mapless condescension. To be "jollied" out of all serious purpose is the fate of the plastic interviewer. To be rather proud of his massage is his compensation. I heard one newspaper man who undertook to get Mr. Depew's views of a strike on the New York Central, sum him up as Abraham Lincoln *plus* Sir Roger de Coverley.

Turning to the other less sphinxine side of Mr. Depew, we shall at least have the

assistance of his own illumination shed through two attractive volumes of his "Addresses." In going over these volumes, I am amazed at the superficial area of his remarks. He talks on all occasions and on all themes, save one. The facile judgment, the excursive humor, the alert memory for little anecdotal illustrations, the beaming conservatism, the voluble *bonhomie*, the pacifying optimism, arrest my attention like a gliding stream gently broken here and there into sparkling rills and flecked with the colors of sky and foliage.

I fail to find anywhere the faintest cry that comes from a heart that has suffered, or that goes sharply to the heart that can sympathize. The comfortableness of it all is unique. The orator is too securely satisfied with the system of the universe to sound any alarms, and his own system is too healthy to admit of any pangs whatever. So we give up looking for any mysterious depths or sunlit heights from which issues a trumpet call. Mr. Depew's responsibility to God and man is an assured condition and is never by any imputation disavowed, but it is often garlanded out of sight by the complaisance of the *raconteur*.

All these things are part of the popular orator's repertory, else could he not stretch himself over every theme and hold all minds in the leash of volubility. One cannot help asking himself, however, how much of all this will stay and be remembered or be operative in men's minds and conduct when the popular orator has passed away. I am afraid that under the critical microscope he cannot quite hide the fact that he is vain of his multiloquence. He luxuriates in expressing himself and takes his afternoon speech as other men take their cold baths in the morning. Mrs. Depew is reported to have said that if her husband accepted all the invitations to make addresses that come to him, he would have no time to eat and if he accepted all the invitations to eat, he would have no time to speak.

He has told us how he manages to speak so much and so often, and it is by not giving too much time to the preparation for speaking: "I leave my office," he says,

"about four o'clock and I compose my talks between four and six," which by a liberal allowance of time to eat his dinner and get into his dress coat, leaves him about half an hour. "My first preparation," he adds, "is to read one of Macaulay's Essays." He does that by his own word of mouth, in ten minutes—railroad time. "Ten minutes of Macaulay turns my thoughts to the right direction. It doesn't appear to make much difference what it is of Macaulay's that I read, it rehabilitates me and clothes my soul in a more intellectual and critical garb. I have dictated a hundred speeches to reporters under the street lamps and on the horse cars and have often stood at the entrance of the hall to complete the report while the guests were assembling."

In this account one perceives to what a joyous industry speech-making has been lifted. He betrays the pride of a true railroad man in the amount and in the despatch of his work. You feel that there will never be any hot-box in his conveyance; no trains of thought will ever collide; every anecdote and simile and metaphor will be on schedule time. It is for you, an auditory transit—let us call it the Depew Limited—you can sit still in your luxurious seat and see the fields and flowers of rhetoric go whizzing peacefully by.

I can see in my fancy, behind the printed pages of these two volumes, the hour and the man. The long double row of diners at the table taking off their napkins and settling themselves back in their chairs as Mr. Depew rises and swinging his glasses in beamy prelude, looks down the line of expectant faces. The moment is his own. He is a picture of vital equilibrium and gracious self-possession. There is not a morbid fiber in him. He represents the normal, conservative optimism of the American people. All at once everybody foregoes his own particular views and his obtrusive prejudice and gives himself up to the emolency of the moment. There is a time for all things and this is the time for digestion. Let assimilation and nutrition wait.

It is a great gift this—to be master of a function—to preside by divine right of

graciousness and compromise; to assert in speech the right to be at the head of the table, no matter where they put your chair, and nothing is so delightful at such a time, as the balmy assurance that we can suspend our judgment *pro tem*, relax the tightly sprung bow of convictions, and take a common bath in the warm and phosphorescent sea of generalities. It counts nothing that Mr. Depew will not be quoted; it is sufficient that he will be reported. In spite of everything else, the fact remains that it warmed the cockles of your heart. If he is not as an orator, a creative force, he is at least a benign conservation. If he never has the stress or the poignancy of the zealot or the grip of the reformer, he nevertheless seems to flourish the wand of Prospero—even when at times he wears the mask of Momus. Magician indeed, to issue from the iron details and myriad emergencies of that Grand Central Office, take ten minutes of Macaulay, hurry on his dress coat, and then, under street lamps and in horse-cars and before the assembled magnates of the metropolis, to breathe like the south wind on a bank of violets.

The popular notion that Mr. Depew is ambitious to be president of the United States is one of those fond superstitions that have no special warrant for existence, but that continue to exist wherever printer's ink is used. He figured as a dark-horse in 1884 and again in 1888 and he was very conspicuous in the convention of '92, but his personal ambition on those occasions was not so conspicuous as his personal *finesse* and adaptability. He has expressed the doubt publicly that a railroad man could not command the votes of the West, and when one remembers that he left politics for the emoluments of a railroad position, it is hardly supposable that he would relinquish a salary of \$100,000 a year to go back to politics at \$50,000 a year and a quadrupled expense. It is true that this is a rather mercenary view of the matter, but it does not present any greater probabilities when looked at from the point of view of Mr. Depew's temperament and taste. He is essentially a social and a communicative man. I can hardly

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imagine him sealed up with the dignity and reticence of the chief magistrate of the country—muzzled one might say, by its honors. I think that were the nomination again offered him, he would again find some means of declining in favor of another man and stick to the New York Central. That this would proceed not altogether from a selfish motive, must be apparent when one considers what a loss such a selection would be to the Press Club and the press itself, to say nothing of the Actor's Fund, the St. Andrew's, the St. David's, the St. Patrick's, and the St. George's Societies, and the Chamber of Commerce dinners.

And yet, America might gain something in a president who, after reading Macaulay ten minutes, could with rehabilitated soul dictate his message between four and six and prevent for one year, at least, an eclipse of the gaiety of nations.

As was said at the start, Mr. Depew belongs to New York. He is probably the best known private citizen in the United States, not excepting Mr. Joseph Jefferson, but he is nowhere known so closely and so proudly as in the metropolis of which he is the audible key-note—the oral representative of its commingled wealth, administrative strength, comfortable probity, its protean commercial sagacity, and its refulgent philanthropy. I do not know that he ever sweats and groans under the weary load of the nineteenth century's problems; I cannot say that the wear and tear of art, literature, education, law, Christianity, and transportation ever abraid his most excellent harness. I only know that whenever and wherever these forces are marshaled, he is at the front with his silver bugle and thousands keep step to it.

I turn over the musty files of our current history heaped up in diurnal strata, and his face, with that Roman nose and Grecian forehead, looks out at me from almost every event as if Cæsar and Homer had somehow joined hands in our Americanism.

I try to trace his points of contact through the thousand and one tales of his ubiquity, his spokesmanship, his Macænas bounty of advice; his flight through the capitals of

Europe; his perennial humor and invincible equanimity that fit all occasions from the commencement oration to the funny story in the smoking-car. I seem to catch glimpses of Sam Slick, of Lowell, of Mark Twain, of Curtis, of John B. Gough, of Abraham Lincoln, of Cornelius Vanderbilt, with glimmerings of Talleyrand, Tupper, Burke, and Guizot; a very phantasmagoria of traits, shifting, confusing, conglomerate, but capable in their co-ordination of directing the most stupendous interests or playing with the weakest credulity. At one moment entertaining a duchess with an American "whopper"; at another, uttering with uncovered head and reverent voice a prayer over the mangled body of a brakeman; now introducing Col. Robert G. Ingersoll at Chickering Hall as one of the greatest orators of the age, and now wiping him from the face of the earth with amiable besom at Cooper Union; laying the corner-stone of the *New York World* and celebrating the birthday of Horace Greeley with equal eloquence; smoking a good cigar and enjoying a good glass of wine with a penniless reporter and then holding spellbound the

Convention of Total Abstiners.

I look over, I say, this contemporaneous history and I begin to see that after all this is America—not New York. *E Pluribus Unum*.

I should like to add a word about the domestic life of Chauncey M. Depew, but here I hesitate, feeling that it would be impertinent to disturb the old-fashioned seclusion which has kept that life free from the acclaim and the "small beer" bulletins of New York society. In 1893, Mrs. Depew, a woman honored for her unobtrusive good work, died and there was a sad vacancy in the little circle. I remember when Mr. Depew came back from Europe—in '91 I think it was—he delivered a lecture on what he had seen abroad. Among other things he said, "I visited the tomb of Juliet, for I have something of that old sentiment in me yet," and turning, he smiled at Mrs. Depew who was on the platform, and she kissed her hand to him.

It was by such touches that the man got hold of his listeners. They are touches light as snowflakes, but they make the whole world kin.

THE NEW REIGN IN RUSSIA.

BY VICTOR YARROS.

ALL trained observers agree that Russia is on the eve of great changes in internal policy and government. Reform is in the air. The Liberals are hopeful and expectant; the Conservatives are uncertain, vague in utterance, and apprehensive. The revolutionary elements have declared an armistice, and are willing to retire temporarily from the scene of active politics and to allow free play to the more moderate forces. The new czar is expected to repudiate the reactionary and oriental ideas of his father and to revert to the policy of his grandfather, Alexander II., whose reign was characterized by historical reforms in the economic, juridical, and intellectual conditions of Russia. It is now a matter of record that Alexander II. intended to confer

the blessing of greater political and constitutional freedom upon the country, and that his purpose was defeated by the very people who consecrated themselves to the cause of Russian emancipation. He was about to promulgate an order convening representatives of the nobility of the land in St. Petersburg and setting them the high task of elaborating a constitution for the government of the state, and was killed—such was the irony of fate's decree!—by the Nihilists on the very day that the final preparations were made for the publication of this revolutionary ukase.

Perhaps Alexander III. was prompted, in ordering the destruction of the order, by natural resentment and the desire to repel possible charges of cowardice more

than by anything else. The advisers of his father pleaded with him for the realization of the constitutional scheme, but he declined to act under pressure. Subsequently he fell under the influence of the extreme Slavophiles and became a convert to their peculiar ideas of Russia's independence of the march of civilization in Europe as a whole. There is no doubt that, when he was czarévitch, Alexander III. was progressive in his ideas, but the cabal which gained his ear succeeded in radically changing his tendencies, and he took a course which even his sincerest admirers now recognize to have proved a dismal failure. He wished to rule Russia like a czar of old, while the country is becoming more and more liberal and European in its aspirations. He did not arrest the growth of liberalism in Russia, and his harsh reactionary policy only suspended for a time the operation of certain factors that his father had set in motion. The reign of Alexander III. is a blank in Russian history, but scarcely worse than that.

In view of the complete failure of the policy of his father, it is but natural that Nicholas II. should seek historic recognition and fame in a different direction, and that he should be eager to lead his people back to the high road of freedom. All that is known about his proclivities and personal traits justifies the expectation that he will prove a broad-minded monarch. He is not a religious bigot, and has no sympathy with the Slavophil philosophy. His teachers and friends are humane, enlightened, and cultivated men. He is not a soldier, and military honors never appealed to his imagination.

On the other hand, he is said to be a student and a lover of the liberal arts. He has received a good education and has traveled extensively. Among the significant acts credited to him are: the submission of a memorial to his father, the late czar, condemning in strong terms the persecution of the Jews; the drafting of efficacious measures for the relief of the famine sufferers; the raising of a fund of 50,000 roubles for Count Tolstoi's famine work, and similar manifestations of a sympathetic nature.

To these facts and indications, we may add the absence of any powerful selfish motive for resisting the well-nigh universal demand of the intelligent classes of Russia for a freer political atmosphere. Nicholas II. has nothing to lose, and everything to gain, from a progressive policy. He doubtless realizes that no ruler has ever enjoyed so great an opportunity as his is. He can become one of the heroes and commanding figures of the world's history by sacrificing something which, after all, is mere form, unsubstantial and unreal. An autocrat who is afraid of his own shadow is surely less potent a ruler of men than the head of a grateful nation.

What would be the result of a determination on the part of Nicholas II. to follow in the footsteps of his father? Disappointment would intensify the prevailing discontent, despair would prompt a revival of revolutionary activity, and the czar and his young wife would be condemned to a life of isolation, bitterness, and haunting fears.

Turning from prediction to fact, it can certainly be affirmed that Nicholas II. has made an excellent beginning. According to reports, he walks the streets of St. Petersburg like an ordinary citizen, goes unattended to stores, and shows the greatest confidence in the people. In the manifesto announcing his marriage, he granted a general pardon to the Polish rebels of 1862 and a remission of arrears of taxes to a large amount. He suspended the most oppressive anti-Jewish laws, and gave assurances that the hounding of his Jewish subjects would be stopped. He punished the St. Petersburg chief of police for tyrannical treatment of foreign correspondents who came to describe his wedding.

There are other favorable symptoms, of which perhaps the most significant is the fact that the press, which is preternaturally sensitive in Russia to the faintest signs of change, has been emboldened by rumor to give utterance to the desire for freer government. Several journals have recently intimated that the czar would do well to reverse the internal policy of his father; and this is something which no one would venture to

do if the drift of things did not render it safe and opportune. In fact, rumor has it that the czar has already decided to abolish the censorship of the press and to make discussion and criticism as free as in constitutional monarchies. He is believed to recognize the fact that the benefits to the government itself from a free press greatly exceed the drawbacks involved. This may prove untrue, but the circulation of such reports at least serves to characterize the present state of feeling in Russia.

What the Liberals fear is that Pobédonosteff and the narrow-minded fanatics who follow him may manage to retain their power in the government, and to oppose their influence to that of the young and necessarily timid ruler who cannot be reasonably expected to stand alone. A change of advisers is the first step for the czar to take if he really means to inaugurate an era of reform and improvement.

Let us, however, inquire here into the nature of the reforms to be anticipated from a liberal ruler in Russia who should resolve to grant the prayer of the progressive elements of his people. What *can* he do, given the will? What ought he to do? What do the Liberals ask?

Before we attempt an answer to these queries, it will be well to refer briefly to the actual conditions in Russia with respect to political opinion generally. It must be remembered that the masses of the people, the peasants, are entirely unaffected by the movements for constitutional government. The masses have not changed their attitude of religious veneration toward the czar. To them his will is still divine law; to them he is still the source of all goodness and greatness. They believe him to be their best friend, protector, and champion. The Nihilists have totally failed in their efforts to shake the peasants' belief in the czar. Whenever the Nihilists wish to secure the interest and attention of the peasant to their schemes of reform, they claim to represent the czar and to carry his message. The peasant is ready to suspect the nobles, the Jews, and the Poles, but the czar "can do no wrong." In view of this great stubborn fact, it is idle

to pretend that "Russia" demands the abolition of absolutism; what is true is that the relatively insignificant minority of the educated classes demands it.

But does this condition tend to weaken the case of the Liberals? Not at all. The real question is, not whether the peasants comprehend and desire political freedom, but whether political freedom is good for Russia as a whole, whether its development will be hastened by it. Certainly the peasants will not rise in rebellion to object to the introduction of constitutionalism. They will accept it from the czar as a blessing *because* it is bestowed by him. Nor can there be any question of the ripeness or fitness of the country for freer government. Austria is scarcely more homogeneous than Russia, and its peasantry cannot be justly described as superior intellectually and morally to the Russian peasantry. If Austria is not impeded in her progress by constitutional government, there is surely nothing extravagant or revolutionary in the program of Russian intelligence.

Having given full weight to the fact of the peasant's indifference to political reform, it is necessary to lay stress on another significant consideration which strengthens the side of the reformers.

A few years ago, the educated Russians were by no means a unit on the question of constitutionalism. Theirs was then a house divided against itself. On the one hand there were influential circles of radicals, with pronounced socialist tendencies, who sneered and scoffed at "bourgeois Parliamentarism" as something which would prove worse than useless to Russia. They were devoted to the cause of agrarian and economic reform, and would not lift a finger in favor of anything not of direct and immediate advantage to "the people"—that is, the peasantry. The extreme revolutionists shared this view, and never made Parliamentarism a part of their platform.

On the other hand there were many educated Russians who hoped for reform, "from above," and considered monarchy a better agency of reform than representative assemblies. Was not serfdom abolished at one

stroke by the czar? Were not great judicial réforms inaugurated by him? Then why could not Russia continue to be civilized and reformed by benevolent and enlightened monarchs, who can defy all obstruction and dare to do right without regard to "political expediency," in the sense in which that term is understood by the trembling politicians of free countries? All of this has been exploded. Such views no longer prevail. Except among the small group of the fanatical Slavophiles and self-seeking champions of privilege, no voice is raised against constitutionalism and parliamentarism. The radicals have ceased to scoff at it, and the revolutionists have learned to value it. This is a great gain for the Liberal cause.

But to revert to the question of the nature and scope of the Liberal program; not even the most cautious and conservative reformers can find fault with it on the score of moderation and reasonableness. While the demand is vaguely for constitutional government, there is no doubt that even the shortest step in that direction will be hailed with joy and gratitude. An entering wedge would be gladly welcomed. Alexander III.'s plan for an assembly of elected notables as a consultative council would be taken as an earnest of greater things to come.

What, however, is looked upon by all Liberals as the first reform needful, as the condition precedent to the success of all other reforms, is a free press, or rather a freer press. No right to indulge in reckless statement or libel is in question; all that is asked is the abolition of the censorship and the free utterance of honest opinion on all matters of public importance and interest. A full and free discussion of the needs of the country, economically, politically, and socially, is felt to be the first condition of progress. As long as the censorship exists, clear, definite, and deliberate opinions cannot find their way into print. Writers must be vague or insincere. The right of criticism is denied; no tests are permitted to be applied to measures in operation or in contemplation; no corruption or abuses can be exposed, and no light can be thrown on

practices of officials even in cases of flagrant disregard of law. The absence of a moderately free press has been the greatest curse of Russia. Even from the standpoint of the czar, it is obviously an evil. Surrounded by courtiers, flatterers, and time-servers, he has no means of informing himself respecting the facts of any situation or the state of opinion at any given time. He is kept in a state of ignorance which cannot be blissful, since he is aware of the conspiracy of deception of which he is the victim. He lives in an atmosphere of unreality and is at the mercy of his jailers.

It is reported from St. Petersburg that the czar is determined to attack the corruption of the bureaucracy, and to put an end to the scandalous system of wholesale blackmail and bribery on which officialdom thrives. But without a free press to second his efforts, his good intentions will never be transmuted into practical achievements. Many a czar before him has started out to reform abuses, purify official life, and terminate the reign of petty tyranny, but in each case bitter disappointment soon led to an abandonment of useless efforts. The co-operation and zeal of a free press is necessary for such a gigantic undertaking.

A free press, it is true, would necessarily undermine the monarchical principle, but the logic of events is doing more under existing conditions to discredit absolutism than any theoretical assaults can possibly accomplish. Besides, the Russian press would be occupied with the consideration of national needs and interests rather than with academic discussions of the possibilities of further political growth. Gratitude to the czar would also play no small part in preventing agitation against monarchy for a considerable period. Certainly the Russians are reconciled to slow and gradual reform.

I have deemed it essential to dwell on the two reforms which may be justly described as the parents of all other reforms. But, after all, freer government and a freer press are advocated in Russia more as means to certain ends than as ends in themselves. The country imperatively calls for economic, judicial, and educational reforms, and these

would unquestionably constitute the first fruit of press and political emancipation.

First of all the land question presses for solution. The peasants, suffering from chronic famine and over-taxation, are still dreaming of a new distribution of the land. The communal system of ownership is disappearing under the pressure of poverty; the invasion of the capitalist landowner meets with no resistance. The peasants believe themselves entitled to the land of their former masters, and hope that the czar will order the expropriation of the latter.

Things cannot continue as they are; the peasants must have more land and a reduction of taxes and burdens. Whether the communal tenure should be displaced by individual holdings, is a question upon which educated Russians are not a unit. All, however, are agreed on the urgency of the measures that would arrest the tendency toward the formation of a rural proletariat. Rural banks, government credit, land acts similar to those carried in the British Parliament on behalf of the Irish tenantry, and similar proposals are made by writers informed upon the subject. With a free press, it would be easy to formulate some plan of action; so long as even the publication of statistics and facts is prohibited, certainly nothing can be done.

In close connection with this is the question of local self-government. Even within the narrow limits to which the Provincial Assemblies (*Zemstvos*) have been reduced by successive restrictions, the inability to raise means has obstructed their efforts in every direction. They depend on the income from land derived by the peasants and small proprietors, and the burdens of these could not be made heavier. The functions and activities of the Provincial Assemblies would be enlarged by any reform deserving of the name. There are no other organs through which to influence and affect popular interests in Russia. To condemn them to impotence is to condemn Russia to famine, disaster, and reaction. The material, mental, and moral well-being of the peasants is in the keeping of the Provincial Assemblies. They cry for more power, scope,

and responsibility, without which they cannot afford the peasants the aid and relief needed.

Judicial reform is another plank in the Liberal platform. The great changes introduced in the early days of Alexander II. have nearly disappeared; only slight traces remain. Jury trial has been emasculated; the separation of the judiciary from the administrative power has been largely done away with, and the principle of publicity in the administration of justice has been trampled under foot. Not only in political cases, but in many classes of cases having but a remote connection with politics, "justice" is administered in accordance with pre-emancipation notions. So far has the reactionary policy been carried that many boldly advocated the total abolition of trial by jury and the other reforms conferred by Alexander II. It is hardly necessary to say that the Liberals ardently desire the reassertion of the great principles involved in the strangled judicial reforms and the re-establishment of the progressive system of procedure.

In the matter of education, the field of reform is infinite. In the villages, the farcical schools now controlled by the ignorant and overworked priesthood have to be replaced by schools properly so-called, and the number of them has to be increased enormously. A reform government cannot fear the spread of elementary education. The illiteracy of rural Russia is a disgrace to the government. Owing to the dread of revolutionary propaganda, the number of high schools and gymnasia has been kept down, and education made too expensive to be within the reach of the poor. Finally, the universities have been deprived of their autonomy, and the students subjected to military discipline and surrounded by vexatious and petty regulations. This policy would have to be reversed. Russia needs more educated citizens, not less, and the interests of a progressive ruler would not conflict with this national need.

The anti-education measures have affected the young women of Russia even more injuriously than the young men. Higher edu-

cation, and the opportunities of qualifying themselves for the practice of the liberal professions, have been withheld from them, and hundreds have had to go abroad to study medicine since the closing of the medical school for women in St. Petersburg. Of late there has been some talk of reopening it, but the conditions it is proposed to impose would exclude those who need it most and who would prove most useful to society as workers.

The repeal of all legislation against the Stundists and other religious sects, which have been relentlessly persecuted, and the abolition of the Jewish pale of settlement are also included in the reforms warmly advocated by Russian Liberals. It must suffice to indicate here the principal ones.

This rapid survey clearly shows that the

progressive elements of Russia have not been unbalanced by the political education derived from the example of Western Europe. They appreciate the necessity of adaptation to the special conditions of Russia of institutions belonging to more progressive nations, and they ask for very moderate improvements which would have no tendency whatever to unsettle anything. The program is entirely constructive; no great shock is involved in it to existing relations.

Will Nicholas II. prove equal to his splendid opportunity, or will he surrender to the cabal of the reactionists and turn a deaf ear to the voice of Russian intelligence? Will violence be unchained again by stubborn resistance to reasonable demands? Time alone can furnish the answer.

THE BICYCLE—ITS PLEASURES AND PERILS.

BY ROBERT LEW SEYMOUR.

SENECA observes that "a continuity of labor deadens the soul, and the mind must unbend itself by certain amusements." Just what direction the unbending process will take and the limit to its healthful employment depend largely upon the personal likes and dislikes of the individual.

Cardinal Richelieu was fond of contesting with a favorite servant to see which one could plant his foot the highest on the wall. That profound logician Samuel Clarke was fond of robust exercise. He set apart a certain hour each day to be devoted to leaping over chairs and tables. One day on noticing an aristocratic fellow entering he observed, "I must quit; a fool is coming in."

From the earliest pages of history we receive information that men, engaged in pursuits of mind and body, invariably sought recreation and diversion of mind in hobbies that would tend further to develop the dormant physical or mental condition.

It has been said that it is indecent for a man of letters to exult in the strength of his

arm or the breadth of his back, while one of the standing rules of the Jesuit order was that after two hours of study the mind should receive relaxation in vigorous healthy exercise. D' Audilly, the translator of Josephus, studied seven hours a day, after which he diverted his mind by cultivating trees. So likewise in our day men and women seek diversion and relaxation from the cares of their established pursuits. Yachting, riding, driving, polo, football, baseball, cricket, and bicycling have all had their especial merits and health-giving qualities brought to the attention of the public. Some are not indulged in to any considerable extent, being beyond the reach of the average purse, others some have condemned as being too violent, while there are those who enthusiastically claim that these very violent occupations of the body are the only ones from which genuine sport can be extracted.

Bicycling seems to have obtained more than passing recognition. This perhaps is accounted for from the fact that it appeals to all classes as an economical, health-giv-

ing exercise. At the outset, it seemed to be the design that only men should indulge themselves. Women, however, have taken it up and much ingenuity is shown in attempts to provide a costume somewhat manish, yet sufficiently within the line that criticism of immodesty will not be provoked.

The primitive bicycle, now long forgotten, was known as the "Dandy Charger" and was described as being a machine on which the rider sat touching the ground on either side with his feet, propelling himself with a kind of giant stride. Women were not enthusiasts then. The giant stride was not suitable to the flowing draperies of our grandmothers, and the divided skirt and knickerbockers were things that the most visionary did not even dare to predict.

The progress of civilization has brought many changes and from an original machine of no use except to those on pleasure bent we have to-day one which gives health, strength, and pleasure to man and woman alike, of practical utility in both public and private use, and a solid argument for good roads. It has been said in regard to our social economy that it is no longer a question whether one can ride into society on a wheel but whether it is possible to get into society without one.

Bicycling has become a fashion and a lady must now be able to ride a wheel as skillfully as she was once able to ride a horse. It is right that it is so because a more invigorating exercise cannot be imagined. It is a diversion to business men coming to and going from business cares, at the same time giving tone to the system and muscle to the body. New England is said to have gone wheel mad, as there are twenty thousand women riders there.

Lady Henry Somerset says that bicycling is only second in importance to temperance. However this may be, a trip into the country a-wheel, stopping at innumerable old taverns and inns which have been rejuvenated and show a revival of prosperity, makes an ideal outing, and one well calculated to increase the mental and physical force of the individual.

The practicability of the bicycle has stirred

manufacturers to better endeavor, and many ideas have been brought forward for its application to different occupations to the end that it might supersede other methods of locomotion.

Recent experimental efforts on the part of military officers to promote the use of the bicycle in military operations have not met with pronounced success, the chief drawback being that when in general service it is desired to go cross country, climb stone walls, and cover any territory other than the regularly used highways their impracticability becomes apparent. It is however a fact that in European armies the use of the bicycle has increased largely in the last two years. Portuguese soldiers have used it with marked success, and many prizes have been given to the best riders in the Spanish infantry and rifle corps. In Bulgaria a corps of bicyclers is assigned to each military organization. Sweden employs an armed bicycle corps of ten men in each division of the army as an advance guard for surveying the roads. But in all these cases they will be found to be merely accessories and do not participate in active military operations. Experiments are soon to be made in Texas in which soldiers mounted on bicycles will take up and distribute telegraph wire used by the signal corps.

Lieut. Donavon, in attempting to illustrate the adaptability of the bicycle for the common soldier, rode from Ft. Russell to Omaha, 530 miles, in five and one half days, carrying the entire equipment of a soldier on the march.

It has not yet been demonstrated that the bicycle is adapted to the uses of the rank and file of the army; at the same time its usefulness in some special departments is admitted, as, for instance, war correspondents have had typewriting machines fitted to their wheels. This is somewhat cumbersome, and no doubt the old-fashioned lead pencil will not yet be put on the retired list.

The public service has been in many ways benefited by the bicycle. The Chautauqua police travel on bicycles. No other city in the United States has adopted this fashion. Chicago and Milwaukee have voted the sys-

tem down. The bicycle is noiseless, and people cannot hear it until it is up with them. On it a policeman can traverse twelve miles of roadway several times in a night. In some of the suburbs of Boston the police make their long round on a wheel and if the results prove satisfactory other places contemplate the adoption of the plan.

Individual letter carriers covering long distances have sought to lighten their labors by the use of bicycles. From an economic point of view there is no reason why both these services should not adopt this means of locomotion. In the suburbs of cities where mail boxes are widely scattered the bicycle ought to take the place of the wagons now in use. Tradesmen and publishers of daily papers ought to find it a valuable means for the delivery of their wares.

The conservative hostility to new methods is such that it is well nigh impossible to forecast the future possibilities of the bicycle in any branch of public service. Our wretched country roads argue against its use while the bicycle itself argues that our roads should be improved. However, a good illustration of what can be accomplished under existing conditions is the recent message sent by President Cleveland to Governor Waite in Denver. This was delivered by relay riders; the distance traveled was 2,037 miles, the time consumed six days, ten hours, and forty minutes. The one mile record on the bicycle is faster than the fastest mile ever trotted or paced by any horseflesh in this country.

Many novelties have been brought to the attention of the public by inventors who have their ideas of the requirements of the wheel world. One of these which should receive consideration is the motor cycle, which is designed to take the place of carriages and stands ready for service at all seasons of the year in all kinds of going. The tires are about four inches in diameter and vibration is reduced to the minimum. The motive power is oil, and one gallon, it is claimed, drives machine and rider 200 miles, while twice the quantity will send the four-wheeled two-occupant machine the same distance. The four wheeler will undoubtedly

become popular. It is in reality two ladies' bicycles connected with a carriage seat, thus making a comfortable carriage for two persons. The speed is contracted at the will of the operator. It would seem that given a motor cycle, a gallon of oil, and a box of matches, the poorest cripple could hold his own against the greatest muscular prodigy who now bestrides a wheel.

There is also an inventor who claims he can propel a wheel at the rate of 60 miles an hour using ether as a motive power.

Mr. Perez Griffin of Portland, Me., had a thrilling experience on Mt. Washington, which will be of interest to those who may have a desire for adventure. Mr. Griffin put his wheel in the express car of the railroad that runs to the top of the mountain and rode to the Tip Top house. He found that one time a carriage road led to the bottom; bicyclists had used it but not of late years as it was washed out and gullied in many places. He determined to make the descent by this road. It was steep, with many sharp turns, with a rocky wall on one side and an abyss on the other. He was told that few if any teams ever used it and with great assurance he proceeded. His speed became terrific; he held his brake so hard that his hand and arm became numb; he back pedaled with all his might but with no effect. About a third of the way down on rounding a sharp curve a team came in sight. It was impossible to pass it, he could go over the rocks on the side or he could go against the rocks on the inner edge or he could make a leap off of his machine. To stop was impossible. He was doing all he could without lessening the speed of the machine at all; he decided to leap and at the same time keep hold of the machine,—a difficult thing to do. When his feet struck the ground they bounded off again and he flew several feet beside the machine only to bound again as his feet struck the ground; but he managed to stop as he reached the very nose of the horse. It was a very narrow escape and only a trained rider could accomplish it. For the balance of the trip Mr. Griffin lashed his brake until he could scarcely turn the wheel; in this way he reached the bottom;

his tire was nearly torn to pieces the outer tube being almost skinned off leaving the inner tube bare in several places.

But with all that can be said of the bicycle there are those who condemn it. A case of this kind was recently very much in evidence in Michigan. For three years the Seventh Day Adventists have been advocates of the bicycle. Dr. J. H. Kellogg, the medical superintendent of the sanitarium run by the Seventh Day people, had recommended them in many cases and the result was that all Adventists who could afford it bought wheels, and they numbered hundreds.

But it is different now. A letter was received from Mrs. Ellen G. White the prophetess, in which she says that it would be better if her people would spend less time and money on bicycles and more for the good of the cause. If they will do this, she says, they will be better prepared for the last day and the doctrine of the Seventh Day Adventists will be advanced more than it has in the last year. The advice of Mrs. White has been taken, scores have already disposed of their wheels, and at the New Year's gift making hundreds of machines were donated to the cause.

Fashionable women in London are not so enthusiastic over bicycling as French and American women are; the reason given is that milkmen and various tradesmen go over their routes on wheels, while on Sundays they, together with their wives and families, employ this means of locomotion for their weekly outing. Lady Henry Somerset declares that the bicycle is destined to work a "revolution" and that in the future it will entirely change the aspect of life for the working girl. The country will be brought to her doors and new hope and inspiration awakened that nothing else can give.

A question that comes to every woman's mind when about to master the bicycle is that of dress. What shall be worn that will be most comfortable and not endanger life by reason of skirts winding in the wheels? *La Moniteur de la Mode*, an authority in such matters, says that the proper costume should be of gray or dust colored cloth. The

"trouserettes" are ample and fall below the knee, where they meet black gaiters so long that no stocking is shown. Attached at the waist under a broad belt of black gros-grain ribbon fastened by a silver buckle, is a bodice, with box plaits in the back, made to lie flat and fit the figure closely. There is a little fullness in the waist in front and it buttons on the left side, with a small pocket on the right breast. The sleeves are bias, the collar high, a white sailor hat with black ribbon, white veil, and gray gloves complete the costume.

It will be remembered that at the World's Fair the dress reform enthusiasts were very assertive that much was accomplished on behalf of the bloomer. The new designs are very neat.

At a recent meeting of the Professional Woman's League in New York, Mrs. Mary Sargent Hopkins gave a lecture to women. Mrs. Hopkins is from Boston and is an ardent advocate of bicycling for women. The subject of her paper was "Out-of-Door Life for Women." Mrs. Hopkins said that while many kinds of out-of-door exercise are good, bicycling should have the precedence. "It is the greatest cure for insomnia ever known," said she, "as a soother of nerves unstrung it has no equal, and as a banisher of wrinkles and a rejuvenator is wonderfully efficacious. When such women as Mrs. Mary A. Livermore advocate the wheel, when Frances Willard not only rides but declares that the wheel will bring a physical evangel to women, when Mrs. Miller, the apostle of grace and beauty, believes in it heart and soul, and physicians recommend it, it is time the whine about the wheel's being unladylike was stopped."

Bicycling has increased with such astonishing rapidity as to have become one of the distinguishing features of modern society instead of being a mere curiosity or toy as the first ones were regarded. Bicycles have become the object of permanent demand which has been steadily expanding. Their introduction into new channels in which their practicability is now being tested promises before long a still wider and more general use.

THE LAWS OF TEMPESTS.

BY ALFRED ANGOT.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DE PARIS."

ON November 17, 1893, and on November 12, 1894, two tempests of extraordinary violence ravaged the north of France and the British Isles. In the train of the long list of accidents and disasters, the papers took up anew the problems of the origin and the laws of these atmospheric phenomena. And to-day it is possible, owing to the advance of science, to give a response to the greater number of these questions.

On consulting the treatises on meteorology of forty years ago or so, one is struck by the small place devoted to tempests. All is reduced there—or nearly so—to a description more or less precise of cyclones in the Antilles. Even yet, much less is said of these meteors themselves than of their disastrous effects, of the ships which they have engulfed, the buildings they have overturned, and the victims they have left in their track.

These isolated descriptions can never throw much light upon the formation and the propagation of tempests. In order to fathom their laws it is necessary, first, to gather together a great number of observations regarding the region traversed by the hurricane, then to compare with all of these points the movements of the barometer and the variations in the direction of the wind. In order to establish the general laws of tempests there is needed a regular and detailed study of the great movements of the atmosphere. The initiative of such study was begun in France not forty years ago through the efforts of the astronomer Le Verrier.

On the 14th of November, 1854, during the Crimean War, a terrible hurricane swept over the Black Sea. At the same time heavy winds were observed in all the west of Europe, in Algeria, and in Austria. This remarkable coincidence attracted the attention of Marshal Vaillant, who asked La Verrier to undertake the study of the conditions

in which the tempest had occurred. The astronomers and meteorologists of Europe were asked to transmit to Paris all the records which they could gather concerning the weather between November 12 and 16. The examination of the numerous documents furnished, showed that the tempest traversed all Europe from the northwest to the southeast. If there had existed at this time a meteorological service our army and navy, forewarned by telegraph, would have been able to avert a great disaster.

Following this study, La Verrier submitted to the emperor the project of a vast meteorological organization, which project was rapidly executed; and on the 19th of February, 1855, the illustrious director of the Observatory was able to present to the Academy of Sciences a chart showing the state of the atmosphere throughout France recorded on a given day at ten o'clock in the morning. The new institution developed gradually, extending to other countries. To-day among the best organized meteorological services must be cited those of the United States, of India, Australia, and Japan.

In all the services the work in that which concerns the daily study of the movements of the atmosphere is made almost in the same manner. Let us take as an example the work of the Central Meteorological Bureau of France established in 1878.

Every morning before ten o'clock there are received at this bureau telegraphic dispatches from all parts of Europe containing the meteorological observations made that morning and the preceding evening. These observations include the height of the barometer, temperature, direction and force of the wind, state of the heavens, rain, storms, and state of the sea. The dispatches are immediately translated and recorded on cards. The comparison of these cards with those of the day before gives evidences of the changes

which have taken place in the atmospheric situation. It is in this way that a tempest can be foreseen and even its intensity and the path it will take be made known, and the threatened regions be warned of the danger. These previsions are based upon a knowledge of the laws which govern the development and propagation of tempests, and these laws have been discovered through a study of these same cards.

Let us consider the card reports of November 17, 1893, the day on which occurred the most violent tempest of these last years. The height of the barometer varied greatly from one region to another and presented in its variations a certain regularity. At a point about the middle of Scotland it reached its greatest depression, gradually rising all round this spot and reaching its normal height in Spain, on the Mediterranean, in Austria, and on the Baltic. The air was thus rarefied over an immense surface which was in form approximately circular or elliptical, and in which the rarefaction increased toward the center. It formed what the meteorologists call a *barometric depression*, and they also say that the depression is greater as the barometer is lower at the center or as it descends more rapidly from the borders of the depression to the center.

As soon as there was caused between any two near consecutive points, measuring out from the center, a sensible difference of pressure, the air could no longer remain in repose but was forced from the point where it was greater to the point where it was less. It is, then, understood that all barometric depression must be accompanied by a movement of the air, that is to say, wind; and the violence of the wind depends upon the depth of the depression, or rather upon the rapidity with which the barometer varies.

It can be readily seen that the wind will blow at every point in the direction in which there is less pressure, that is toward the center. Thus in a depression of exactly circular form it would be expected that the wind would be from the south for all points south of the center, from the east for all points east, and so on. This is in fact what would happen if the earth presented a plane

surface and if it was motionless; but it is spherical and turns upon its axis, which introduces a great complication in the movements of the air. Although the complete problem may be one of the most complicated in mechanics, it is possible to make it relatively clear by the aid of comparison.

Suppose a railroad train at first stationary. A traveler fires a shot toward some exterior object; it will require say two seconds for the ball to reach the object. Imagine next the train moving at the rate of thirty feet a second. The traveler aims at the object the instant he is opposite it; but the ball, in addition to the impulsion which he has communicated to it, preserves the general movement of the train, which in two seconds makes it travel laterally sixty feet. It will strike then at some distance beyond the object.

The rotation of the earth produces an effect of the same kind upon movements which occur on its surface. All the points of the globe turn together from the west to the east in twenty-four hours; but they all have in reality different rates of velocity according to the position which they occupy. At the poles the velocity is nothing; it increases regularly to the equator where it reaches the enormous rate of 1,520 feet a second.

Let us take for consideration two places in our own country, Paris and Dunkirk. While the Parisian, affected by the movement of the earth, passes through about 1,000 feet, the inhabitant of Dunkirk travels only about 963 feet.

Let us imagine now at Paris a wind from the south, that is blowing toward Dunkirk, which is almost directly north from Paris. As Paris moves from west to east at the rate of 37 feet a second faster than does Dunkirk, the wind from the south at Paris will be like the ball fired from the moving train; it will be deviated toward the east, that is toward its right. From being a south wind, which it was at Paris, it will become a southwest wind; and it will reach Liège or Cologne instead of Dunkirk, which it would have reached had the earth been motionless. Thus all winds are turned from their first

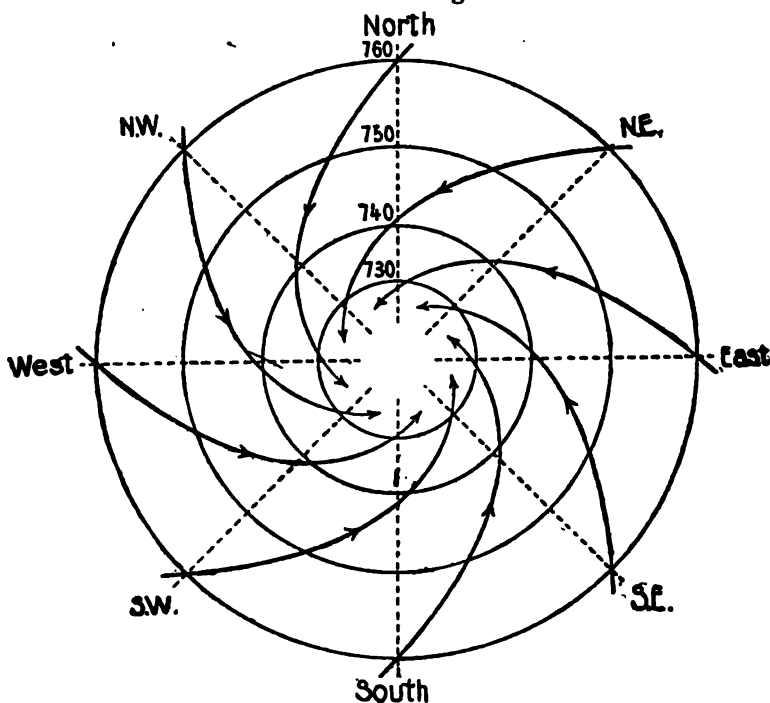
direction, and in the northern hemisphere this deviation is always toward the right while in the southern hemisphere it is toward the left.

Let us come back now to the barometric depressions. We have said that if the earth were motionless the wind would blow from all sides of the border of the depression toward the center; the direction of the wind would then be at each point that indicated by the dotted lines in the accompanying figure, in which the concentric circles represent the lines along which the depression is the same. But the rotation of

be in the other direction). This whirling movement once begun is augmented by the effect of centrifugal reaction.

One is always inclined to liken whirlwinds to the whirlpools formed in rivers near the banks or the stone piers of bridges. But these whirlpools can turn in any direction, while whirlwinds are always confined to the one motion determined by the rotation of the earth.

The movement in spirals which constantly brings the air from the edges to the center of the atmospheric depressions ought quickly enough to fill the relative void existing there.



the earth makes all these winds to deviate toward their right, that which would otherwise have come from the north comes from the northeast; that which would have come from the west comes from the northwest, and so on. It is readily seen then that all these winds instead of converging directly toward the center take the directions indicated in the figure by the black lines; they become oblique, they form spirals around the center, and cause a whirlwind which sweeps from the right to the left,—a movement opposite to that of the hands of a clock (in the southern hemisphere the movement would

But in spite of this constant influx the depressions persist sometimes for several days. It is, then, certain that the air must find some way of escape and that way can only be by rising into the region above the center. This ascending movement for which reasoning shows the necessity, has been directly verified, notably by observations which have been made during more than three years from the summit of the Eiffel Tower.

One will have a very clear idea of the movements of air in a barometric depression if he imagines that there is placed over the center of the depression a funnel with the

point upward. The air rises obliquely along the inside of the funnel moving always in a direction opposite the hands of a clock (we are making all of our suppositions in the northern hemisphere); reaching the higher regions it escapes and scatters from the center. Evidence of this last movement is seen in the directions taken by the higher clouds.

Now that we know the laws of the movement of the air in an atmospheric depression, it is easy to understand the influence which these depressions exert upon the weather. This influence depends upon the position of the center of the depression with relation to the point to be considered. Let us take, for example, the region of Paris, and suppose that the depression has its center at the north in the British Isles. It is seen, then, that the wind at Paris must come from the southwest, and that will be from the ocean, a region warmer in winter than the continents; the weather is then very mild and at the same time, damp. Our warm and rainy winters always follow a series of barometric depressions which pass over England or farther north and occasion in France steady winds from the west or the southwest.

When the center of depression is found in the east, over Germany, we have at Paris a northwest wind, still coming from the sea and consequently charged with moisture, but much colder than in the preceding case; instead of rain, it more frequently brings snow.

If on the contrary the depression rests over the Atlantic, far in the west or the southwest, France is subjected to east or northeast winds coming from Germany and from Russia. It is then dry, the sky is clear, but the temperature is very low.

When the depressions are formed over the Mediterranean, especially in the Gulf of Genoa, we have at Paris a north wind very cold and often accompanied with snow. But as this wind reaches farther south it becomes warmer and dry, having had its moisture precipitated in passing over the Alps and the Cevennes. The valley of the Rhone is then swept by a wind between west and northwest, cool, dry, and of a violence of which it

is difficult to form an idea. It is the mistral.

In cyclones the diameter of the whirlwind is relatively small and the barometric depression great. The wind is then extreme, but limited to a restricted space. In the temperate regions the surface embraced by the tempest is ordinarily much larger, but the barometric variations much less rapid and consequently the wind less violent, than in the cyclones occurring in the Indies or the Antilles, or in the typhoons of the China Sea. Thus the cyclones of the tropics and the tempests of the temperate regions differ only in their dimensions and, perhaps, in their origin.

Whirlpools which are formed in rivers do not remain in one spot, but are carried forward by the current. In the same way tempests are ordinarily carried on by the general currents of the atmosphere. When a depression exists in a great atmospheric current the air continues to flow freely on one side of the depression; on the other side, on the contrary, the general circulation is interrupted by the whirlwind; the air drawn by the depression toward the center on this side moves in the opposite direction from the current and can no longer be easily replaced. A relative void is formed then on this side, so that the depression being always as it were hollowed out in front and overwhelmed from the rear, comes thus to acquire a motion for itself similar to that of the current. It is thus seen that it is not the same mass of air which constitutes indefinitely a barometric depression; in reality the air which participates in the whirling movement is constantly renewed. It rises as it reaches the center, escapes to the upper regions, and is replaced by new masses. According as these new masses arrive in condition of temperature and moisture favorable or otherwise, the tempest will be increased or diminished.

Having shown that all whirling motion existing in a current ought to follow the course of the current, or nearly so, it will be easy to furnish numerous examples showing this to be usually the case. The trade winds blow regularly over the Atlantic between

Africa and the Antilles from a direction between east and northeast. It is also known that the cyclones which from time to time ravage Martinique or Guadaloupe, always come from the east. Having reached the Antilles, the trade winds change their course and follow the coast of the United States. A great number of depressions follow this same route, none have ever been known to take an opposite direction. Before reaching Newfoundland the winds change to southwest and then to west winds blowing toward Europe. And this is the route followed by many tempests. Other tempests come directly from the west. Starting in the Pacific they traverse North America, the Atlantic, and reach Europe. So their general prevailing direction in Europe is from the west, sometimes obliquely toward the north, sometimes toward the south. With the prevision which science makes possible to-day only about three tempests out of a hundred now occur without fair warning; why these occur cannot yet be explained.

Let us now examine the origin of tempests and their mode of formation. This question presents many more uncertainties. Following the researches of Messrs. Blanford and Elliott, let us study the cyclone which on October 31, 1876, devastated the region of the mouth of the Ganges.

On October 20 the barometric pressure over the Gulf of Bengal was very uniform. At the north the winter monsoon (the northeast wind) began to blow, but very feebly, while the summer monsoon (the southwest wind) had not yet entirely ceased in the south near the Malacca peninsula. In the middle of the gulf a considerable mass of air was stationary, imprisoned between these two currents which tended to communicate to it a very slight rotary motion. Under the influence of the beautiful warm weather, evaporation from the surface of the sea was very active and this mass of air became constantly lighter. Very soon ascending movements began. As the air rises it becomes cooled and a part of the vapor it contains is condensed into rain; but this condensation disengages a great amount of heat which maintains the rising current at a higher

temperature than the surrounding air and thus increases the energy of the current. At the end of three days of this *régime* a barometric depression appeared in the Gulf of Bengal, and during the following four days gradually increased; the whirling motion was accentuated, and at the same time the depression began to be displaced toward the north, becoming more and more hollowed out. The wind grew stronger and on the 29th of the month all of the elements of a cyclone were gathered.

The cause of this cyclone was, then, local, and resided in the meteorological conditions of the lower regions of the air. The cyclone was developed slowly in a very limited place, and during all the time the atmosphere of the higher regions remained calm.

The greater number of tropical cyclones are generated under analogous conditions. The cyclones of the West Indies seem always to have their birth in the region of equatorial calms. As these calms are always found in the Atlantic north of the equator it is seen why they always take a northerly course, one never having been known to move south along the coasts of Brazil.

If the tempests of the temperate regions seem to have a different cause than the tropical cyclones, the same accessory phenomena exercise over them analogous influences. For example, they increase in intensity when passing over a warm, moist region, and, on the other hand, diminish and finally spend themselves in cold, dry regions as Russia. Local conditions then at least have a powerful influence over the tempests of the higher latitudes.

Against many of the disasters following these meteors man will always be helpless. All that can be demanded of science is, not to suppress or weaken the storms, but to give warning of their approach. Every year marks new progress in this work, and we may hope that the day will come when the meteorological service will be so thoroughly organized and the atmospheric laws will be so well known, that no tempest can ever find men off guard or having failed to take measures to prevent material destruction and the loss of priceless human lives.

ON PRESENTING AN INKSTAND TO A FRIEND,

BY JOHN HOWARD JEFFERIES.

CONSIDER thou what words of power and worth
Within the compass of this inkstand's wall
Lie hidden. They, thy slaves, await thy call,
O friend, to bid them rise, to give them birth,
Into a sphere of usefulness on earth.
The bondage which doth now these words enthrall
In silent selfishness, is shared by all
Who keep confined within the narrow girth
Of their own selves the thoughts they should express.
What gospel, good news, hast thou then to tell,
Thy brother man to cheer? Do not suppress
The noble, tender thoughts which in thee dwell
So richly; freely use this gift. And may its well
Be unto thee a fount of blessedness.

JOURNALISM OF THE CATHOLIC CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES.

BY THE REV. JAMES J. DUNN.

THE founder of Catholic journalism in the United States was an Irishman, and one of the most illustrious of the many Irishmen whose names adorn the historic pages of the land of their adoption, the Right Reverend John England, the first Catholic bishop of Charleston, South Carolina.

In 1821, Bishop England, whose bodily and mental labors in the cause of Catholic truth seem to men of our day most extraordinary, established in Charleston, the *United States Catholic Miscellany*, the first Catholic paper published within the limits of the United States. "It was," as Mr. Richard H. Clarke, A. M., the author of "The Deceased Bishops," states, "one of the best conducted and most attractive journals in our language." The object of the *Miscellany*, as the bishop himself says, was: "The simple explanation and temperate maintenance of the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church; in exhibiting which, its conductors are led to hope that many sensible persons will be astonished to find, that they

have imputed to Catholics doctrines which the Catholic Church has formally condemned, and imagined they were contradicting Catholics when they held Catholic doctrines themselves." For twenty years amid the active duties required of a bishop in charge of religion in three large states, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, Bishop England's pen enlightened and enlivened its columns. His accomplished young sister was for a time his second self in the management of the paper, and often toned down the fierce logic of his bold and pointed articles, which envenomed assaults on his faith and nationality drew from him. Her early death affected him bitterly.

Amid the expiring fires of patriotism in 1861, in the early spring, the soul went forth from this great work of this truly great man. In the words of Mr. Richard Clarke, "He found the church in the United States on his accession to the See of Charleston, comparatively defenseless; but he soon rendered it a dangerous task in her enemies to attack or to vilify her; and many who ventured on

this mode of warfare were glad to retreat from the field before the crushing weapons of logic, erudition, and eloquence with which he battled for his church, his creed, and his people."

To people of his own nationality and religion, to the poor slave, to all whether they agreed or disagreed with him in matters of faith, he was a friend and a counselor. On one occasion having used a Protestant church for a course of lectures on Catholic doctrines during the week, on the invitation of the rector he occupied his pulpit on Sunday following as the rector was too busy attending to the lectures to prepare his Sunday sermon. After he had preached to his own congregation, the bishop passed over to his neighbor's church, read some passages from the Douay edition of the Bible, read some prayers from a book of general devotions, and giving a good practical sermon on general morals dismissed them with his blessing.

New York, Boston, and Philadelphia soon followed the example set by the bishop of Charleston. In 1822 *The Truth Teller* was started in New York by the V. Rev. John Power, then administrator of the diocese, under the management of Messrs. George Pardow and William Denman as editors; and *The Irish Shield* in Philadelphia by Geo. Pepper, which after a brief existence was transferred to Boston, where it was published as *The Catholic Sentinel*. In 1829 *The Catholic Expostulator* was started in Boston by the Rt. Rev. Bishop Fenwick and his clergy. As the names of the papers suggest, these were dark and evil days in the history of the church of Boston. The paper failed. The bishop seeing the importance and the absolute necessity of a Catholic paper to dispel the lowering clouds of bigotry

started *The Jesuit*, named from the illustrious order to which the venerable bishop had belonged. This too failed, and *The Catholic Press* followed in 1833.

As an indication of the wild storm of intolerance that was then threatening, and of the height to which its fury reached, came the disgraceful night in Massachusetts' history, August 11, 1834, when a howling mob, without the least hindrance or protest, ascended Mount Benedict at Charleston, and battering in the doors of the Ursuline Convent, compelled the defenseless nuns and their wards to fly for their lives from their peaceful home, which with its valuable school furniture and its pianos and libraries was given as a prey to the devouring flames. The maniacs danced with wild delight at the desolation; and one year afterwards, the acquittal of the leaders in this heartless and disgraceful episode was hailed by a salvo of fifty guns to attest the joy and approval of the misguided populace. I tell these things with sorrow to illustrate the surroundings of Catholic journalism in those days.



RIGHT REV. JOHN ENGLAND, D.D.
Founder of Catholic Journalism in the United States.

On October 22, 1831, under Rt. Rev. Edward Fenwick, bishop of Cincinnati and cousin of the bishop of Boston, *The Catholic Telegraph* (this name fossilizes history too, the date of a great invention) sprang into existence. It is now the oldest of our Catholic papers, and was the first in what was then called the Far West. For a long time the name of the V. Rev. Edward Purcell, the brother of the archbishop, stood at the head of the editorial columns. The disastrous financial failure with which his name was connected dragged down and crushed in its ruin both him and his brother, the archbishop. For many years he was ably assisted in the editorial work by the Rev. J. F.



PATRICK DONAHOE.
Editor "Boston Pilot." (Mass.)

Callaghan, of whom the Rev. J. M. Finnotti, the bibliophile, says: "His editorials were no playthings."

In 1832 *The Catholic Herald* was founded in Philadelphia by the Rev. John Hughes, afterwards the famous archbishop of New York, and in many ways the reflection of the great bishop of Charleston. In this paper was conducted in 1833 the Catholic side of the famous controversy between Hughes and Breckenridge.

Of all the Catholic papers there is none so well known to the Catholic Irishman and his descendants as *The Boston Pilot*. What Gladstone is to the Irish heart on the eastern side of the Atlantic, Patrick Donahoe is to the whole of the Irish Catholic race from the Atlantic to the Pacific, from Hudson's Bay to the Gulf of Mexico—the Grand Old Man of *The Boston Pilot*. The *Pilot* began its honorable and consistent career in 1837. From the close of the Revolution to the opening of the Civil War there was no desire so burning in the heart of the Irish immigrant as to hear the latest news from Ireland. The *Pilot* led all the others in giving this. It has ever been thoroughly Catholic and thoroughly Irish, yet never allowed its national feelings to overshadow its religious allegiance. Its editor was ever the friend of his countrymen with his pen and his purse. Mr. Donahoe as proprietor has always duly appreciated talent, and has always been willing to

make the greatest sacrifices to secure the best. Early in the forties we find him engaging for the editorship of his paper the young and brilliant Thomas D'Arcy McGee, who was destined to be a prominent figure in Canadian politics. We find among the writers for the *Pilot* the names of Father Boyce the well known author, and Father Finnotti, the above mentioned book-collector and critic. The Catholic novelists, Mrs. Anna H. Dorsey and Mrs. Mary Sadlier, found also in the proprietor of the *Pilot* a ready and generous patron. When the famous John Boyle O'Reilly, the escaped patriot convict, stepped penniless on our shores, his merit as an orator, writer, and poet was immediately recognized, and he found a place at once as editor-in-chief on the staff of the *Pilot*. Horace Greeley seeing the brilliant star that served as headlight to the *Pilot* offered an unusual sum to gain such a light for the *Tribune*. Mr. Donahoe promptly met and covered the tempting offer, and John Boyle O'Reilly staid with *The Boston Pilot*.

On the death of John Boyle O'Reilly, James Jeffrey Roche, LL. D., the assistant editor since 1883, succeeded to the position of editor-in-chief. Of Mr. Roche, *The Weekly Journalist*, a Boston publication devoted to authors, journalists, and printers, says, that as a journalist he combines two qualities not



JOHN BOYLE O'REILLY.
Late Editor-in-Chief "Boston Pilot." (Mass.)

often found together,—discretion and brilliancy. He handles political topics ably, and in the treatment of the still broader social and economical questions, writes with the strength and spirit of the associate and successor of that apostle of human liberty and human brotherhood, John Boyle O'Reilly.

Mr. Roche is the master of trenchant sarcasm, and brilliant but always refined humor. In that most difficult department of journalism, editorial paragraphing, Mr. Roche has few peers. He holds a high place in the ranks of America's poets. The best of his poems have appeared in the leading magazines. He was the poet of the event at the unveiling of the High Water Mark monument at the National Dedication on the field of Gettysburg, in June, 1892; and we may entertain the assurance that he will be the leader and the poet in bringing *The Boston Pilot* to the high water mark of Catholic journalism in the United States.

In 1840 the *New York Freeman's Journal*, one of the best known of our Catholic papers, was brought into the world under the parentage of James W. and John S. White, nephews of Gerald Griffin, the famous Irish writer. In 1842, Bishop Hughes acquired possession. The public school discussion was then going on. He held the paper until 1847, when it came into the hands of James A. MacMaster, who so identified himself with it that one suggested the other. Mr. MacMaster was a convert from Presbyterianism, and with a free, vigorous, aggressive pen assailed the enemies of the church regardless of feelings within or without its fold. His theories at the opening of the Civil War, when freedom of speech was not tolerated, caused the suppression of the paper and the imprisonment of the editor in Fort Lafayette. After his liberation, he

continued as before, and entered on a new fight for the rights of the secular clergy as against the arbitrary actions of the bishops. It was then that the famous letters of Jus appeared. The writer was in those days a second Junius, and during the whole of the controversy, and a long time after it, his identity was most carefully shielded. It is now well known that the author was the Rev. Eugene M. O'Callaghan, then stationed at Youngstown, Ohio, but now pastor of St. Colman's Church, Cleveland. The letters showed a deep knowledge of canon law, and remotely led to the introduction of Home Rule for the American church by the appointment of the present apostolic delegate, Monsignor Satolli.

After the death of Mr. James A. MacMaster, who was facetiously called by the editors of the secular press of New York "the abbe," the paper fell into the hands of the Fords, the proprietors and editors of the *Irish World*. But its spirit was gone. It languished on until the beginning of this year, when its old time life was aroused by the vigorous pen of Father

Lambert, the foe of Ingersoll, who was put into the editor's chair.

In February, 1844, the *Pittsburg Catholic* was started by the great and good Bishop O'Connor, whose name deserves to be linked with those of England and Hughes. Jacob Porter, its long-time editor, is so identified with the life of *The Catholic* that to name one is to name the other. *The Catholic* has always held a respectable place among our Catholic journals and has done a great deal of good. The old editor has retired from his labors, and the present editor or editors, the Rev. J. F. Canevin and Frank B. Smith, have pushed *The Catholic* by the excellence of their editorials far to the front among the best of our journals.



JAMES JEFFREY ROCHE, LL. D.
Editor-in-Chief "*Boston Pilot*." (Mass.)

In the same year the *Propagateur Catholique* was started in New Orleans. It was printed both in French and English, as a large proportion of the population in that part of the states is of French origin, and, like the Canadians of Lower Canada or Quebec, retains the language and French customs. It is now no more.

In 1849 *The Catholic Mirror* of Baltimore, the official organ of the archbishop, the present cardinal, and his suffragans, the bishops of Richmond, Wheeling, Wilmington, Del., Charleston, Savannah, and the vicariate apostolic of North Carolina, began its career. But its editorial page does not accord with its high position. Being the official organ means that all announcements, pastorals, etc., that these bishops wish to make, are made through its columns. Beyond these, the cardinal and bishops are in no way responsible for its utterances. This applies to all official organs.

The New York Tablet, established in 1857 by the well known Catholic booksellers, D. and J. Sadlier and Co., began its life as the *American Celt* under F. D'Arcey McGee in 1852. In its early days it had such able contributors as Dr. Brownson, Mrs. J. Sadlier, Doctor J. V. Huntington, and had a good reputation as a sound exponent of Catholic principles and a journal of high literary merit. It still lives.

In 1866 *The Catholic Standard* of Philadelphia was started by Wm. Pepper and Co. under the editorship of the Rev. James Keogh, D. D., one of the most learned and brilliant of Catholic theologians. Messrs. Hardy and Mahoney purchased it in 1874, and until a few years ago George Deering Wolff ably managed the editorial column. Mr. Wolff was one of many whom the Mercersburg movement under the celebrated

Dr. Nevin sent into the bosom of the Catholic Church. It is thought that Archbishop Ryan writes the most of the editorials at present. Whoever edits it edits it well.

The *Morning Star* of New Orleans, started in 1868, is the most prominent Catholic journal in the southern and Gulf states. It was founded by the Catholic Publishing Society

of New Orleans. Its chief writers have been Mr. N. B. Lancaster, a distinguished lawyer of New Orleans, Bishop Elder, now the archbishop of Cincinnati, the poet priest of the South, Abraham J. Ryan, and many others. It still lives.

The Louisville Catholic Advocate was founded in 1869. It is the third attempt to establish a Catholic journal in that diocese. The poor support given to efforts of the earnest advocates of

Catholic journalism, coming from the poverty of some and the apathy of others, is the cause why former efforts collapsed and why the present is so languid.

The Catholic Review, founded in the spring of 1872 by Mr. P. V. Hickey, is looked upon as the standard Catholic paper of the United States. Its founder, by his wise and thoroughly Catholic course, won for himself and his paper the approval not only of the archbishop of New York and the bishop of Brooklyn and of ecclesiastics and the Catholic people throughout the country, but is most frequently quoted by the secular press.

At the same time he started the *Illustrated Catholic American*, a sixteen page, four column paper, full of interesting news, stories, etc., for the amusement, instruction, and edification of Catholic families. To provide the masses with good books, he brought out under the name of the Vatican Library cheap reprints of the lives of heroes, saints, and sages, addresses, lectures, and sermons by living authors on the vital subjects of



JAMES A. MACMASTERS.
Late Editor "New York Freeman's Journal." (N. Y.)

the times, with beautiful stories, which sold ordinarily for two or three dollars, for the low prices of 10, 15, 20, and 25 cents. In 1878, still further to serve the cause of religion, and to promote knowledge among the poorer classes, he issued *The Catholic American*, an eight page, six column paper, at the low price of \$1.00 per annum. Its circulation is 3,000. He worked for God and man and not for money. If any journalist has deserved well of the Catholic Church and is entitled to the grateful remembrance of his fellow citizens it is the unselfish Patrick Valentine Hickey.

After the death of Mr. P. V. Hickey, who was a great loss to Catholic journalism, the Rev. J. Talbot Smith for a while ably conducted its editorial pages. Since then it is hard to tell who edits it, but whoever does it, does it well.

Following in the same course, Mr. Herman Ridder in 1886 sent out *The American Catholic News*, an eight page, seven column weekly, at the same low price of one dollar per annum. Its circulation is 152,000, the highest probably of any religious journal within our borders.

In 1872 The Buffalo Catholic Publication Society, composed of Bishop Ryan, a number of clergymen and prominent business laymen, started the *Catholic Union*, which after its consolidation with the Rochester *Catholic Times* in 1881 was called the *Catholic Union and Times*. It began as a

five column paper, with annual subscription at three dollars, under the management of Mr. J. Edmund Burke. After one year he was succeeded by the Rev. Patrick Cronin, D. D., who, for the last twenty-one years, has so successfully managed the literary and financial affairs of the paper, that from a five column page it has been enlarged to six,

the subscription lowered to two dollars, an annual dividend of 5 per cent declared on the invested stock, and its circulation run far up into the thousands. Competent judges declare it to be the handsomest eight page religious journal in the country. It is looked upon as a leader of thought, and its editorial utterances are quoted quite generally not only by its religious confreres, but by many of the best non-religious American journals as well. All this is due to the indomitable energy and talent of the present able editor, whom neither Buffalo nor the Catholic public can well spare, the Rev. Patrick Cronin, D. D.

Besides these papers, which are the most prominent of the Catholic journals, there are *The Catholic Universe* of Cleveland, Ohio, founded by Bishop Gilmour, famous for his almost constant warfare with Cowles of the *Cleveland Leader*, and for a long time ably managed by Manly Tello, *The Catholic Columbian* of Columbus founded by Bishop

Rosecrans, brother of General Rosecrans the hero of Iuka and Corinth; *The Catholic Pilot* of Chicago founded by Mr. J. Cahill; *The Monitor* of San Francisco, *The Lake Shore Visitor* of Erie, *The Connecticut Catholic* of Hartford, *The Catholic Republic* of Boston, and *The Catholic Times* of Philadelphia, and a host of others. Within the last twenty years there has been a wonderful increase in the number of Catholic papers.



PATRICK VALENTINE HICKEY.
Late Editor "The Catholic Review." (New York.)

The German Catholics are, as a rule, generous supporters of their Catholic papers and Catholic literature. They have in the United States four daily papers published respectively in Philadelphia, Pittsburg, St. Louis, and Buffalo: 26 weeklies, and 9 monthlies, mostly magazines. They have some very able writers. It was the German Catholic press, and the strong support

given to it in Germany, that rendered nugatory all Bismarck's efforts to establish his *Culturkampf*, and to bolster up the Old Catholic Church under Reinkens for the destruction of the Catholic Church.

Of the five or six Catholic *monthly magazines* that have ceased to exist the most noted was the *United States Catholic Magazine*, which was established in Baltimore in 1842, and lived until 1849. It was, as John O'Kane Murray says, "a mine rich in intellectual wealth." It was published by John Murphy and Co., of Baltimore, and had for its editors the Rev. Chas. I. White, D.D., and the V. Rev. M. J. Spalding, afterwards archbishop of Baltimore. Among the writers are found the names of B. U. Campbell, the Rev. Dr. Pise James McSherry, the historian of Maryland, Mrs. A. H. Dorsey, and John Gilmary Shea.

Of those living at the present time the most notable are, *The Catholic World*, *The Messenger of the Sacred Heart*, *The American Ecclesiastical Review*, *The Pastoralblatt*, *Donahoe's Magazine*, *The Catholic Reading Circle Review*, *The Rosary*, and among the college monthlies, *The Mountaineer*, of Mt. St. Mary's College, Emmitsburg, Md., *The Georgetown Journal*, of Georgetown College, D. C., and the *Fordham Monthly*.

The Catholic World was founded in the spring of 1865 by the V. Rev. Isaac T. Hecker, the founder of the Congregation of the Paulists. It stands at the head of our magazines and is improving every year.

The Messenger of the Sacred Heart was started at Woodstock, Maryland, in 1866 by the Rev. B. Sestini, S. J. It is ably conducted by the Jesuit Fathers, and is beautifully illustrated. In connection with it is issued a smaller edition called the *Pilgrim of our Lady of Martyrs*. Both of these have

for their object the promotion of love to the Sacred Heart, or the love of God incarnate.

The *Ave Maria* edited and printed at Notre Dame University, Indiana, by the Fathers of the Holy Cross, is a very prosperous religious magazine, which has for its object, besides affording instructive reading for families and individuals, the promotion of devotion and reverence to the Mother of God. It was founded in 1855 by the Rev. Father Granger of the Society of the Holy Cross.

In 1878 *Donahoe's Magazine* was founded by the aged and enterprising Patrick Donahoe, now in his eighty-third year. The magazine is rapidly growing in worth and favor.

It is well and abundantly illustrated.

The Catholic Reading Circle Review, which is THE CHAUTAUQUAN of the Catholics, was established by Mr. Warren E. Mosher at Youngstown, Ohio, in 1890. It is the organ of the Catholic Summer School which holds its sessions at Lake Champlain. It has grown steadily and is now nearly the size of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

The American Ec-

clesiastical Review is an able magazine edited at the Seminary of St. Charles Boromeo at Overbrook near Philadelphia for the use of priests. It is in Latin and English. It was started in 1883, and is now on a firm basis.

The Pastor edited by the V. Rev. John Wiseman, D. D., at Cranford, New Jersey, in 1883 was the pioneer of this kind of literature among the English speaking priests of the United States. It is now dead.

The *Pastoralblatt* is a magazine of the same nature published in German and Latin at St. Louis, Missouri, for the use of the German priests of the United States.

A magazine of the Missions is another German illustrated monthly, which



REV. PATRICK CRONIN, D. D.
Editor "Catholic Union and Times." (Buffalo, N. Y.)

is widely and very favorably known.

The Rosary is a new monthly magazine under the management of the Rev. O'Neil of the Dominican Order.

Of the departed quarterlies we have only one, and it was a great one, *Brownson's Review*. When Dr. Orestes Brownson, probably the greatest of American writers, entered the Catholic Church in 1844 he turned his *Democratic Review* into the service of the church. For twenty years he was the most bold and powerful lay champion of the faith in America. The *Review* was suspended in 1864, revived in 1873, and died in 1875. "When Dr. Brownson and all of us shall be consigned to the dust," wrote Archbishop Hughes, "those who are to succeed us will go forth among the pages of his *Catholic Review*, 'prospecting,' as they say in California, for the best diggings. Nor will they be disappointed, if they have tact and talent for profound, philosophical, literary, and religious mining."

The quarterlies at present teaching the masses are *The American Catholic Quarterly Review*, *The American Catholic Historical Researches*, *The Globe*, and a few religious magazines.

The Quarterly Review made its first appearance in our centennial year under the able management of the Rt. Rev. Monsignor



DR. ORESTES A. BROWNSON.
Editor "Brownson's Review." (Now discontinued.)

James A. Corcoran, D.D. It had among its writers in its first year such names as that of the editor, now dead, Orestes A. Brown-

son, the Rt. Rev. James O'Connor, D.D., the Rt. Rev. T. A. Becker, D.D., the Rt. Rev. P. N. Lynch, D.D., the Rev. Henry



V. REV. ISAAC T. HECKER, C. S. P.
Editor "The Catholic World." (New York.)

Formby, the Rev. Edw. McGlynn, D.D., John G. Shea, Geo. Deering Wolff, and T. W. M. Marshall. It still holds its own.

The Globe, established in Philadelphia in 1889 by William H. Thorne, is one of the most outspoken, spicy, and thought-provoking magazines in the country. Mr. Thorne, who was formerly a Presbyterian minister, is James A. MacMaster *redivivus*. There is a touch of Brownson in his pages, and his bold, honest, and original statements regarding literature, society, religion, art, and politics, cannot fail to win and hold his readers.

The name of *American Catholic Historical Researches* tells its object. It is ably conducted by Martin I. J. Griffin of Philadelphia.

The Catholic University Bulletin begins its life as a quarterly under the care of the Rev. Dr. Shahan with the new year.

To sum up, there is to-day in the United States a total of 215 Catholic serials, of which 143 are printed in English; 39 in German; 13 in French; 5 in Polish; 5 in Bohemian; 3 in English and German; 2 in Italian; 2 in Dutch; 1 in Portuguese; 1 in Slavonic; and 1 in Spanish. Of the English serials 101 are weekly papers; 36 are monthlies, principally magazines, of which 17 are the work of colleges and convents; and 6 are quarterlies. Of the

German serials, 4 are daily papers; 26 are weeklies; and 9 are magazines, of which 2 are college publications. There is one French monthly.

None of these papers, magazines, or quarterlies are the property of the church. They are all private enterprises, liable indeed to censure from the church authorities for wrong or rash teaching as long as they claim to be Catholic papers or Catholic teachers; but all financial gains as well as the risks accrue to the individual or to the stockholders. On the majority of the Catholic monthlies, notably the



RIGHT REV. MONSIGNOR JAMES A. CORCORAN, D.D.
Late Editor "The Quarterly Review." (Philadelphia.)

exclusively religious, all the literary and all the mechanical work that can be done by members of the religious order conducting them, is done gratis; and all the revenues are devoted as far as possible to the improvement of the magazine. The mag-

azine is the exponent of the life and talent of the order.

The question has often been raised, whether it would not be better to have fewer and stronger and larger papers, which would more ably represent and powerfully defend the teachings and the policy of the church. But, as in naval warfare, we are coming to the conclusion that it is better to have many inexpensive light and swift cruisers, than the few cumbersome, and very expensive ironclads, which may be annihilated by one well directed shot or torpedo;

so in the religious and moral warfare, it may be better to have many small inexpensive journals scattered everywhere throughout the country to note, answer, refute, the false statements and misrepresentations which may be met in their immediate neighborhood.

OPPOSITION.

BY CHARLES P. NETTLETON.

CAN this be well, that day by day the swell
And surge of troubles, griefs, and doubts return,
That never once may man the blessing earn
Of peace,—of peace that with him aye shall dwell?
We face each day the thoughts no thoughts can quell,
The wearying tasks whose good we cannot learn,
Nor dare to hope, howe'er the heart may yearn,
For rest this side the grave. Can this be well?

O weary soul, let nature speak to thee.
Forespent with many flights through hindering air,
A lark once prayed that air might cease to be.
Her foolish wish was granted, when, aware
Too late how opposition made her rise,
She fell to earth, no more to reach the skies.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

"QUEENS' GARDENS."

BY RUTH MORSE.

IT is to the honor of Louis XIII. that, though not a great king, he saw in Richelieu a great prime minister, and had the wisdom to place and to retain him in that office. Thus by becoming himself the effective connecting link between the real ruler and the people, he by reflected light made his own long reign one of the glorious eras in French history. A prompt recognition of talent in others and a willingness to serve in any way that will best spread abroad the influences arising from such talent, is only second best, in power of good, to being the original possessor.

The prevalent selfish idea, frequently expressed in language peculiarly befitting it, that it is derogatory to personal dignity to "play second fiddle," is one of the most belittling of the many false opinions held by men. The real position to which such thought relegates one, would demand many promotions before the "second" rank in true honor could be reached. Were it not for unbroken lines over which the initial impulses of the batteries of thought could send their powerful currents through human life, the batteries would be useless; and those who hold themselves out of such lines, refusing to be used simply as transmitters, deprive themselves as well as others of benefits.

Dr. Holland beautifully expressed this thought in one of his poems which likens the part that each one plays in simply helping on any good cause, to the work of the disciples in taking the bread from the Master's hand and passing it to the hungry multitude. In such a cause to be a disciple or the helper of a disciple even at many removes, is surely high honor.

One of the beautiful lessons to be found in the study of literature, and one repeated in endless variety, is that showing how frequently the great writers, the masters of

H-Mar.

original thought, lend themselves to the office of interpreting the writings of others, of passing on with added force, with new meaning, with increased magnetic power, in form fitted to be more directly appropriated by the multitude, their brothers' works. And one of the most fascinating studies in the world of letters is, on the one hand, to trace back these transmitted thought currents to their original sources, and, on the other hand, to try to follow them in their onward course and measure their power of helpfulness.

A curiously interesting instance of this kind is to be found in Ruskin's "Queens' Gardens." Perhaps no man ever possessed in a more marked degree the keen appreciation of the blessings and the wealth of the higher intellectual life in all of its departments, and also of the misery and utter want of harmony consequent upon their lack in the lower walks of society; and, like the loyal patriot to humanity that he is, he sprang into the breach, seeking to his utmost to facilitate a free interchange for all. From the domains of art, of science, of literature, political economy, government, practical business affairs, and teaching, he would form connections with the humble homes of the masses of the people.

In "Queens' Gardens," the thought is the education of girls, showing particularly *why* they should be educated. On the one side Ruskin saw the grand ideals of true womanly life, on the other, the meaningless, frivolous, wretched existence which lack of aspiration and inspiration produces; and he sought to link these two extremes and to give a general uplift to humanity by exciting the one to action, and reducing the other to the level of practical life and common understanding. For this purpose he calls attention to the high position which in all ages

has been accorded by leaders of thought to true womanhood. Searching out the beautiful pictures drawn in legend and drama and romance, he arranges them in a gallery where they may be readily seen, and where they will exert their influence over all beholders.

Let us make the round of Ruskin's gallery. The group occupying the highest place of honor comprises the pictures painted by Shakespeare. And the remarkable fact is pointed out that while he produced not one "entirely heroic figure" in his sketches of men, he wrote scarcely a play "that has not a perfect woman in it." And there, arranged with consummate care so as to emphasize this thought, we see Cordelia, Desdemona, Hermione, Imogen, Perdita, Viola, Virgilia, and many others. Loyal daughter, faithful wife, conscientious mother, wise sister, true friend, these relations only serve as a background on which to display inherent nobility of character. About them all there is a saving influence which lifts up out of degrading depths into pure sunshine.

Passing on we find the next group also an exceedingly interesting one. Of different type, less exalted, less ethereal, in closer touch with everyday humanity, but no whit less noble of soul, come the character portraits of Walter Scott. Again the most noticeable thing that strikes the eye in the arrangement, is the failure of his numerous subjects among the sterner sex to measure up to true heroism, only three in the whole list meeting the requirements,—Dandie Dinmont, Claver-

house, and Rob Roy. But among the women there are to be found, one after another, those who "with endless varieties of grace, tenderness, and intellectual power," shed from their own pure lives a luster which serves to lighten others out of gloom and darkness. Such are the sketches of Ellen Douglas, Flora MacIvor, Rose Bradwardine, Catherine Seyton, Diana Vernon, Lillias Redgauntlet, Alice Lee, and Jeanie Deans.

And next from the space devoted to the great Greek masters, there flashes forth from their classical representatives, illustrating many widely differing scenes, the same great truth. Womanly heroism and greatness of soul are impressed upon the features of Homer's Andromache, Cassandra, Nausicaä, and Penelope, upon the Antigone of Sophocles, the Iphigenia of Æschylus, the Alcestis of Euripides.

Dante's masterpiece, Beatrice, shows the woman who saved the author himself from destruction, from hell, and who, going to meet him, guided him over the ascents to the higher world. Further on we see, among others, Chaucer's "Good Women," and Spenser's Una, "the lovelie ladie," who is the personification of truth.

To make these masterful creations more readily available to the people at large, to point out the mission of such art in the world, and to do his utmost to make this mission a success were tasks which commanded the energy of Ruskin. Could his genius have been employed in more noble work than this?

PRINCESS BISMARCK.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

ON November 27 Princess Johanna von Bismarck was separated as regards life in this world, from her distinguished husband, to whom she had been for seven and forty years a tirelessly helpful and self-sacrificing companion.

The daughter of Lord Henry Ernst Jakob von Puttkamer and his wife Luitgarde, she was united in marriage on July 28, 1827, to

Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen. Bismarck was at that time dike-captain, scarcely heard of beyond the narrow circle of his neighbors and relations, and first gained notice here and there by his entrance into the Diet of the Prussian monarchy called together by King Frederick Wilhelm IV.

His seemingly eccentric speeches were criticised by the Conservatives as too liberal

and by the Liberals as too arrogant. But no one had a thought that the warlike, forceful young nobleman was destined to have so powerful a guiding hand in the destiny of Prussia and Germany and to turn the world's history into new and undreamed-of channels.

The new wine, which afterwards proved to be of a highly superior quality, at first gushed out wild and irrepressible, and the reckless rider, the tireless hunter, the supercilious youth, fond of extravagant, gay banquets seemed to his friends little suited for quiet domesticity and peaceful family life; among his acquaintances it was a matter of astonishment that this same wild young nobleman and the mild Miss von Puttkamer, whose pleasure lay in the narrow, cozy round of home duties, should bind themselves to each other for life.

Not long after their marriage the young couple were torn away from their pleasant retirement and the agricultural pursuits which then promised to fill their whole lives, and hurried into taking a share in the great political contest, that should move the world. Frederick Wilhelm IV. appointed Bismarck to represent Prussia in the Diet, and from that moment the giant politics laid claim *in toto* to his vital energies.

But through all the pressure of political struggle, though the person, strength, and health of Bismarck were dedicated to the affairs of his ruler and his country, there always remained to the great statesman, the quiet, peaceful home life with its comfort and recuperative harmony, the retreat to which after all the intense efforts and exhaustion attending his gigantic work, he always withdrew to gain new strength and new courage. And this retreat of the powerful servant of his country was made for him by his wife, who resisted the distracting charm and glamour of the great world in which she always occupied a high place and, for a long time, the highest place. She remained true to the

home alike in the ambassador's, minister's, and chancellor of the empire's palace, and had no other idea or aspiration than to make her husband's home a pleasant place of untroubled comfort. In this she acted both from a natural inclination for a woman's, especially a German woman's, quiet, retired, most congenial work, and from a conviction that in domestic happiness were hidden the nourishing roots of the great national hero's rejuvenating strength.

It is at once heart-stirring and pathetic to learn, from Bismarck's letters written at different times of his life, the deep joy he always took in his home and his gentle, loving respect for the companion of his life. In spite of the changes and disturbances in

his outer life, as a husband and father in his home he always remained the same, and the family circle in which he was wont to refresh his soul kept uninterruptedly its sacred peace.

"All right!" wrote young Bismarck to his sister, Mrs. von Arnim, when his engagement was settled—and this joyful "All right!" has rung through his whole married life. In his letters he usually called his wife

"My heart, my sweet-heart," and always and everywhere he thought of her. From Peterhof he sent her blooming jasmine, from South France sweetbroom, from Gastein edelweiss—and after sixteen years he hailed the wedding day as the day that had brought sunshine into his life. In the most urgent business he always found time to write to his wife, and from Biarritz he told her that he had a bad conscience from seeing so many beautiful things without her; everywhere he imparted to her his thoughts, his impressions, and even his political cares, in which the princess took an intelligent interest, much as she had, in her intercourse with the world, avoided and repelled the slightest contact with politics.

The princess was an accomplished pianist



PRINCESS BISMARCK.

but she limited the use of this as of all her talents to brighten up her home. How deeply the prince appreciated his gifted wife and her loving care of him may best be shown by the conclusion of a letter that he wrote to her at Königsberg in Pest-Ofen:

"Good-night from afar! I keep thinking of the song that has been running in my head all day:
"Over the blue mountain, over the white sea foam
Come thou beloved one, come to thy lonely home!"

With the princess, her husband's welfare and domestic happiness stood before all aspirations and dictates of ambition; at a time when the prince's health was more badly shattered than was generally supposed, she it was who urged him to throw aside the vexations of his work, and withdraw completely to the peaceful quiet of his home, and when through Professor Schweniger's skill he was again able to take up the burden of work, the princess made it her one task to watch with tireless care over the precious life of her husband, and to guard him from every harmful influence. When finally the prince

retired from business, his wife hailed with joy the quietness in store which would ensure a prolongation of his life, and was only sorry on account of the estrangement that for a while existed between him and his imperial master. Since now this shadow had been removed from her quietly flowing life, she was indeed happier in her home than ever when the roaring billows of state threatened directly to invade the sanctity of her hearth. So Germany owes Princess Bismarck gratitude and honor, for it is in no small measure due to her that the great chancellor, even in his old age, retained his vigor and warm human sympathy, which only too easily are lost by the great champions in the world's arena of history. A princely crown and the venerable ducal hat of Lauenburg adorned her head, but the most fitting ornament, to her own mind, was the silver myrtle wreath, with which in the year 1872, at the twenty-fifth anniversary of her marriage, her head was crowned and which would have been replaced in 1897 by a golden wreath.

WOMEN AMONG THE EARLY GERMANS.

BY LOUISE PROSSER BATES.

"In social organizations one of the criteria of excellence is the position of woman. Upon this depends the life of the family and the development of morality. Those nations which have gained the most enduring conquests in power and culture have conceded to woman a prominent place in social life. In Ancient Egypt, in Republican Rome, women owned property and enjoyed equal rights under the law. Where woman is enslaved, as among Australian tribes, progress is scarcely possible; where she is imprisoned, as in Mohammedan countries, progress may be rapid for a time, but is not permanent. Unusual mental ability in a man is usually inherited from his mother, and a nation which studies to prevent woman from acquiring an education and from taking an active part in affairs is preparing the way to engender citizens of inferior minds."—*Brinton*.

THESE words of Dr. Daniel G. Brinton in his "Races and Peoples" form a most appropriate introduction to a study of the position and status of women among the early Germans. In

the Germans we behold a nation who within historic times have passed from a condition of heathenism and barbarism to the foremost place in science, literature, and culture. According to Dr. Brinton's theory, then, we shall in their early history expect to find women occupying a unique position, taking an active part in the affairs of the nation, and in some degree shaping its destiny.

The earliest authentic account we have of the Germans is given by Philip of Massilia, who about 400 B. C. sailed through the Strait of Gibraltar and coasted along the Atlantic and the German Oceans. Near the mouth of the Rhine he found a nation of Teutons, afterwards with kindred nations known as Germans. The history of the early Germans extends from this time till the age of Charlemagne 814 A. D. This era is most conveniently divided into three periods. The first period extends from

Philip of Massilia to the time of Tacitus, the second from the time of Tacitus to the introduction of Christianity, the third from the introduction of Christianity to the death of Charlemagne. These periods present three types of women. We may consider these types as representing stages through which the German woman passed on her way to civilization.

The Germans, whether we consider them as coming from a home in the east of Europe and spreading westward, or whether we consider them as having their home in the west of Europe and spreading east, were confessedly the youngest children of the Aryan race. Already before leaving their early home they had advanced far beyond savagery, and had the beginnings of architecture, agriculture, law, and religion.

Our first glimpses of the German woman present her to us as almost savagely fierce. After long periods of migration which have developed in her strength and physical endurance equal to her husband's, she stands by his side, his companion in battle, the sharer of his dangers, the healer of his wounds, the mother of his children, the custodian of his property, the controlling genius of his fate. Long marches in search of new pastures and feeding grounds, a life of constant exposure, the custom of destroying weak or sickly children and adults afflicted with disease, left only women who were able to endure the hardships of a half nomadic life, and we find among them an illustrious example of the survival of the fittest. Our accounts are received mainly from historians who were warriors and refer to women as met by them only in times of war. Of a peaceful home-life, which without doubt existed though in a very primitive form, we get only faint glimpses.

About 200 B. C. the Teutons from the mouth of the Rhine, and the Cimbri from Denmark, driven out of their homes by great floods and lack of food, started south in search of new homes. Accompanied by their wives and children, cattle, and household goods they marched very slowly and about 113 B. C. invaded Roman territory. The story goes that they came sliding down

the glaciers of the Tyrolese Alps on their great white shields, a sport of which they were very fond, and defeated the Roman consul, Papirius Carbo, who went out to meet them, and to check their further advance toward Rome. Their desire was not conquest but territory, so they pushed along the western border of the Alps and settled in France and northern Spain for about ten years.

The Romans, who had been looking long and fearfully at their fierce, undesirable neighbors, had at length collected an army commanded by the famous consul, Caius Marius. He surprised the Teutons at Aquie Sextie in southern France where they were feasting, drinking, singing, and reveling about the hot springs for which the place was noted. The Teutons were nearly exterminated. "Then," says Plutarch, "the German women rushed to meet them with swords and cudgels, and flung themselves headlong among the pursuers and pursued, uttering hideous and frantic howls. The Germans they drove back as cowards, the Romans they attacked as enemies, mingling with the battle, beating down the swords of the Romans, with bare hands grasping the bare blades, and with courage dauntless to the death, allowed themselves to be hacked to pieces rather than yield."

Withdrawing his army across the Alps, Marius met the Cimbrians the next year at Vercelli, where they were awaiting Teutones. "The Cimbrians," Strabo says, "like the Teutones, were accompanied to war by their women, among whom were gray-haired prophetesses, with white vestments, with canvas mantles fastened by clasps, a brazen girdle and naked feet. These go with drawn swords through the camp, and striking down those of the prisoners they meet, drag them to a brazen kettle, holding about twenty amphoræ. This has a kind of stage above it, ascending on which the priestess cuts the throats of the victims, and from the way in which the blood flows into the kettle judges the future event."

When Marius met the Cimbrians they were drawn up in a square, the sides of which were nearly three miles long. In the center were their wagons, which served

as a fortress for the women and children, guarded by the women. The Germans were defeated, but the women, dressed in black, with their long fair hair disheveled, killed those who fled, their fathers, brothers, and sons, as well as the pursuing enemy. When they found that further resistance was useless, they petitioned Marius to allow them to enter the ranks of the Vestal Virgins, hoping thus to avoid the indignities heaped upon captive women. Upon his refusal to grant their request, they threw their children under the hoofs of the horses and under the chariot wheels, strangled or hung themselves by their long fair hair to the chariot poles, preferring death to dishonor.

These prophetesses who accompanied the armies had great power over the German minds. Cæsar took advantage of this fact when forty years later he made war upon Ariovistus. For several days in succession Cæsar had offered battle to the Suevi, and was astounded that they refused to leave their stronghold. At length deserters informed him that the priestesses foretold disaster to the Germans if they engaged in battle before the full moon. Hearing this, Cæsar made an immediate attack and defeated them.

These German priestesses influenced not only their own countrymen, but were a source of superstitious dread to the Romans as well. It is told of the Roman general, Drusus, that about 10 B. C. he made a campaign against the Germans. When he reached the Elbe he saw standing on the opposite bank a prophetess of gigantic stature, who with uplifted arms exclaimed, "O, unsatiable Drusus, to what do you aspire? Fate has forbidden your advance further into our unknown regions. Fly hence." Stricken with terror he turned and fled, his horse fell under him, and he was killed.

The power which a German prophetess wielded may be seen when in A. D. 69, for one brief moment the Gauls threw off the Roman yoke in an insurrection led by Civilis. His associate and counselor was Velleda, a wise woman who dwelt in the depths of the Bructerian Forest. She had been chosen with Civilis to decide an important question of

state. She was also umpire in civil disputes. In order that greater reverence might be felt for her, messengers were not allowed to see her face, but questions and answers were carried by one of her relatives. Velleda had prophesied defeat to the Roman soldiers and Civilis finding his people anxious to throw off the Roman yoke united the tribes for battle. Behind the line of battle he placed his mother and sisters, the wives and children of all his soldiers. In the advance to battle the women united in the war songs with the men and urged them on to brave deeds. If the tide of battle turned against the Germans, the women often rallied them by holding up their children and entreating them not to allow their wives and children to become slaves to the enemy. If they fled, their wives put them to death that they might still have a home in Valhalla. If they conquered, the women dressed their wounds and honored them still more.

Civilis believed that the presence of these women was a great incitement to victory. He engaged in battle with the Romans and came off conqueror. In return for her services, Velleda received the most valuable part of the booty, a Roman trireme among other things. The Romans afterwards tried to win her favor so that she would influence her people in their behalf. Their efforts were fruitless, and she was carried with Civilis a prisoner to Rome.

The woman who stands foremost in the history of this period, whose destiny is most closely linked with that of the German nation, and whose cruel fate led to the final liberation of her race, was Thusnelda, celebrated in legend and story. She was the daughter of Segestes, a chief of the Cherusci, a friend of the Romans. Her brother Segimund had been a priest at one of the Roman temples, but he had revolted and was in disgrace with his father and the Romans. According to the custom of the times her father sold her in betrothal to one of his friends. Her heart had been given, however, irrevocably to her cousin Herrmann, called by the Romans Arminius. Herrmann was the son of Segimar, also a Cheruscan prince, a handsome, athletic youth, skilled in the art

of war, which he had learned from the Romans, who had conferred upon him the honor of knighthood in return for his military services. Taking advantage of a more ancient custom where wives were gained by capture rather than by purchase, he took possession of Thusnelda one day as she was walking in the forest, carried her away, and married her. Thusnelda is described in German legends as large, fair and handsome, noble-hearted, patriotic, and devotedly attached to her husband.

The governor of Gaul at this time was Varus. He was an able and learned man, but he tried to force Roman civilization on the Gauls. The Germans became restive and rebellious, and waited only for a leader strong enough to unite them to throw off the Roman yoke. Such a leader appeared in Herrmann, a young warrior of twenty-five, gifted with eloquence, and inspired with an enthusiastic love of liberty. Encouraged by the sympathy of his patriotic wife and his mother, he secretly collected an army. Segestes in revenge for the capture of Thusnelda disclosed the plot to Varus, who refused to believe him. War ensued, and Varus with his legions was completely destroyed.

Herrmann was then preparing to organize the tribes into a nation, a union in which lay their only salvation. Jealousies arose. His bitterest enemy was Segestes, his father-in-law, who succeeded in taking him and his wife captive. Herrmann escaped and set about forming a new union of the tribes to overthrow the power of Segestes and liberate Thusnelda. Segestes sent his son Segismund to Germanicus to pray for assistance and surrendered to him his beautiful daughter Thusnelda as a captive. Concealed in an old fort in the forest, pet geese announced to her by their cackling the coming of an enemy.

Tacitus gives a graphic account of the surrender. When Thusnelda was brought out to the Roman soldiers, he says:—

"In her deportment no traces appeared of her father's character. She breathed the spirit of her husband. Not a tear was seen

to start, no supplicating tone was heard. She stood in thoughtful silence, her hands strained close to her bosom, her eyes cast down. 'For my son and the errors of his youth I am humbly suppliant,' spoke Segestes; 'my daughter indeed appears before you by necessity, not by her own wish, I acknowledge it. It is yours to decide which ought to have the more influence, her husband or her father. She is with child by Arminius, but she sprang from me.'"

Segestes was protected and rewarded with lands and honors for his perfidy. The beautiful, unfortunate Thusnelda was carried to Ravenna, where her child was born and named Thumelicus. He was educated by the Romans as a gladiator. When the child was three years old, Thusnelda, with little Thumelicus clinging to her skirts, graced the triumphal procession of Germanicus, the only trophies left of his terrible conflict with Arminius. Her father, unmoved by her fate, saw her pass by him in the procession.

Arminius, frantic at the loss of his beloved wife and the child he was destined never to see, roused the Germans once more to arms. His rallying cry was, "Shall we allow the Romans, a nation base enough to carry off our wives and unborn children, to rule us?" He succeeded in so crippling the force of Germanicus that a remnant only barely escaped with their lives. He died at the age of thirty-five but is still revered as the liberator of Germany.

So much for the German women before the time of Tacitus. We find them physically strong, brave, courageous, wise, and capable. They were most loyal and devoted to their husbands and fervently religious. That they had homes, very primitive, and domestic duties we may be sure, for Cæsar mentions a kind of farming carried on by women. Their portraits are drawn for us, however, by historians and soldiers on the lookout for the marvelous and the unusual, and their womanly characteristics are omitted or overlooked. It is not till the time of Tacitus a hundred years later that we get an insight into their domestic life.

(To be continued.)

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

A SPECIAL STATEMENT.

THROUGH my own carelessness there remained in the Sunday Readings for January two paragraphs which contain what I regard as erroneous teachings and which seriously mar the otherwise unique and effective putting of an old and orthodox doctrine. I sincerely regret this mishap.

JOHN H. VINCENT.

Tuscaloosa, Ala.

Jan. 28, 1895.

CATHOLIC JOURNALISM.

THE current literature of the Catholic Church in this country will make a very profitable study for all Protestants. A great many people have been educated to think that the Catholics are an ignorant people who read but little and that they are not friendly to literature; and that it is the order of the church to keep its people in ignorance by teaching them not to read and by denying to them the privileges of education.

The article in this impression of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* by Father Dunn will be a surprise to people accustomed to think of the Catholic Church after this fashion. Indeed, there is not a Protestant Church in the United States but may covet the gifts of enterprise and the spirit of progress which characterize the management of journalism in this great body of people. *The Catholic Pilot* of Chicago, a weekly publication furnished at one dollar a year, has a circulation of 35,000 copies. In New York City is issued *The American Catholic News* at one dollar a year with a weekly circulation of 152,000 copies. These remarkable achievements in journalism are not paralleled by any periodicals as to price and circulation in any branch of the Protestant Church.

It is more surprising when we consider that there are two hundred and fifteen

different publications in this country representing the Catholic Church, though not officially connected with it, and four of them are daily papers. A daily paper is not published in the interest of any Protestant Church in the United States. One's interest is heightened in current Catholic literature in reading of the large number of Catholic monthlies, bi-monthlies, and quarterlies mentioned in Father Dunn's essay.

The Catholic Review of Brooklyn, N. Y., January 27, in commenting upon our article on "Journalism in the Methodist Episcopal Church," makes this statement:

"The Catholic Church in the United States has officially not one cent invested in journalism, for all publications in its interest are the property of individual religious orders or congregations, priests and laymen."

The press of the Catholic Church is powerful, aggressive, and numerically strong. Of course it is Catholic, loyal to the Roman Catholic Church, speaking for its various organizations, interpreting its doctrines, and holding firmly to its church polity.

Catholics are quick to match every movement made by Protestants for the extension of their church. To-day they have their summer school at Plattsburg on Lake Champlain. It was organized after the plan of Chautauqua, to which place there came three Catholic priests who studied very closely the Chautauqua organization and carried ideas home which they put into their summer Catholic school. We see the extension of this plan in the West, for at Madison, Wisconsin, they will hold a session of the Summer Catholic Chautauqua school in July next.

This is an innovation in Catholic customs. It means the Catholic education of Catholic people in the grove, in the open air, in the summer time, just as Protestant people congregate at more than sixty Chautauqua Assemblies in different parts of the country every summer to enjoy out-door recreation, to hear lectures, and to engage in serious study.

The *Catholic Reading Circle* is designed to educate Catholics, parents and children, by a colligible and methodical course of readings prepared by their bishops, priests, and laymen. Can it be an effort to fortify Catholic homes and especially the individual members of the Catholic Church against the encroachments of the Chautauqua system of popular education? It is with cheerfulness we count them welcome to all the plans on the Chautauqua trestle board for conducting the *new education*, because, from the tap root to the tips of the branches, it is an American creation and it will help to Americanize all who use it.

A good many Catholics read *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* and the Chautauqua books in this country and have been doing it for more than a decade. The Catholic people now propose to have their own course of study, and their own literature for the popular education of their people with the stamp of the Catholic Church upon it. It shows that their leaders are alert, and easily aroused to action by any movement which they think is a menace to the doctrines and institutions of their church.

There came from the Vatican last month the encyclical of Pope Leo, addressed to the archbishops and bishops in the United States. This is one of its bugle blasts. Let the captains in Protestantism ponder it:

Since the thirst for reading and knowledge is so vehement and widespread among you, and since, according to circumstances, it can be productive either of good or evil, every effort should be made to increase the number of intelligent and well-disposed writers who take religion for their guide and virtue for their constant companion. And this seems all the more necessary in America, on account of the familiar intercourse and intimacy between Catholics and those who are estranged from the Catholic name. It is necessary to instruct, strengthen, and urge them on to the pursuit of virtue and to the faithful observance, amid so many occasions of stumbling, of their duties toward the church.

No man can deny to another the privilege of freedom of action, because we all have large liberty in these matters under the Declaration of Independence and the constitution of the United States.

The original Chautauqua on Chautauqua Lake was founded on the King James version of the Bible. This, without any attempt to define what any particular church

believes, or should believe, was the broad basis of the Chautauqua Movement and these were the mottoes adopted for all our students:

"We study the Word and the Works of God,"

"Let us keep our Heavenly Father in the midst."

The whole Chautauqua superstructure stands securely on this foundation to-day and all Chautauqua literature is loyal to the revealed Word of God.

The article on "Journalism in the Catholic Church" is one in the series of articles we are publishing on journalism in the different churches of the country, and we believe that from it some suggestions may be gathered for the management of papers in Protestant Churches at a lower price, which will be within the reach of the poor people and which will increase their opportunities for education in matters pertaining to the Kingdom of God.

THE VALUE OF RETROSPECT.

WHEN William Wirt put into the mouth of Patrick Henry the famous sentence: "I have no way of judging the future but by the past," he formulated an expression of what is perhaps the largest fact in true moral and intellectual growth. What has been may perchance not be again; but the meanings of things accomplished are the interpretation of things being accomplished.

Experience may, in a given case, be no more than a tallow dip shining against the widening and deepening darkness of the future's abyss, and yet we must use it or perish. We change our point of view at every step of progress and so change the relations of things; but in the past, near and far, glimmer a million analogies, similarities, and cognate conditions by which the wise soul rectifies its impressions and steadies its judgment.

Nature, although teeming with surprises, never quite breaks away from law; and by reaching back into the past for information we are continually bringing up elemental verities by which even the most complex exigencies are reduced to a manageable con-

dition and relieved of all their refractory and repellent characteristics. What has been called the "increment of experience," may be more simply named the profit of a share in the past.

Even plants greedily take up and assimilate that which is left to them from the destruction of former vegetable organisms, thus blindly but surely fulfilling the law of life which ordains that the residuary mold of past generations shall be the richest soil for the roots of those which follow. But we are not blind like the plants; we can see how symmetry of growth was hindered by certain conditions and we can, in the light of the past, choose our soil, climate, and environment.

There are certain evidences in the open registers of life to-day pointing to a danger as deep and as wide as the social influence itself, a danger which if not presently checked and destroyed will drive the world into one of those cataclysms with which historians round their sonorous periods and in which all the gains of a system of civilization garnered by a slow and safe economy are lost in riot and the lawless luxury of social irresponsibility.

The sophomore's habit of pointing to Greece and Rome when he wishes to make a telling stroke with his essay is not wholly bad. If Greece and Rome fell, and their forms of civilization with them, it was not because their integrity had not once been adequate, but because their integrity was lost; moral cohesion failed them when moral purpose vanished. Upon their decay we built up a new life; we have flourished wonderfully; we have grown enormously rich and stupendously self-confident. The old fixed stars of verity seem no longer necessary in navigating the splendid ocean of life. It was even so toward the close of Grecian glory and Roman grandeur. Men did not look toward heaven to see what

position their goings and comings placed them in with reference to the unalterable sun of duty and the old constellations of immitigable certainties.

We might pause now and again to profit by a survey of the past, and to make our reckonings, as good mariners do, by observations of the fixed brilliant point in the sky. And even a wreck lying broken and old on the rocks of temptation might be worth taking a note of, as we rush past it on our way to more dangerous if apparently less barren reefs.

We say that science is broadening our vision and enlarging our knowledge of ways and means; and so it is; but are we growing wiser with our knowledge? By what criterion shall we measure in order to discover our real proportions? The past, always the past. If we are to overcome finally the heights against which Grecian cleverness and Roman strength were in vain leveled, our wisdom as well as our science must be greater than theirs.

And this is the true meaning, this the true scope of genuine education: the assimilation of experiences; not only our own, but the experiences of all mankind in all ages, to the end that what has hurt mankind shall not hurt again, what has tempted to evil shall tempt no more, and that which proving wholesome and good, has withstood the test of all the centuries shall be strengthened in us by a new growth of righteous living and send fresh vigor into future generations.

It is very easy to say that the past, being overpast, is but the shard of Time flung by the way, dropped as a beetle drops its wing-covers in death; yet what else have we with which to make those comparisons necessary to every rectification of manners, morals, economics? Retrospect is indeed the only prospect. We cannot see the future, save as we catch fine reflections of it thrown back against the sky of the past.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

DEATH OF LORD RANDOLPH CHURCHILL.



LORD RANDOLPH CHURCHILL.

LORD RANDOLPH CHURCHILL, one of the prominent figures in English political history, died at his home in London on January 24. He was the second son of the Duke of Marlborough and was born at Blenheim on February 13, 1849. He was educated at Merton College, Oxford, where he took his degree in 1871 and almost immediately entered public life, being shortly after elected a member of the House of Commons from Woodstock, which he represented from 1874 to 1880 when he was again returned by a slightly decreased majority serving for the same constituency until 1885. Later he contested Birmingham against John Bright but was defeated, finally being returned to Parliament from South Paddington. During the first four years of his service in Parliament he kept very much in reserve but suddenly sprang into prominence in 1880 at the time of the waning power of the Conservatives, by a series of notable speeches delivered in Parliament and on the stump against the Liberal party and in which he pointed the shafts of audacious criticism at the leaders of his own party. In 1885 Lord Salisbury's government came into power and Lord Randolph Churchill was appointed to the post of secretary of state for India, a pronounced recognition of his importance as a leader of the Conservatives. The belief prevailed quite generally that he was the real leader of the Tory Democracy upon whom had fallen the mantle of Lord Beaconsfield. His tenure of office did not long continue however, for in November of the same year the Liberals were returned to power and he retired with Lord Salisbury only to return in six months as chancellor of the exchequer and leader of the House of Commons, but to the surprise of all he resigned office before the expiration of another half year. Lord Churchill visited the United States last summer and from here continued to the westward on a trip around the world in search of good health, which he had not enjoyed for many years prior to his death. His final breakdown occurred in December when he returned to England. Lord Churchill is survived by his widow and two sons. Lady Churchill is a daughter of the late Leonard Jerome of New York.

The Star. (London, England.)

Lord Randolph Churchill was an audacious and splendid fighter. He was the only man since Disraeli who was able to make Toryism interesting; but he was unable to harness his fiery talents to the Administration car. Hence he left behind him only the reputation of an adventurer.

The Globe. (London, England.)

Lord Randolph Churchill possessed in the fullest measure a magnetic charm which cannot be acquired. He was a born leader of men, and was destined for the highest position until his health, which was never strong, broke down under the strain of ceaseless toil and excitement.

Philadelphia Enquirer. (Pa.)

His death of Lord Randolph Churchill has brought to an untimely end a career which at one time promised to make the man who was leading it a figure in English history. Without the vices that have marked the descendants of the victor of Blenheim, he achieved an early triumph as a public leader and was a power in the affairs of Great Britain. He

had all the qualities which command success; he was brilliant, versatile, amiable, self-confident and keen of perception, besides having an oratorical ability which is rare amongst English statesmen of to-day, and being a debater of exceptional skill. At the age of 36 he had passed from simple membership in the House of Commons to the successive posts of leader of a wing of the Tory party, secretary of state for India, and chancellor of the exchequer; and there were many people who believed that he would reach as great a height as a statesman as did Beaconsfield. Then, suddenly, he resigned his office.

His services were of great value to the English Conservative party, which has always needed a popular following and support. These things he gave to it. The people looked upon him as brave even to recklessness, and one who would lead a movement which appealed to his emotion or sentiment with as much abandon and unselfish devotion as the six hundred charged at Balaklava. Qualities such as these aroused enthusiasm and helped to secure success for the Conservative party, and not only the English, but the American people can feel regret for his untimely end.

* This department, together with the book, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. Course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

DEATH OF JUDGE E. ROCKWOOD HOAR.



JUDGE E. ROCKWOOD HOAR.

JUDGE E. ROCKWOOD HOAR, whose death occurred at his home in Concord, Mass., on January 31, was a statesman of the old school whose eminent abilities were drawn into the public service frequently and honorably during a long and active career. In the same village he was born February 21, 1816. He was graduated from Harvard College in 1835 and from the Harvard law school in 1839 being admitted to the bar in the same year. In 1846 he was elected to the Massachusetts State Senate. He served as a judge of the Court of Common Pleas from 1849 to 1855 and for the ten years ending in 1869 he sat on the supreme bench. For nearly a quarter of a century Judge Hoar was a member of the Board of Overseers of Harvard College and for about ten years he acted as president of the Board. He was honored with the degree of LL.D. by two colleges, Williams and Harvard. Judge Hoar filled the position of attorney general of the United States from 1869 to 1870 in the Cabinet of President Grant, and he was one of the distinguished members of the joint high commission which negotiated the treaty between the United States and Great Britain in 1871 permanently settling the treaty of Washington and disposing of a number of seriously controverted questions between the two nations. In 1872 he was a presidential elector at large and represented a Massachusetts District in the Forty-third Congress as a Republican. Judge Hoar was a brother of United States Senator George F. Hoar, of Massachusetts.

Boston Post. (Mass.)

Massachusetts loses one of her foremost citizens in the death of the Hon. E. Rockwood Hoar. His life has been long and eventful; and it is to be measured not only by its four-score years, but by great and honorable service to the state and the nation.

Judge Hoar, indeed, was one of the best products of Massachusetts in that which has been called its chief industry—the raising of men. He possessed vigor of mind and body, strength of will, great learning and broad judgment, and withal an intellectual force and a native sagacity which made him a power in whatever field of work his services were employed.

As legislator, judge, cabinet adviser, diplomat intrusted with momentous interests, and as private citizen, he commanded respect and won admiration.

The days of Judge Hoar's public activity have been some time past. But the record of his life has not been forgotten.

The Sun. (New York.)

The death of E. Rockwood Hoar, a brother of Senator Hoar and one of General Grant's attorneys-general, calls attention to the fact that of the twenty-one members of President Grant's Cabinets, not counting Mr. Washburne and his twelve days as secretary of state, Mr. A. T. Stewart, Gen. Sherman as secretary of war, or James W. Marshall as postmaster-general, nine survive, viz.: George S. Boutwell, William A. Richardson, and Benjamin H. Bristow, secretaries of the treasury; James Donald Cameron, secretary of war; Jacob Dolson Cox and Columbus Delano, secretaries of the interior; George M. Robeson, secretary of the navy; James N. Tyner, postmaster-general, and George H. Williams, attorney-general. Of these Judge Richardson of the Court of Claims and Senator Cameron are now in public life. Mr. Boutwell and Judge Tyner are practising law in Washington, Gen. Bristow in New York, Mr. Robeson in New Jersey, and Judge Williams in Oregon.

SUNDAY OPENING OF SALOONS IN NEW YORK.

THE stand recently taken by the mayor of New York City on the question of the Sunday opening of saloons has provoked general and intense discussion. At a conference held in the mayor's office with a committee representing the Liquor Dealers' Central Association of New York, Mayor Strong said substantially that the present excise laws and regulations prohibiting the sale of liquor on Sunday could not be successfully enforced and that they should be made more liberal. In the published record of the conference Mayor Strong's remarks to the liquor dealers are reported as follows: "Now, the fact is that you are prosecuting a business which is just as legitimate as any other, and you should be protected in your rights, which are well defined by the law. Now, you must consider there is scarcely any business enterprise in the city which is prosecuted more than six days in the week. You have it in your own hands to help me in an effort to secure a fair and just regulation of your business. The point which we are aiming at is a proper regulation of the business in which you are engaged. Where laws exist they should be enforced, but if they are not proper laws they should be amended.

"Personally, I would like to see the saloons closed on Sunday, but I realize that I alone am not to be considered and that others have rights. Now, if I were you, I would get together and agree on some policy, some plan for the regulation of the conduct of your business on Sundays—for instance, sales between 2 and 11 p. m."

The effect of the publication of these remarks was to create the impression that Mayor Strong had semi-officially authorized the violation of the present law by suggesting that a plan might be adopted whereby the saloons could remain open from 2 to 11 p. m. on Sunday and that he had promised immunity to those acting in strict conformity to this plan. Indeed the liquor dealers drew this direct conclusion from the mayor's conversation and began immediately to make preparations for the opening of their saloons on Sunday afternoons accordingly. Mayor Strong, however, very promptly and emphatically disapproved of any such interpretation of his remarks. In a subsequent interview he is quoted as saying:

"I did not intend to be understood as consenting to any plan for opening liquor stores in violation of law. I distinctly said that I could promise no immunity if the law was violated. I want the expression of public opinion on this question of Sunday liquor selling, and that is what I wished to impress on the committee."

The action of Mayor Strong immediately raised a storm of protests. He was visited by many delegations representing various church and reform organizations and received hundreds of letters disapproving his ideas, while public meetings have been held addressed by Christian ministers and many reform leaders, their purpose being the absolute condemnation of any plan which does not absolutely prohibit by law the sale of liquor on the Sabbath Day. In addition Mayor Strong is severely criticised by many for even entering into any conference with the liquor dealers. Meanwhile the matter of amending the excise laws is receiving the attention of the New York State Legislature, various measures having been introduced. It is predicted that a bill will be passed providing in some form that the question of permitting Sunday liquor selling shall be submitted to a popular vote of the people. This would give an opportunity to test public sentiment on the question which the advocates of new excise legislation declare is not now strong enough to justify the strict enforcement of the present law prohibiting the opening of saloons on Sunday.

(*Dem.*) *The World.* (New York, N. Y.)

The mayor knows, for the dealers frankly admitted the fact, that the present excise law is neither observed nor enforced. Any honest police official will tell him that it cannot be enforced.

More than one million of the population of the city, or two thirds of the total, are of foreign birth or parentage. These are for the most part accustomed to drink beer, wine or liquor on Sunday the same as on other days. They are not more intemperate or irreligious on the average than the native population, a large proportion of whom are not teetotalers. They are entitled to have their individual rights and their customs and habits, when not subversive of public order, respected in the laws. Especially is this true concerning the great mass of poor people when the clubs, the hotels and private wine cellars enable the rich to gratify their tastes on all days alike.

(*Rep.*) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

Mayor Strong may not be diplomatic, but he is better than that—he is frankness personified. This was made evident at an interview which he had with a delegation of ladies who visited the City Hall to protest against the opening of saloons on Sunday. Colonel Strong informed his callers that none of them were more devoted than he to Sunday observance, and declared his purpose of establishing a better law than the present one, if possible. He begged for the co-operation of the ladies and of all the clergymen of the city. "I propose, if I can," he said, "to get the retail liquor dealers on some ground that will please you and everybody else." Many will believe that the mayor is taking too large a contract; but credit will be given him for excellent intentions.

Bonfort's Wine and Spirit Circular. (New York, N. Y.)

Of course it is regarded as astounding by prohibitionists and other fanatics. All liberal measures are. It seems curious, though, that the worthy, or unworthy, ministers of the gospel do not understand that they are betraying the weakness of their position by inveighing against open barrooms on Sunday. If people wanted to go to church they would go though an open barroom were on either side. If they do not want to go they will not, under any circumstances, and if they want a drink on Sunday we may be sure that some way will be found to get it. If the churches had the influence which they would have us believe they have they would be in no fear of barrooms. All they have to do is to make the service attractive enough—more attractive than the barroom—and the question would be solved. If they cannot do this then it seems to us that they have no right to demand that barrooms be closed simply because these furnish more enjoyment to the people than do the churches.

(*Dem.*) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

Mayor Strong's belief that the Sunday liquor question can be best settled by opening the saloons on Sunday between the hours of 2 in the afternoon and 11 at night has aroused violent opposition among the temperance people. One clergyman described it yesterday as a novel and astounding suggestion on the part of the mayor. It may have been astounding, but there is nothing novel about an arrangement that has been in force in European cities for a century or more. In London they still believe that drunkards can be reformed by enacting laws, but the movement which has been started in that city, and which is indorsed by many prominent clergymen and

statesmen, looks to the establishment of a Sunday liquor law precisely like that outlined by Mayor Strong and now in force generally throughout Europe. (*Baptist.*) *The Examiner.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

To permit the opening of the saloons on the Lord's Day would introduce a new element of disorder and desecration, where far too much exists already. Let all good men seek, rather, the more rigid enforcement of the laws as they exist, and the creation of a public sentiment that will make better laws possible, instead of weakly yielding to the clamor of the worst elements of society for larger liberty to destroy all that we have left of our precious American Sunday.

(*Evang.*) *The Outlook.* (*New York, N. Y.*)

We do not believe that a majority of our citizens

are in favor of open barrooms for tippling and loafing during any part of Sunday. We are certain that all the churches—Catholic as well as Protestant—would join in an unending fight against such an evil. We may be mistaken in our belief respecting the moral sense of the majority; but if we are mistaken, we want it demonstrated at the polls. And, in the name of all that is fair, we demand that if a law is to be passed giving cities the right to open the saloons on Sunday, it shall give to all places the right to close them throughout the week. Let us have local option, but let all communities be given the right to restrict the evils of the saloon as well as to extend them.

AN APPALLING OCEAN DISASTER.



CAPTAIN VON GOESSEL.

WHAT was the greatest ocean disaster incident to transatlantic travel known for a generation and one of the most appalling in maritime history occurred at six o'clock on the morning of January 30 when the North German Lloyd steamship *Elbe* was sent to the bottom of the North Sea, fifty miles off Lowestoft on the English coast carrying with her 316 of her ship's company. Bound from Bremen for New York the *Elbe* was en route to Southampton. Almost without any warning, while pursuing her course through a rough sea amid half a gale the great ship was struck amidships by a smaller craft, the British steamer *Crathie*, bound from Rotterdam to Aberdeen. According to the press dispatches, based on the reports of the handful of survivors, the morning of the collision was unusually dark. "Numerous lights were seen in all directions, showing that many vessels were near by. The captain ordered, therefore, that rockets should be sent up at regular intervals to warn the craft to keep out of the *Elbe's* course. It was near to six o'clock, and the *Elbe* was some fifty miles off Lowestoft, when the lookout man sighted a steamer of small dimensions approaching. He gave the word, and, as a precaution, the number of rockets was doubled, and they were sent up at short intervals. The warning was without effect. The steamer came on with unchecked speed, and before the *Elbe* could change her course or reduce her speed notably, there was the terrific crash of the collision. The *Elbe* was hit abaft her engine room. When the smaller steamer wrenched away, an enormous hole was left in the *Elbe's* side. The water poured through and down into the engine room in a cataract. The room filled almost instantly. The engines were still, and the big hulk began to settle." At the time of the collision all but a very few of the passengers were in bed. Immediately following the crash a panic ensued as the passengers surged on deck although many were doubtless killed in their berths. Captain von Goessel ordered the life-boats to be lowered, three of which were got alongside after much difficulty. The seas were breaking with great force over the side of the *Elbe* and the first boat filled with men and women capsized before it got fairly away from the ship. To this boat a young woman clung until she was picked up by the second boat which bore away the only survivors of the disaster. The occupants of this boat saw another launched in which there were about twenty people but its fate is unknown. After being tossed about in the heavy seas for several hours the second boat was sighted by the fishing smack *Wild Flower* which immediately bore down, took the survivors on board and conveyed them to Lowestoft. The last order heard by any survivor was that given by the captain, who went down with the ship, directing the women and children to go to the undamaged side of the *Elbe* from where the most boats were being lowered. The survivors saw the *Elbe* gradually settle and disappear from view. The steamer *Crathie* reached Maasslins on the evening of January 30 in a sinking condition her captain reporting that the damage done his craft made it impossible to aid in rescuing the company of the *Elbe*.

The enormity of the tragedy, for such it was, is plainly evidenced by the fearful loss of life. The ship's company consisted of 187 passengers and the officers and crew numbering 149 making a total of 336 souls on board, of whom but 20 were saved. Of these 5 were passengers, and the remaining 15 were of the officers and crew. But one woman was among the survivors.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

A great disaster like the wreck of the steamship *Elbe* stirs the imagination and awakens sympathy for the drowned passengers and crew and for their relatives and friends who read the news that, in the twinkling of an eye, loved ones have found a grave in the sea; but it also leads to the reflection that there is very seldom such news to record. Voyages by sea have been rendered remarkably safe within recent years. Scores upon scores of steamships cross the Atlantic weekly yet there is seldom an accident or loss of life. It is true that in a period of fifty years nearly one hundred steamships have been lost, but that is a very small proportion when voyages, not ships, are considered. Statisticians have figured up a loss of less than 6,000 lives by shipwreck in the Atlantic service in fifty years, and, though that number is great, it is relatively small, for as many are sometimes carried safely into New York in a single day. The loss of life is made impressive chiefly because it is concentrated, a single shipwreck carrying down hundreds of men and women, and, though the dangers attending sea voyages ought to be recognized, the relative immunity of voyages from danger should not be forgotten.

Boston Post. (Mass.)

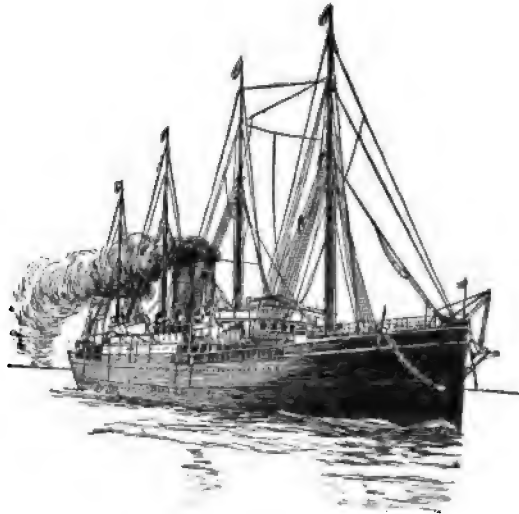
The loss of the *Elbe*, with its terrible death roll, adds another to the long list of ocean disasters that are happily growing more infrequent, despite the increase in ocean travel and the increase in speed of the ocean greyhounds.

The rough North Sea, ambushed behind fog banks fierce with sudden storms, has claimed as its victims many of our finest ocean liners. The choppy English Channel is a strong ally of the North Sea. The Guion line alone has lost five large steamers—the *Chicago*, the *Colorado*, the *Montana*, the *Dakota*, and the *Idaho*—all of them going down between Fastnet and Liverpool.

Awful as is the reported loss of life on board the ill-fated *Elbe*, there have been far worse disasters in the days when passenger lists were much smaller.

From 1838, when the *Sirius* made her first trip across the ocean, till 1879, 144 steamers were lost in the transatlantic trade alone. The *President* was the first to steam away into some dim unknown, never to

be heard from again. Then Neptune seems to have been temporarily satisfied, for only one accident is reported for thirteen years in transatlantic passage—that of the Cunarder *Columbia*, which went ashore in 1843. Only one life was lost.



THE ELBE.

In 1854, however, there came two dark disasters. The *City of Glasgow* steamed out into a foggy Atlantic with 480 souls aboard, and no one of them ever was heard of again.

It was in the same year that the *Arctic*, of the Collins line, was sunk in collision with the steamer *Vesta*, during a dense fog off Cape Race. The death roll footed the grim total of 562 dead. Two years later, the *Pacific*, of the same line, disappeared mysteriously, and no one of the 186 persons on

board escaped to tell the story. Between 1857 and 1864 the Allen line lost nine fine vessels. The following year witnessed the burning at sea of the *Austria*, with a loss of 471 lives.

In 1870, the *City of Boston* sailed from New York with 200 passengers on board, and was swallowed up in the hungry maw of the Atlantic.

One dark, stormy night in April, 1873, the White Star steamer *Atlantic* ran ashore near Sambro and 560 lives went out in the dark.

Next comes the wreck of the German steamer *Schiller* on the Scilly Rocks, when 200 lives were lost in the cruel waters. Shortly after this the North Sea pounced upon one of the sister ships to the *Elbe*—the *Deutschland*. This time 157 lives were sacrificed to the North Sea. The wreck took place not far from the scene of the *Elbe* disaster.

Note must be taken of the sinking through collision of the Hamburg-American steamer *Pomerania* by which fifty lives were lost; of a similar disaster to the *Cimbria* of the same line, with a loss of 84 lives, and yet of another collision, which sent the beautiful *Ville du Havre*, of the French line, to the bottom of the English Channel with 230 souls.

The ramming of the *Victoria* by the *Camperdown* and the consequent loss of 400 British sailors cannot be passed by without mention, though it is not classed with transatlantic disasters.

No line in existence has been wholly free from calamity. No line has escaped the day when white faces and trembling voices have besieged its offices asking piteously for the news which never comes.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE CHAUTAUQUA TRUSTEES.

THE 23rd annual meeting of the Board of Trustees of the Chautauqua Assembly was held in Cincinnati, Ohio, January 23. The reports of the several Chautauqua officers were presented and all indicated that the institution has had a successful year. Many plans were discussed for the work of the new year, announcements of which will be made at seasonable times in the near future. The following sixteen of the twenty-four members of the Board attended the meeting: Hon. Lewis Miller, Akron, Ohio; Bishop John H. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mr. Robert A. Miller, Canton, Ohio; Dr. W. A. Duncan, Syracuse, N. Y.; Mr. E. A. Skinner, Westfield, N. Y.; Dr. W. R. Harper, Chicago, Ill.; Mr. Wm. Thomas, Meadville, Pa.; Hon. Jesse Smith, Titusville, Pa.; the Rev. N. I. Rubinkam, Chicago; Mr. F. H. Rockwell, Warren, Pa.; Mr. W. M. Clark, Liberty, Indiana; Mr. W. T. Dunn, Pittsburg; the Rev. Dr. J. T. Edwards, Baltimore, Md.; the Rev. Dr. W. G. Williams, St. Louis, Mo.; Mr. C. D. Firestone, Columbus, Ohio, and the Rev. Dr. H. H. Moore, Chautauqua, N. Y. Mr. Frederick W. Hyde of Jamestown, N. Y., was elected to fill the vacancy in the Board of Trustees caused by the death of Mr. Edmund Ocumpaugh of Rochester, N. Y. The following Board of Officers were re-elected for the ensuing year: President, Lewis Miller, Akron, Ohio; Chancellor, John H. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y.; First Vice President, Clem Studebaker, South Bend, Ind.; Second Vice President, Robert Miller, Canton, Ohio; Third Vice President, E. G. Dusenbury, Portville, N. Y.; Secretary and Superintendent, W. A. Duncan, Syracuse, N. Y.; Treasurer, E. A. Skinner, Westfield, N. Y. In order to more perfectly organize and facilitate the work of the educational departments two principals were appointed instead of one as heretofore, President W. R. Harper of the University of Chicago being selected as the Principal of the Collegiate Department, and Vice Chancellor George E. Vincent as the Principal of the Assembly Department. The meeting was one of genuine interest and the session was characterized throughout by pleasant and harmonious action. It was decided to hold the next annual meeting in Chicago, Ill.

Western Christian Advocate. (Cincinnati, O.)

This body of gentlemen represents altogether the most unique and one of the most important educational movements of the century. The work of Chautauqua for Christian education is only less epochal than the Reformation under Luther. The latter should have no more permanent place in the history of the Church than the former. The charming resort by the New York lake is loveliest because its groves are academic. John H. Vincent, chancellor of its university, had already won such world-wide distinction that adding episcopal honors was like re-enforcing the

sun with a star. Even now, while faithfully discharging his episcopal functions to Methodism, he diminishes naught of his zeal and labor in this great non-Methodistic but Christian educational enterprise. Sometimes the Church is pierced with alarm lest he suddenly succumb to overwork; but work is his elixir of life, and as chancellor and bishop, with his Chautauqua headquarters in Buffalo and his episcopal residence in Topeka, he goes right on lecturing, preaching, planning Assemblies, meeting Conferences, selecting teachers, appointing preachers, and feeding a hungry press with literary pabulum, the variety and quality of which might well be thought to be the sum total of his possible activity.

DEATH OF THE RUSSIAN MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.



M. DE GIERS.

NIKOLAI KARLOVITCH DE GIERS, Russian Minister of Foreign Affairs, died in St. Petersburg, Russia, January 26, after an illness of several weeks, the immediate cause of his death being angina pectoris complicated with inflammation of the lungs. M. de Giers was born in 1820 and was the descendant of a Swedish colonel in the army of King Charles XII. of Sweden. His early years were spent in St. Petersburg and when but eighteen years old he entered the Russian diplomatic service, being engaged in the Asiatic department of the minister of foreign affairs. In 1841 he became attached to the Russian consulate in Moldavia. His early marriage to the Princess Cantacuzene, the favorite niece of Prince Gortschakoff, the famous chancellor, is thought to have brought him forward for political preferment. He occupied various important positions in the diplomatic service of Russia, chief among which were those of ambassador at Teheran, where he achieved marked success in promoting the interests of his government; minister to Stockholm in 1869; adjunct to the minister of foreign affairs and director of the Asiatic Department, with a seat in the Senate, in 1875; and minister of foreign affairs. To the latter office he succeeded in 1882 upon the death of Prince Gortscha-

koff, and of this department he remained the head until his death. M. de Giers was highly respected for his personal worth and integrity and widely esteemed for his abilities as a statesman. He was notably a peace man, devoted to the upholding of his country's dignity and zealously ambitious in maintaining friendly relations with neighboring nations. He is credited with having gained the friendship of Persia for Russia and he was the main figure in the settlement of the disputes between Great Britain in Central Asia, and in addition he materially advanced Russia's interests in that part of the world. He was always friendly toward Germany although it is believed that he encouraged the Russian alliance with France after the retirement of Prince Bismarck.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

M. de Giers was a close confidant of the late czar of Russia. He may not have been a brilliant man, but he was very successful as a diplomat. He was well educated and well trained for the position of

minister of foreign affairs. His work for the Empire of Russia was always conducted in such a way as to win for him the respect of all the governments of Europe. He will always be regarded as one of the best diplomats Russia has yet produced.

THE LATE WARD McALLISTER OF NEW YORK.



WARD McALLISTER.

people, who represent the very best society in this city—the aristocracy of New York, as it were. And then if you have more than four hundred persons at a dance the affair will either be too crowded, or so large that one is lost and goes away feeling that he has not profited by the refining influences of a perfectly congenial social gathering. It is rather a strange coincidence that Byron, in one of his works, speaks of the four hundred; and recently the queen of Spain announced that her court circle numbered four hundred. That is a little more than the Vienna court circle, which numbers but three hundred. I presume any one who has received an invitation to a Patriarchs' or a New Year's ball may be considered a member of the best society, or one of the four hundred, if you wish to term it so." Mr. McAllister's time was almost entirely given over to the performance of his social duties. He was the manager of balls and dances without number and indefatigable in his efforts to originate and successfully conduct numerous new social functions. While he did not essay to achieve great things in the literary world, he wrote much upon social topics and produced one book which was published under the title, "Society as I Have Found It." The cause of Mr. McAllister's death was Bright's disease, aggravated by an attack of the grip. Mrs. McAllister, a daughter, and two sons survive him.

The Christian Advocate. (New York, N. Y.)

Ward McAllister is dead. He was a man of brains. So was the Emperor Domitian, who spent a large part of his time elaborately catching flies. Mr. McAllister came of a family of brains. He was a good real estate lawyer, and for many years devoted himself to purveying, in a broad sense of the word, for the four hundred. He exhibited genius in this work. His vanity after he fell into the hands of reporters, caused the decline of his social prestige. He talked too much. His publications were valuable as exhibiting the real hollowness of the lives of those of whom the poet says:

"Their only labor is to kill the time,
And labor dire and weary woe it is."

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Through his adaptability and willingness to organize social entertainments Ward McAllister came to be known as the arbiter elegantiarum of New York Society. He prided himself on his business methods in organizing a ball or dinner dance. In appearance Mr. McAllister was of medium size, thick set, weighing about 175 pounds, and of a ruddy complexion. He wore moustaches and an imperial, which, in his latter years, were gray. He walked with a peculiar swinging gait. A sketch of the career of Ward McAllister means a history of modern New York society.

THE CURRENCY QUESTION.

THE all absorbing topic of national interest within the month has been the Currency Question. Following the defeat of the Administration bill in the House of Representatives, on the preliminary skirmish to get for it a hearing, a large number of bills were introduced in both branches of Congress, but there appeared to be no hope of passing any legislation until the president's first special message was sent to Congress on January 28 and even then the little hope that yet remained was dissipated by the refusal of the various elements to accept the plans proposed by the president for permanent relief. It was this failure of Congress to pass needed financial legislation added to the continued decrease in the gold reserve that caused the president to appeal to Congress, at the same time avowing his intention, with reluctance, to authorize another sale of bonds under the Resumption Act of 1875 unless measures for effective relief should be speedily adopted. The proposals set forth in this first message provide for the authorization of the secretary of the treasury "to issue bonds of the government for the purpose of procuring and maintaining a sufficient gold reserve and the redemption and cancellation of the United States legal tender notes issued for the purchase of silver under the law of July 14, 1890." These bonds the president would have issued in small denominations, to run for fifty years bearing interest not exceeding 3 per cent per annum, the principal and interest payable on their face in gold. The message was endorsed by the advocates of a gold standard and a bank currency, while it was severely criticised by the friends of silver and greenbacks. Its effect, far from salutary, served in a measure to widen the breach between the warring factions in Congress. In a second special message to Congress issued on February 8 the president avowed his intention to authorize the secretary of the treasury to sell four per cent bonds to the amount of \$62,400,000 for gold unless Congress within ten days passed a law authorizing the issue of gold bonds bearing three per cent interest and running thirty years, or otherwise relieved the Treasury in the replenishment of the gold reserve. On the same day a contract, contingent upon the action of Congress within the period of ten days, was entered into with a syndicate composed of August Belmont and Co. of New York on behalf of Messrs. Rothschild and Co. of London and themselves and J. P. Morgan and Co. of New York on behalf of J. P. Morgan and Co. of London and themselves. Referring to this contract the president says in his message: "In pursuance of section 3,700 of the Revised Statutes, the details of an arrangement have this day been concluded whereby bonds of the United States, authorized under the act of July 14, 1875, payable in coin thirty years after their date, with interest at the rate of four per cent per annum, to the amount of a little less than sixty-two million and four hundred thousand dollars, are to be issued for the purchase of gold coin amounting to a sum slightly in excess of sixty-five millions of dollars, to be delivered to the Treasury of United States, which sum, added to the gold now held in our reserve, will so restore such reserves as to make it amount to something more than one hundred millions of dollars. Such a premium is to be allowed to the government upon the bonds as to fix the rate of interest upon the amount of gold realized at three and three fourths per cent per annum. At least one half of the gold to be obtained is to be supplied from abroad, which is a very important and favorable feature of the transaction." At the time these negotiations were complete the gold reserve amounted to a little more than \$41,000,000 the lowest point reached in its history. The consensus of opinion in Washington during the few days following the announcement of the president's action indicated the extreme improbability of any prompt concert of action in Congress on this question.

(Dem.) *Louisville Courier-Journal.* (Ky.)

The president again proves his determination to protect the credit of the government and the money of the people, despite the incompetency, imbecility and impotency of the National Legislature. The *Courier-Journal*, in common with patriotic Americans everywhere who are not prejudiced or crazed by free-silverism, commends the action of the president in his resolute and effective stand for honest money and good faith.

(Pop.) *Rocky Mountain News.* (Denver, Col.)

Is Mr. Cleveland insane? If he is not, he has developed a mania that borders on insanity. It is becoming pretty clear that when Mr. Cleveland was elected to his present term he fixed it in his mind that the crowning act of his administration should be the reduction of the country to the single gold

standard beyond all hope of its ever throwing off the yoke.

(Dem.) *The World.* (New York, N. Y.)

With confidence in the gold supply restored and the other favorable conditions now existing there is a good prospect that the Treasury can henceforth maintain its reserve without further loans.

(Dem.) *Milwaukee Journal.* (Wis.)

It is peculiarly fortunate for the credit of our people that a man of Mr. Cleveland's stability occupies the presidential chair. All that stands between us and a panic is a well grounded confidence in the president and a faith in the ultimate good sense of the people which will steer them off the soft-money rocks before we are wrecked.

(Dem.) *Atlanta Constitution.* (Ga.)

Mr. Cleveland is making more and more em-

phatic at each opportunity that offers his supreme contempt for the people and his enthusiastic devotion to the smallest interest of the money sharks. The *Constitution* prefers the free and unlimited coinage of both gold and silver, but if the East, by setting its face against remedial legislation, drives the country to the silver standard, we shall hail that as the next best remedy.

(*Ind.*) *Public Ledger*. (*Philadelphia, Pa.*)

The president of the United States, compelled by circumstances and conditions for which he is in no measure or manner responsible, effected an arrangement for the sale of United States 4 per cent "coin" bonds, at the interest rate of $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. It is indisputable that the president had exhausted all means in the premises before he completed the arrangement.

(*Ind.*) *The Argonaut*. (*San Francisco, Cal.*)

Mr. Cleveland, Secretary Carlisle, and the Democratic Cuckoo Congress are at their wits' end. They

know not which way to turn. Their record in two years' time may be summed up thus: They repealed the purchasing clause of the Sherman silver act; they repealed a tariff law which paid the country's running expenses; they precipitated a wild financial panic upon the country—the worst for twenty years; they have reduced the gold reserve in the Treasury from one hundred millions to forty millions; they are allowing the free gold to leave the country in giant streams; their new-fangled tariff does not pay the ordinary running expenses of the government; they have twice been forced to issue bonds and borrow money in Europe to maintain the shrinking gold reserve and to pay the government's bills; their mixture of blindness and folly has aroused the distrust of European financiers and excited the alarm of the American people. If this Democratic carnival of folly is not stopped, a financial panic is impending which will be worse than that of 1893.

A YEAR'S WORKING DAYS IN MANY NATIONS.

Philadelphia Record. (*Pa.*)

Taking off Sundays and legal holidays, the number of working days in a year is distributed among the nations as follows: Central Russia, 267; Scotland, 275; Canada and Great Britain, 278; Portugal, 283; Rus-

sian Poland, 288; Spain, 290; Austria, 292; Italy, 298; Bavaria, Belgium and Brazil, 300; France, Saxony, Württemberg, Switzerland, Denmark and Norway, 302; Sweden, 304; Prussia and Ireland, 305; United States, 306; Netherlands, 308, and Hungary, 312.

SHALL WOMEN WEAR HATS IN THEATERS?

SHALL women wear hats in theaters is the question now being agitated in the State Legislatures of Missouri and New York. In the law-making bodies of each state, bills have been introduced which if enacted would prohibit the custom. The bill proposed in Missouri directly states the case and is so drawn as "to prohibit women from wearing hats in theaters which may obstruct the view of persons sitting behind the wearers." The proposed legislation in New York deals with the question in another way and provides that all obstructions which interfere with the view of the stage in theatrical entertainments shall be removed. Any person purchasing a seat in a theater who shall find his view obstructed, may demand the return of the price of the seat purchased unless the obstruction is at once removed. Refusal on the part of a proprietor or manager to refund such purchase money will incur liability in a sum equal to four times the price of the seat and any person causing such obstruction shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and subject to a fine of twenty dollars.

Louisville Courier Journal. (*Ky.*)

In St. Louis a man who insisted on the same right as woman's to wear a hat in the theater was removed from the house and was fined in a police court. Is woman willing to surrender her theater hat if we give her the masculine rights she seeks?

San Francisco Chronicle. (*Cal.*)

If the women themselves will come together in a common-sense convention and consent to relinquish the high hat when they go to the theater, a solution of the question may be reached at once and without difficulty, but that is the only way. There are certain things which cannot be regulated by statute, and among them is that mysterious and incomprehensible thing known to the feminine world as fashion or style. The sterner sex must take it as it finds it, and that is the beginning and the end of the whole matter.

The Sun. (*New York, N. Y.*)

The theater hat is not half so bad as it is painted. As the luck of the day would have it, this large, umbrageous, befeathered, or bespangled fixture has been vastly more perfect in its art, and more attractive in itself than the majority of the plays which so many complain it has shielded from them. Moreover, the Anti-hat bill, besides being too sumptuary for our taste, represents too spasmodic an attempt to regulate the habits of women through state legislation. Let us first appeal to woman's better nature and to her innate sympathy for all the troubles and dissatisfactions of humanity, rather than suddenly and brutally bring down upon her unsuspecting head the sledge hammer of the law. Let us be tactful.

THE POLITICAL CRISIS IN FRANCE.



M. FAURE, THE NEW PRESIDENT OF FRANCE.

THE most important event in the political history of Europe during the month was the crisis in France induced by the collapse of the Dupuy ministry and the resignation of President Casimir-Perier. The story of the constant fluctuations in French politics is so familiar that the trite remark, "It is the unexpected which always happens in France," has come to be almost accepted as a part of the political philosophy of the nation. Hence it may not be considered an extraordinary circumstance that another ministry, the thirty-fourth, has gone out and yet another president, the fifth, has resigned; nor yet that a new president has been elected, and a new ministry formed, all within the radius of a threatening situation. Because the Chamber of Deputies refused to sustain the ministry and ordered by a vote of 253 to 225 the appointment of a commission to investigate the way in which the agreement of 1883 was made guaranteeing the payment of interest on the bonds of two railroads, Premier Dupuy and his colleagues in the ministry resigned on Monday, January 15. On the day following President Casimir-Perier formally resigned his office. The overthrow of the ministry is thought to have operated directly to bring about this action on the part of the president and his personal disposition in the premises is evidenced by a single sentence in his letter of resignation in effect that the chief of state was powerless under the conditions of the office to defend himself against the attacks of his enemies. The resignation of the ministry caused general surprise; that of the president astounded all France. On Friday, four days after M. Perier resigned the presidency, the president of the Senate, acting under the provisions of the constitution convened a meeting at Versailles of the National Assembly, consisting of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate, for the purpose of electing a president of the Republic. On the second ballot François Felix Faure, minister of marine in the Dupuy Cabinet, was elected, receiving 430 votes. M. Brisson, president of the Chamber of Deputies, was supported by the Radicals and Socialists and received 361 votes. After much casting about, the new president selected M. Alexander Ribot to form a new Cabinet. He was minister of foreign affairs in 1890 and 1892 and premier in 1892 and 1893. M. Faure, the new president, is fifty-four years of age, a man of large practical experience, possessed of able executive powers and in political life his career of fourteen years has been marked by wise conservatism. He served as minister of commerce and marine in four ministries, the last being that of Premier Dupuy. He has been attached to the Moderate Republican group and his election to the presidency is regarded as a triumph for the Moderate party over the Radical and Socialist elements in French politics.



M. CASIMIR-PERIER, WHO RESIGNED THE PRESIDENCY OF FRANCE.

San Francisco Examiner. (Cal.)

The French presidential crisis has been settled, for the present, with an ease and smoothness that renew the envy Americans are always inclined to feel when they contrast the transatlantic facility in changing chief magistrates with the strain and turmoil of an American presidential election. On Tuesday Casimir-Perier was president, with a term of six years and a half ahead of him. On Thursday his successor was elected. Two days covered the entire campaign. It is tempting, and yet three presidents in six months does seem like a little too much facility.

The Figaro. (Paris, France.)

The election of M. Faure, who is a Moderate and an upright man, will be well received by all who desire peace and concord.

Journal des Debats. (Paris, France.)

M. Faure is a man of clear and sound intellect. The destinies of France are in good hands.

National Zeitung. (Berlin, Germany.)

It was the Moderate majority in the Senate that elected M. Faure. The fate of M. Casimir-Perier does not permit us to expect any greater stability or more effective activity in his successor.

Neueste Nachrichten. (Berlin, Germany.)

M. Faure is like M. Carnot. He does not possess the power to withstand Socialism. He is possibly the last bourgeois president of the Third Republic.

The Chronicle. (London, England.)

M. Faure embodies virtually the same political sentiments as Casimir-Perier. The shouts of the extremists in the National Assembly greeting his name will almost sufficiently assure Europe that France has again a man of strength and spirit at her head.

The Standard. (London, England.)

The National Assembly could not well have come to a worse decision. M. Faure was accepted rather than selected, in a fit of alarm, to prevent a supposed

national danger. He is one of a hundred politicians whose names are known vaguely to notoriety. If M. Faure is not to be a mere dummy, he must appeal to the country, as his predecessor ought to have done. He represents nothing more than the impotence of moderate republicanism. The rabid rage of the Socialists in the Assembly after the election shows how determined they are to force the country to revolution.

Chicago Herald. (Ill.)

Faure is one of the practical as discriminated from the theatrical politicians of the new Republic. France has had four classes of such men since the fall of the Empire. One was the grandiose, of which Thiers was the most distinguished. Another was the military, of which MacMahon and Boulanger present the extremes. The third is the theatrical, of which Gambetta was the strongest and Casimir-Perier has proved the feeblest. The fourth is the practical, of which Carnot was the most successful. Faure has been for some months the center of a forming coalition in French politics. Of quiet instincts, a planner at the council board, not an orator of emotional type, he comes nearer than any other man yet disclosed in contemporaneous French politics to what we mean in this country by "a business

president." He is not identified with any of the dogmatic schools of French politics, whether in political economy, sociology or religion.

Washington Post. (D. C.)

It is not at all unlikely that, when experience shall have more fully exposed the defects in their Constitution, the French people will strengthen it by various amendments. The men who framed the fundamental law of that Republic made a great blunder when they crossed the Channel instead of the Atlantic for a model. They made the ministry responsible to the Chambers, a plan that is well enough suited to the conditions existing in Great Britain, but is not working well in France. The next mistake—and it is a serious one—is the feature of their system that makes the tenure of the president dependent, in certain contingencies, on the will of the Cabinet. Every act of the president must be approved by the head of the department which it affects before it can have any validity. The Chambers, acting by and through a minister, can make the position of a president intolerable. But these defects can be gotten rid of by peaceful methods, and the Republic will probably correct the mistake that was made when the English and not the American ministerial plan was adopted.

REPORT OF THE LEXOW COMMITTEE.

THE final report of the Lexow Committee upon its investigation of the Police Department of New York City was made to the State Legislature January 18. The report is a voluminous document containing about 18,000 words and presents a summary of the investigation carried on during a large part of last year, the results of which have already been treated in this department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. "The main evil to be corrected" in the Police Department, according to the report, "is that of the prevalent demonstrated corruption, which apparently, from the testimony of the superintendent, has swept into the force mainly because of the inability of the executive chief to assign and transfer members of the force." Another of the main causes for the prevailing evils in the department pointed out by the committee has been the "interference of politicians with the machinery of the department." While the conclusions reached by the committee are highly important, interest centers chiefly in the bills embodying specific recommendations which were presented to the Legislature for adoption. These bills, three in number, are the practical outcome of the long investigation which in the character of its revelations has had few parallels in the history of municipal government. The first provides that a radical reorganization of the Police Department shall be made by a board of three commissioners to be appointed by the governor, who shall have power to dismiss, with the approval of the mayor of New York, any person and persons connected with the department who in their judgment do not possess the necessary qualifications or answer the requirements of the service. The second relates to the vital part of the system and provides that the Board of Police Commissioners shall be a bi-partisan board of four members to consist of two Democrats and two Republicans. This board is to be clothed with exclusive authority over the administrative and judicial functions of the department as well as over those which affect the elective franchise. It further provides that the executive functions of the department shall be lodged wholly in the hands of the superintendent, to be called the chief of police, who shall have the exercise of full powers connected with and which affect the discipline, control, and efficiency of the uniformed force including the assignment and transfer of all members of the force from inspector to patrolman. The third bill amends the police pension law. The recommendations of the Lexow Committee have been publicly denounced by Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst and the other representatives of the reform movement in New York in emphatic terms. It is openly charged that the plan for a bi-partisan board of police commissioners and the other important features of the three bills, were dictated by Mr. Thomas C. Platt, who it is alleged controls and bosses the Republican Legislature and the party organization in the state. The proposals of the committee are held to

be sham attempts at reform in reality, arranged so as to permit Mr. Platt to exercise large opportunity in increasing the prestige of "his political machine." On the other hand there are doubtless many who judge the Lexow bills, which have yet to pass the Legislature, in a favorable light, as affording adequate provision for the necessary reforms.

(Rep.) *The Recorder.* (New York, N. Y.)

The Lexow Committee's work was superb. Its report is admirable. Its conclusions are wise and its recommendations are good. The bills appended to the report are also commendable. They are necessary. We must have police reorganization, and that as quickly as possible. All talk about transgression of home rule in the Police Reorganization bill is nonsense. It is true that the appointing power is given to the governor, but the practical veto power vested in the mayor of New York makes the measure essentially one of home rule, and places in the hands of Mayor Strong almost absolute power in the matter of reorganization.

(Dem.) *The World.* (New York, N. Y.)

The basis of the entire scheme proposed is the bi-partisan Police Board. That is the essential feature of the system we have already, and its existence has clearly been the chief cause of the corruption that honeycombs the organization. To prescribe a bi-partisan four-headed system by law is to foreordain that there shall be a political dicker with every official act. It is to make politics the foundation of an organization which cannot have any politics in it without becoming corrupt and boss-ridden.

(Rep.) *The Press.* (New York, N. Y.)

The keystone of police reform is in the creation

of a bi-partisan police board by law. The evidence presented before the Lexow Committee and summarized in its report shows conclusively that the intimidation of anti-Tammany voters and the deliberate promotion of fraud at the polls by the police had been reduced to a system under the government of Tammany. The only remedy for these intolerable practices which have admittedly increased Democratic pluralities in this city by at least twenty thousand votes—lies in the complete divorce of the police from party politics by the bi-partisan system.

(Dem.) *The Times.* (New York, N. Y.)

What is needed is a single competent and upright man at the head of the Police Department, such as Mr. Strong would gladly appoint, and the power in the hands of the mayor and such head of the department to reorganize out of the force all the inefficient and corrupt material that can be found in it. The Lexow investigation plainly showed this need, and the Lexow report, instead of proposing to provide for it, attempts to turn all the disclosures to partisan account at the bidding of Tom Platt. The city should "accept" no such legislation as it proposes, but insist upon such legislation as will work reform in the Police Department and in the municipal administration generally, and if it cannot get it from this Legislature it should do its part toward getting a different Legislature next year and call for help from all honest men in the rest of the state.

TOKIO, JAPAN, THE FOURTH LARGEST CITY IN THE WORLD.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

We do not know that more than two large cities in the United States or in the world have grown more rapidly in this generation than the city of Tokio, the capital of Japan. Its population has more than doubled within the past twenty years. According to a statement made in the year 1874, which we believe to have been correct, its population then was 800,000; according to the Tokio official sanitary report recently issued, its population last year was over 1,858,000. This is a marvellous growth, just about equal to that of New York City during the same time. The population of Tokio follows close upon the heels of that of the Empire City of the United States, and is far greater than that of Chicago, as given in the school census taken two years ago. In the last four years Tokio has gained over half a million in numbers. Tokio is now the fourth largest city in the world, larger than Vienna, if not than Berlin, larger than Canton, and surpassed only by London, Paris, and New York. It is a city

of high civilization, of exceeding enterprise and industry. It is an extraordinarily healthy city, the death rate for last year being a fraction less than 20 in the 1,000. The latest report of its "health director" contains a very satisfactory account of its sanitary condition. The growth and improvement of Tokio within recent years may be largely attributed to the liberalization of the political institutions of the country and to the vast increase of the city's industries and commerce. As the residence of the emperor, the place of assemblage of Parliament and the headquarters of the imperial government offices it is a place of great political activity. As the seat of an illustrious university and numerous other educational institutions it is a center of learning. It has a serviceable harbor, which has been improved. It is a city of theaters, temples, and groves, railroads, electric lights, newspapers, and all the other modern things. There is not any reason to doubt the continued growth of the progressive Japanese city of Tokio. New York must, at the least, keep up with it.

THE BROOKLYN STRIKE.



MAYOR SCHIERN OF BROOKLYN.

"Trippers" are the cars brought into service in the morning and evening of each day during the severe press of business. Men who operate "trippers" are not regularly employed but are paid by the hour in accordance with the number of their trips. It is alleged that these men rarely make more than forty cents, after having waited from ten to seventeen hours to perform their work. All efforts of the mayor of Brooklyn and the State Board of Arbitration to effect a settlement between the contending parties in the beginning were futile. The strike, peaceably conducted for a few days, assumed an aggravated character as it grew in proportions, and the opportunity speedily developed for the exercise of that lawless power which asserts itself with every recurring labor dispute. Lawless disturbances, whether instigated and committed by the strikers or not, threatened the peace of the community. One section of the state militia, then another, was ordered into the field by Governor Morton, upon the mayor's request, until finally Brooklyn became an armed camp. Eight thousand soldiers and fifteen hundred policemen were distributed over the ground for the purpose of putting down the violence of the reckless mob. Then Mayor Schiern informed the railroad companies that he expected them to prosecute their business, to run their cars in view of the protection thus afforded against the commission of overt acts. This they were unable to do because of the impossibility of procuring enough new men to take the places of strikers. Meanwhile Judge Gaynor of the Kings County Supreme Court granted, upon the application of a private citizen, a writ of mandamus to compel a single company to put its lines in operation within twenty days or show cause why its charter should not be declared forfeited. It is to be observed that the writ was alternative. The strikers had hoped that it would be peremptory, and thus enable them to make their own terms with the roads. Gradually the situation improved, rioting practically ceased, the troops were withdrawn and the various lines of railroad became operative, before the expiration of the limit of twenty days allowed the single corporation to make answer to the ruling of the court. Several lives were lost and many persons were wounded during the strike, the outcome of which left a large part of the participants without employment, thus entailing suffering and hardship upon many families in the midst of a severe winter.

Brooklyn Eagle. (N. Y.)

The hope was that this would be an orderly strike. At the beginning it was marked by moderation, but that gave way to temper, to violence, and finally, to what resembled a systematic scheme of assault, intimidation, and attempted destruction of property and of life. The cause of violence has never been the cause of successful strikes, and never will be. The strikers must be presumed to desire the success of their strike and, therefore, the defeat of whatever makes that success impossible—violence and the violent, for instance.

The Recorder. (New York, N. Y.)

The trolley corporate czars of Brooklyn with one exception resolved not to yield one jot to public sentiment, overwhelmingly against them, to the rights of labor, or to the appeals of humanity

battling for fair play. The workingmen hold the right side in the present controversy. If the trolley cormorants can carry out their ideas in regard to the employment of "trippers," the force of the regular motormen will be reduced to almost nothing, and the companies will be able to run their conveyances on a scale of compensation almost below that paid to the slaves of the coal mines. Oppression and attempted oppression of this kind on the part of capital is the parent of anarchy.

The World. (New York, N. Y.)

The public will cheerfully concede that the Brooklyn strikers were much more nearly right than the Brooklyn trolley-car companies. But it will not concede that any striker or any one else has a right to throw stones and fire revolvers in the streets of one of the leading cities of the world. Lawlessness

must be suppressed at whatever cost, and prompt action will make the cost less.

Chicago Herald. (Ill.)

The only lesson of the Brooklyn strike is that of the Debs strike, the Homestead strike

and all similar strikes. They settle nothing. They do not remove the wrongs and oppressions of labor. They are an evil without a recompense. They retard instead of advancing the cause of labor.

ROYALIST UPRISING IN HAWAII.



EX-QUEEN LILIUOKALANI OF THE HAWAIIAN ISLANDS.

A ROYALIST uprising against the regularly established government of Hawaii took place in Honolulu on Sunday, January 6. This was the news brought by the steamer *Alameda* which arrived at San Francisco on January 18. The revolt was led by Robert Wilcox, a half breed, and Samuel Newlin, also a half breed, and formerly captain of the Queen's Guards. Two engagements were fought within six miles of Honolulu and the rebels were thoroughly beaten by the government troops. There are known to have been three fatalities, one on the government side in the death of Mr. Charles L. Carter, annexationist commissioner to the United States, and two among the conspirators. The insurrection was promptly and effectually put down, about one hundred and fifty rebels were captured, and martial law was declared on the day following the conflict. The latter development of the uprising is told in the published dispatches of the American minister in Honolulu to the State Department dated January 30, and received February 6. From these it appears that within three days after the first outbreak order had been restored. On January 17 the court martial proceedings began and three conspirators were sentenced to death, there being two hundred more cases reported for trial and arrests occurring daily. On January 16 ex-Queen Liliuokalani was made prisoner charged with complicity with the insurgents. Following the arrest of the queen her apartments were searched and large quantities of arms and ammunition together with much other damaging evidence were found. The end of Royalist hopes came on January 24 when the queen, then a prisoner in the government executive building, addressed a letter to the president of the Republic, in which she formally relinquished all claims, and swore allegiance to the Republic, imploring clemency for Hawaiians. Thus ends one of the final acts in the Hawaiian drama which has for many months been of engaging interest to Americans. What may be the beginning of closer relations between the United States and Hawaii was the action taken by the United States Senate on February 9 when an amendment to the diplomatic and consular appropriation bill was passed authorizing the president "to contract for the entire work of laying a telegraphic cable between the United States and the Hawaiian Islands and to direct the prosecution of such work whenever such a contract shall be made" and appropriating \$500,000 as a part of the cost of the cable.

New York Herald. (N. Y.)

The reported trouble in Hawaii may afford an opening for an outburst of jingo sentiment, but it must not be made the occasion for a display of any jingo activity. There does not appear to be any serious menace to the Hawaiian republic, but, whatever the trouble there may amount to or lead to, it is a matter for the people themselves to settle. That is their business, and not ours. Our business is to keep our hands off and let Hawaii alone. We have enough to do to attend to our own affairs, without meddling with those that do not concern us and may get us into foreign entanglements.

Chicago Evening Post. (Ill.)

How to deal with the seditionists will be a problem for the government. But however severe the measures resorted to may be they will find palliation in the well-known fact that if the adventurers who have clung to the queen had gained the upper hand they would have given the republicans short shift. American annexationists seem bent on using this incident as ammunition for their fight. On the whole, it seems rather an argument against precipi-

tate annexation. It clearly demonstrates that the Republic of Hawaii is permanently established, and that the government can play its hand against its enemies without the intervention of any foreign nation.

Omaha Bee. (Neb.)

The men at the head of the Hawaiian Republic have yet to show that they are qualified to carry on a republican system of government wisely and justly. At present they constitute what is little better than an oligarchy, and although they have received recognition they have not won a strong place in the confidence and respect of the nations. The spirit of vengeance they are now manifesting will not improve their claims to the world's regard.

Springfield Republican. (Mass.)

The ex-Queen of Hawaii cannot be blamed for joining in a conspiracy to get back her throne, nor can the present government be blamed for arresting her for so conspiring. Her arrest as one of the active leaders in the recent rebellion is only an act of self-defense, and if her banishment from the islands follows it can be justified on the same grounds.

A PASTORAL LETTER.

A COMMITTEE of the bishops of the Protestant Episcopal Church, composed of Bishops Williams of Connecticut, Doan of Albany, N. Y., Potter of New York, Huntington of Central New York, McLaren of Chicago, and Seymour of Springfield, acting under the authority of the House of Bishops, recently issued a pastoral letter to the clergy and laity of the church. The letter was prompted by the desire to eradicate certain prevailing erroneous beliefs which are thought to exert a harmful influence in the minds of many connected with the church. Positive and definite declaration is made of "the truth of God which every minister of this church has pledged himself to hold, teach, and defend" respecting the two vital articles of the Christian faith, the incarnation of our Lord Jesus Christ and the inspiration of the Holy Scriptures.

(*Episcopal.*) *Church Standard.* (*Philadelphia Pa.*)

The bishops speak with much gentleness, but with all the more authority, of the dangers attending the study, and especially the teaching, of the Holy Scriptures in these times. They neither denounce nor deprecate the most searching critical investigation of the Scriptures. It would be "faithless," they say, to apprehend danger from such an investigation, and they "devoutly thank God for the light and truth which have come to us through the earnest labor of devout critics of the sacred text." What they do deprecate and solemnly rebuke is "the irreverent rashness and unscientific method of many professed critics, and the presumptuous superciliousness with which they vaunt erroneous theories of the day as established results of criticism."

There is also a very real danger, the bishops truly

say, "not merely from false teaching, but through injudicious and ill-timed teaching, the effect of which is not to settle and confirm, but to undermine and weaken faith. The chief duty of every student, and especially of every teacher, is to learn what the Scripture says, and what it means, so that he may be able faithfully to open the same Scripture to the help and healing of sinful men"; and although, "outside of the domain of faith there may be undetermined questions touching matters which to some minds may seem to be almost essential to the integrity of the Christian scheme, but which cannot be necessary to salvation," the inspiration of the Holy Scriptures is a postulate of faith. "It cannot lawfully be questioned by any Christian man, and least of all by men who have sealed their conviction of the certainty of the Faith with the solemn vows of ordination."

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

January 15. Republican U. S. senators elected as follows: Maine, Mr. Frye, re-elected; Massachusetts, Mr. Hoar, re-elected; Michigan, Mr. McMillan, re-elected, and Congressman Burrows; Nebraska, John M. Thurston.

January 16. Republican U. S. senators elected as follows: New Hampshire, Mr. Chandler, re-elected; Montana, Messrs. Mantle and Carter; Colorado, Mr. Wolcott, re-elected.

January 17. The Idaho Legislature pass a bill for the submission of a woman's suffrage amendment to the constitution, to a vote of the people.

January 20. The steamer *State of Missouri* sinks in the Ohio River; thirty-seven lives lost.

January 22. United States senators are elected as follows, *Republican*: Illinois, Mr. Cullum, re-elected; California, Mr. Perkins, re-elected; South Dakota, Mr. Pettigrew, re-elected; North Carolina, J. C. Pritchard; West Virginia, S. B. Elkins; Kansas, Lucian Baker; Wyoming, F. E. Warren, C. D. Clark; New Jersey, General W. J. Sewell. *Democratic*: Tennessee, Mr. Harris, re-elected; Texas, Horace Chilton. *Populist*: North Carolina, Marion Butler.

January 23. Governor Nelson, of Minnesota, elected U. S. senator by the Republican Legislature. —The Legislature of South Dakota pass a bill for the re-submission of the Prohibitory law to a

vote of the people.

January 29. U. S. Senator Berry re-elected by the Democratic Legislature of Arkansas.

January 31. The 27th annual convention of the American Woman's Suffrage Association meets in Atlanta, Ga.

February 1. Congressman John L. Wilson elected U. S. senator by the Legislature of Washington.

FOREIGN.

January 8. Korean independence declared.

January 19. Chinese troops are defeated by the Japanese in a battle near New-Chwang.

January 24. Japanese troops are landed near Wei-Hai-Wei and capture the Yung Chuen fortress.

January 29. The czar of Russia declares his determination to sustain autocracy.

January 30. The Chinese peace envoys arrive in Japan.

January 31. Japanese forces bombard Wei-Hai-Wei; one fort is captured. The premier of Norway and his cabinet resign.

February 1. The Japanese take all the Wei-Hai-Wei forts. The Chinese lose 2,000 troops in the engagement.—The Japanese premier receives the Chinese Peace Envoys.

February 3. Japan declines to negotiate with the Chinese Peace Envoys on account of their imperfect credentials; they are charged to leave Japan.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR MARCH.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

First week (ending March 9).

"Renaissance and Modern Art." Chapters VII, VIII, and IX.

"From Chaucer to Tennyson." From page 154 to end of chapter VI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Queen Victoria and her Children."

"Christianity and English Wealth."

Sunday Reading for March 10.

Second Week (ending March 16).

"Renaissance and Modern Art." Chapters X. and XI.

"From Chaucer to Tennyson." Chapter VII. to page 176.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Underground Railway in London."

Sunday Reading for March 10.

Third Week (ending March 23).

"Renaissance and Modern Art." Chapters XII. and XIII.

"From Chaucer to Tennyson." From page 176 to page 184.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The World's Debt to Medicine."

"Gustavus Adolphus."

Sunday Reading for March 17.

Fourth week (ending March 31).

"Renaissance and Modern Art." Chapters XIV. and XV.

"From Chaucer to Tennyson." From page 184 to end of Chapter VII.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Scott's 'Woodstock.'"

"Glimpse of a German Watering Place."

Sunday Readings for March 24 and 31.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. A study—The distinguishing characteristics of the different "orders" of architecture used by the Greeks and Romans.
2. Contrasted character studies. William Cowper and Robert Burns.
3. Readings—Selections from Burns' poems showing his great diversity of moods. See "Tam O'Shanter," "Cotter's Saturday Night," "Epistle to Davie," etc.
4. Debate—Resolved: That the natural tendency of true Christianity in active operation is toward the production of wealth.

5. General discussion—The report of the Lexow Committee.*

WORDSWORTH DAY—MARCH 15.

"He found us when the age had bound
Our souls in its benumbing round,
He spoke and loosed our heart in tears.

"Our youth returned; for there was shed
On spirits that had long been dead
The freshness of the early world."

—Matthew Arnold.

1. The autobiography of Wordsworth gathered from his poem, "The Prelude."
2. Sketch—Dorothy Wordsworth, the poet's sister.
3. Paper—The effect of the French Revolution upon Wordsworth.
4. A study—Why was Wordsworth at first laughed at as a poet; and what, a little later, changed the course of public opinion to the other extreme of high appreciation?
5. Table Talk—The scheme of Pantisocracy.

THIRD WEEK.

1. A study—Definitions and illustrations of all the parts of buildings mentioned in the reading, such as pier, nave, choir, entablature, clerestory, etc.
2. Paper—History and full description of St. Peter's, at Rome.
3. A portrait—Lawrence Boythorn, "the kindly caricature" of Walter Savage Landor. Arranged from Dickens' "Bleak House."
4. Character sketch—Sir Walter Scott (with an account of his works).
5. General discussion—The increased trend toward municipal ownership of natural monopolies, caused by Judge Gaynor's decision regarding the stoppage of public conveyances.*

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Paper—History and full description of the Vatican, noting especially the Sistine Chapel.
2. Literary studies—Byron's "Childe Harold," Moore's "Lalla Rookh," Shelley's "Skylark," Keats' "Eve of St. Agnes." (A different person may make each study or one person may make them all.)
3. Questions and Answers in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.
4. Brief accounts of the noted men whose decease is mentioned in the present number of the magazine.*
5. Debate—Resolved that the wearing of large hats and bonnets at public gatherings should be prohibited by law.*

*See *Current History and Opinion*.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR MARCH.

"RENAISSANCE AND MODERN ART."

P. 61. "Bá-sí'í-cá." From a Greek word meaning royal; the term is always used in the translated form as if the word for house had been understood. It was used originally as the name of a royal palace. It also denoted a portico, as that was the place where the king-archon in ancient Greece used to dispense justice. In Rome it was the name of porticos or halls built for the same purpose after the Greek plan. "Many of these halls of justice were appropriated for Christian churches and new churches were built upon a similar plan, whence basilica became a usual name for a church."

P. 64. "Orders." The term order was applied to the three main styles of Greek architecture which were distinguished the one from the other by various details and especially by their columns and entablatures.

P. 72. "Brunellesco" [broo-něl-lēs'ko.]

P. 73. "Impost." The point where the arch rests in the wall or column.

P. 75. "Nave." "That part of a Gothic church which extends from the choir to the western door. The word nave means ship, and it was applied to the body of the church in accordance with the simile which compared the church to a ship."

"Clere'sto-ry." The upper story of the nave in Gothic churches, which is perforated by a row of windows which form the chief source of light for the central part of the building.

"Choir." "That part of a church reserved for the clergy." The part reserved for the canons, priests, monks, and choristers during divine services.

P. 76. "Pi-lās'ters." Square supports terminated like columns by a base and capital.

P. 77. "Egg and dart." A decorative molding consisting of an egg shaped ornament alternating with a dart shaped ornament.

P. 78. "Façades" [fá-sád or fá-sád']. From a Latin word for face. The front of a building.

P. 79. "Cornice, frieze, etc." In the reference to figure 22, the different parts specified may be clearly distinguished. The upper part of the cut, the projecting molding, is the cornice; the wide band below ornamented with anthemions is the frieze; the plain band resting on the pillar having the egg-and-dart molding above it and the bead-molding near its lower edge is the architrave [ar'ki-trave];—these three parts together form the entablature;—the ornamental top of the column is the capital. (For full representation of Greek ornament see "Greek Architecture and Sculpture," pages 55-58.

This was one of the text-books in the C. L. S. C. course for the year 1892-93.)

P. 87. "Pier." The solid support from which an arch springs; it may be a pillar or column or the wall between two windows, most commonly it is a compound or a square pillar.

"Lintel." The horizontal beam which joins the uprights of a door or window.

P. 92. "Doric." Notice that the columns in figure 39 have no base, that they show a slight swelling toward the middle, and that the capital is of extreme simplicity. The Ionic order is distinguished by the volutes (the spiral scroll) of its capitals. The bases used with this order of pillar vary. In the Corinthian order the capital is of great richness, decorated with rows of leaves, usually the acanthus leaves.

P. 98. "Bá-roque'." From a Spanish word meaning bizarre, which meaning the Anglicized word retains.

P. 111. "The Tiepoli" [tē-ā'pō lē]. A father and a son.

P. 116. "Eu-ty'chus." See Acts XX., 9-12.

P. 121. "Van Eyck" [vān ike.] Hubert and Jan van Eyck, noted Flemish painters, were brothers.

P. 123. "Signorelli" [sēn-yō-rel'lee].

"FROM CHAUCER TO TENNYSON."

P. 165. "Noctes Ambrosiana" [nok'tēz ām-brō-si-ā-nē]. Ambrosian Nights.

"Nuclei" [nū'klei]. From a Latin word meaning kernel. A central mass or point about which matter is collected.

P. 167. "Beaupuis" [bō-pwē].

Pān-ti-soc'ra-cy." From three Greek words meaning all, equal, and to rule. A community in which all are equal in power and position. Lovell, a young Quaker, joined Southey and Coleridge in this scheme of emigration. "They determined to found amid the wilds of the Susquehanna a commonwealth which was to be free from the evils and turmoils which then agitated the world, in which a community of goods was to be enjoyed and from which selfishness was to be proscribed. But this scheme of pantisocracy, as it was termed, failed from want of money, and other practical difficulties."

P. 169. "Quietism." "That form of mysticism which consists in the entire abnegation of all active exercise of the will, and a purely passive meditation on God and Divine things as the highest

spiritual exercise and the means of bringing the soul into immediate union with the Godhead."

P. 171. "Di-dǎc'ti-cism." The practice of conveying instruction; the tendency to be didactic or instructive in matter or style. The Greek verb from which the word comes means to teach.

P. 172. "Spinoza" [spe-nō'zä], Benedict. (1632-1677.) A Dutch philosopher. The greatest of the modern expounders of pantheism.

P. 174. "*Venturum expectat*." Latin. Joined on to what precedes it, the exclamation, with some words understood, it would read, "Alas! (for him who) expects what is about to come."

P. 175. "Broad Church." "A party in the Church of England advocating liberty of faith and practice and toleration of doctrines and forms within the communion."

"Clēr'i-sy." The clergy as distinguished from the laity.

P. 176. "Cāl'en-ture." "A delirious fever that was once believed to attack mariners within the tropics, causing vivid and dangerous hallucinations." The Latin verb from which the word is derived means to be hot.

"Thāl'ā-bā." "Ke-hä'mä."

P. 178. "He-gi'rā" [or hēj'i-rā]. A flight, especially the flight of Mohammed from Mecca in 622.

"A-nǎb'a-sis." Greek. Literally a going up; an expedition, a military advance, especially the advance of Cyrus the Younger with ten thousand Greeks, against his brother Artaxerxes II., the king of Persia.

"Thū-cyd'i-dēs." (471—401 B.C.) A celebrated Greek historian.

P. 179. "Gebir" [gǎ'bēr]. "Gebirius" [ga-bēr'i-us]. "*I-dyl'i-ā Hē-rō'i-cā*." Heroic idyls, or short poems.

Intaglios [in-tǎl'yōs]. Works, particularly gems, decorated with incised carvings, carvings depressed below the surface. They are the reverse of cameos. The stones used for seals are instances of intaglios.

"Hetaira" [hēt-i'rā]. A Greek word for public entertainer or courtesan.

P. 181. "*Raconteur*" [rā-kōn-tūr]. French. A story-teller, one who recounts adventures or tells anecdotes.

P. 182. "*In extenso*." Latin. Literally, at full length. Extensive, broad. "*In intenso*." Intensive, making or becoming intense.

P. 184. "Giaour" [jour].

P. 185. "Seraglios" [se-rāl'yōs]. The seraglio is the palace of a Turkish sultan; also a harem.

"Bulbuls." Persian nightingales.

"Gu-lis-tān." Persian, the rose garden. The name of the most celebrated work of the Persian poet, Sa'di.

"Zū-lei'-kā." A favorite name in Persian poetry.

P. 188. "Missolonghi" [mīs-sō-lōng'ghe].

P. 189. "To fag." To act as a fag; to perform menial service for another. In certain English public schools, as Eton, Harrow, and Winchester, a schoolboy of a lower class who does menial service for one who is in the highest or next highest form or class is called a fag. The service required was such as preparing breakfast, carrying messages, etc., in return for which protection and assistance in many ways were accorded.

P. 191. "*Cor Cordium*." Heart of hearts.

P. 192. "Ad-ō-nā'is." "Epipsychidion" [ēp-i-psī-kid'i-ōn]. "A little poem on the soul."

P. 193. "The Ty'tāns." A race of primordial deities, giants, in Greek mythology, the children of Heaven and Earth.

P. 194. "*La Belle Dame Sans Merci*." French. The fair lady without mercy.

"Keats' hopeless love." His younger brother's death in the autumn of 1818 affected him deeply, and about the same time he experienced a passion for a lady of remarkable beauty, the effect of which upon a frame worn by disease, was fatal.

P. 195. "*Technique*." "The method of performance or manipulation in any art."

REQUIRED READINGS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

QUEEN VICTORIA AND HER CHILDREN."

1. "Philippic." In a general sense, a discourse filled with accusation or bitter invective. The word was originally applied to the orations delivered by Demosthenes, the great Greek orator, against King Philip of Macedon, when the latter began to threaten the liberty of Greece.

2. "Gillie" [the g is hard as in get]. "In the Highlands of Scotland, a man-servant; a lad or young man employed as an attendant; more especially one who attends a person while hunting."

3. "The Trent affair." The seizing of the British steamer *Trent* and taking from it on Nov. 8, 1861, the Confederate commissioners to Europe, Messrs. Mason and Slidell, by the American captain, Wilkes.

4. "Unser Fritz." German for "our Fritz," a name given to Emperor Frederick William while he was the crown prince.

5. "Eugénie." See "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," page 145.

6. "*Coup de grace* [koo deh grās]. French. The finishing stroke.

"Sand'ring-ham." The residence of the Prince of Wales near the coast of Norfolk.

"UNDERGROUND RAILWAY IN LONDON."

1. *Bête noire* [bāt nwar]. Literally, a black beast. An object of aversion.

2. Clo-ā'cā Mǎx'i-mā. The words mean the largest drain. It was the name given to the chief

drain or sewer of ancient Rome, which was built about 600 B. C. and is still in use. The outlet in the Tiber is an arch twelve feet high.

"GUSTAVUS ADOLPHUS."

1. "Wallenstein" [wöl' en-stin]. A celebrated German general in the Roman Catholic army in the Thirty-Years' War. Having a spite against the emperor, who removed him from command on account of his pride, rapacity, and cruelty, he, being restored during a critical time to exclusive control of the army, was suspected of plotting treachery and by secret orders, was assassinated.—"Tilly." The famous military leader who succeeded Wallenstein as commander-in-chief.

2. "The League." A confederacy of the Catholic states of Germany formed in 1608 for the purpose of crushing out Protestantism.

3. "Hanse towns." A confederation of cities of northern Germany and adjacent countries for the promotion of commerce and for protection against pirates and hostile governments.

4. "Sund." Also written the Sound. A sea passage between Sweden and Zealand connecting the Cattegat and the Baltic.

5. "Richelieu" [rësh' eh-loo]. The celebrated French statesman and cardinal who was the principal minister of Louis XIII. One of the chief events of his reign was the capture of La Rochelle, the stronghold of the Huguenots, and the destruction of their political power.

6. "Duke of Friedland." Wallenstein.

7. "Wasas." The same as Vasas. The noble house of Sweden to which Gustavus Adolphus belonged.

8. "Wittenberg." A town in Prussia famous as the home and burial place of Luther.

9. Chemnitz [kém' nitz]. (1605-1678.) A noted German historian and councilor, and the historiographer of Christina, the daughter of Gustavus Adolphus.—"Pufendorf" [poo' fen-dorf]. (1632-1694.) A celebrated German jurist and historian, and historiographer (an official historian) in Sweden.

10. "Maurice of Orange." Also known as Maurice of Nassau. (1567-1625.) Stadtholder (governor) of the United Dutch provinces.

11. "Ox' en-stiern." (1583-1654.) A noted Swedish statesman who directed the foreign policy of Sweden after 1632.

12. *Corpus Evangelicorum*. Literally, body of evangelical (persons). An evangelical union.

13. "Lion of the North." Gustavus Adolphus; so called on account of his bravery.

14. "George William." Duke of Prussia from 1619 to 1640.

"THE WORLD'S DEBT TO MEDICINE."

1. "Obstetrics." That department of medical science which deals with midwifery.

2. "Pa-thōl'o-gy." From two Greek words meaning disease and to speak. The science of disease.

3. "Phär-ma-cōl' o-gy." From two Greek words, the first meaning drug or medicine, the last, the same as in the preceding definition. The science of drugs, including both the art of their preparation and a knowledge of their action.

4. "Psychology" [si-kol' o-jy]. The first Greek word in this compound means soul, mind. Mental science.

5. "An-æs-thēt' ics." From two Greek words meaning without and feeling. Substances capable of destroying all sensation.

6. "Cinchona" [sín-kō' nā]. The Peruvian bark, so valuable in medicine; the dried bark of a tree of the genus *cinchona*, which grows naturally in Peru on the Andes.

7. "Pan'dects." In a general sense, a digest or treatise. In a specific sense, as here used, the collection of Roman civil law made by the emperor Justinian. They contained the judgments or decisions of lawyers to which Justinian gave the authority of law, and they formed fifty volumes.

8. "Thēr-a-peu'tics." From a Greek word meaning to serve, to attend, to cure. That part of the science of medicine which treats of the discovery and application of remedies for diseases.

9. "Excreta." Any matter eliminated as useless from the living body.

10. "Py-æ' mi-ä." A Greek compound of the words for pus and blood. One form of blood poisoning caused by the absorption into the blood of matters originating in a wound or local inflammation. It is characterized by the forming of abscesses.

11. "Hyp-o-der' míc." The word in its original tongue explains itself, being a compound and meaning under the skin.

12. "Calculus." The Latin word for stone or pebble. In medicine, any solid concretion formed in any part of the body, but occurring most frequently in the organs that act as reservoirs.

13. "Cō'cá'ine." An alkaloid from the leaves of the coca, which acts as a local anæsthetic.—"Rhig' o-line." A product obtained from petroleum, which also produces local anæsthesia.

14. "Biological" [bi-ō löj' lk-äl]. Pertaining to biology, the science of life.

15. "An-thrō-pōl' o-gy." The science of mankind.

16. "So-ci-öl' o-gy." The science which treats of the general structure of society, its development, progress, and all that relates to it.

"SCOTT'S 'WOODSTOCK.'"

1. "Ni'sus and Eu-ry' a-lūs, Thē'se-ūs and Pi-rith' o-us, O-rēs'tēs and Pyl' a-dēs." Three renowned pairs of friends belonging to classic story, who were true to their vows of eternal friendship.

2. "Henry of Anjou." Henry II. of England. The "Fair Rosamond" was Rosamond Clifford, the mistress of the king, who according to popular legend—which is, however, very doubtful—was concealed in a labyrinth and put to death by poison by Queen Eleanor, the jealous wife of Henry.

3. "Ranger." An officer of a forest, whose duty it was to watch the deer, prevent trespasses, etc.; a government official connected with a royal forest.

4. "Vandyck [văn-dik] dress." The style of dress represented in the portraits by Vandyck (1599–1641), a famous Flemish artist.

5. "Prince Rupert." (1619–1683.) A prince of the Palatinate (a former German state), who served in the Thirty Years' War against the Imperialists, and fought as cavalry leader at Edgehill, Marston Moor, and Naseby; and was naval commander against Parliament from 1648–53. He was a nephew of Charles I.

6. "Lunsford." "The terrors preceding the civil wars, which agitated the public mind, rendered the grossest and most exaggerated falsehoods current among the people. When Charles I. appointed Sir Thomas Lunsford to the situation of lord lieutenant of the Tower, the celebrated John Lillburn took to himself the credit of exciting the public hatred against this officer and Lord Digby, as pitiless bravoës of the most bloody-minded description from whom the people were to expect nothing but bloodshed and massacre. Of Sir Thomas Lunsford in particular it was reported that his favorite food was the flesh of children."

7. "Battle of Armageddon." See Revelation XVI., 16.

8. "Muggletonians and Brownists." Two religious sects taking their respective names from their founders. The former, established about 1651, believed that its founders, Muggleton and Reeve, were the two prophetically inspired witnesses mentioned in Rev XI., 3–6. The Brownists believed that every congregation should constitute an independent, self-

governing body, and should use no forms of prayer.

9. "*Animus Mundi*." The spirit, or soul, of the world.

10. "Harking back." Returning to some previous point and starting from that anew.

11. "Hemmings and Condell." The editors of the first folio edition of Shakespeare's plays.

12. "Makebates." Those who excite contentions and quarrels.

13. "*Coup de main*" [koo-deh-măN]. French. A bold and sudden attack.

— GLIMPSE OF A GERMAN WATERING PLACE. —

1. "Hyp-ô-chôn-drî'a-sîs." A Greek compound meaning under the cartilage of the breastbone. "A morbid condition characterized by exaggerated uneasiness and anxiety as to one's health, and also extreme general depression."

2. "Dîp-sô-mă'ni-ă." Greek, thirst madness. An uncontrollable desire for intoxicants.

3. "O-lym'pi-an." One of the twelve greater gods of Greece.

4. "*Bad*." German. Resort, bath.

5. "Im-prî-mă'tûr." A Latin verb meaning, let it be printed. A license to print or to publish.

6. "Kurhaus." The Cure house.

7. "Harpies." In Greek mythology ravenous, winged monsters having the head and body of a woman, and the wings, feet, and claws of a bird of prey. Figuratively,—rapacious, grasping persons.

8. "The Nore." A part of the estuary of the River Thames. The Nore has a lighthouse on a sand bank four miles east of Sheerness, England.

9. "*Parvenus*" [pär-ve-nû]. People newly risen to position. Upstarts.

10. "May laws." "A series of Prussian laws passed 1873–74, and modified in 1887, regulating ecclesiastical matters. They restricted the power of the church over individuals and property. So named because first promulgated in May, 1873."

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"RENAISSANCE AND MODERN ART."

1. Q. Why did the Italy of the Renaissance turn back to Roman antiquity for its ideas of art in architecture? A. In literature the term Gothic had kept alive the memory of the injuries inflicted by the Goths upon Roman Europe, and was considered by Italians as a term of reproach, applying only to barbarians; so when prosperity returned to Italy, it, generally speaking, would have nothing Gothic, but went back to the time of the Roman Empire for its models.

2. Q. How far was this Roman craze carried?

A. To the length of causing many eccentricities, such as giving Latin names to children and granting annuities to owners of ground on which some Roman antiquity had been found.

3. Q. What important distinction exists between Renaissance and Roman architecture? A. The Renaissance is an imitation of Roman forms applied to modern buildings.

4. Q. How only can one tell whether a building

belongs to the Renaissance style? A. By having a wide familiarity with the details of classic Roman architecture.

5. Q. Why is not a column allowing intervening open spaces an appropriate decorative member as applied to a solid wall? A. The first mission of art form is to express its use; a column as a means of support should convey the thought of solid strength.

6. Q. What is the meaning of capital, base, and cornice? A. To emphasize by ornament the point of pressure, the point of support, and the roof line.

7. Q. What furnishes matter for regret in the Renaissance buildings? A. The use of engaged columns and simulated entablatures and pediments which became a lifeless formula.

8. Q. What was the one objectionable feature of the Renaissance style? A. It tended to divorce the system of ornament from the system of construction.

9. Q. What was the general course of evolution in Italian architecture? A. All began with simplicity, vigor, and power; all tended to become more elaborate, ornamental, and picturesque; all ended in complexity, relative weakness, over-elaboration, and straining for effect.

10. Q. Who was the first great architect of the Renaissance; and what was his greatest work? A. Brunellesco; the dome of the Florence Cathedral.

11. Q. For what more famous construction did the dome of the Florence Cathedral furnish methods? A. The dome of St. Peter's.

12. Q. In what one work may a view of the entire Renaissance system be obtained? A. In the door of the cloister of the Church of Santa Croce in Florence, built by Brunellesco.

13. Q. What is the most famous of all modern palaces? A. The Pitti Palace in Florence.

14. Q. What feature of the Pitti Palace was much employed by the greatest of American architects, H. H. Richardson? A. The method of leaving to the outer face of stone blocks the natural roughness.

15. Q. To what is the average modern taste not sufficiently alive? A. The element of reserve and power conveyed by large masses of plain masonry.

16. Q. In what particulars does St. Peter's deserve all the fame it has won? A. In its prodigal luxury in details, enormous dimensions of area, and gigantic size of its members.

17. Q. What three renowned architects are mentioned as connected with the building of St. Peter's? A. Bramante, Raphael, and Michael Angelo.

18. Q. The evolution of what single motive is chosen to illustrate the course of the movement from the period of original adaptation or creation to the period of continuation and tradition? A. The curvilinear pediment.

19. Q. What imposing, monumental, yet comparatively simple English cathedral belongs to the later Renaissance? A. St. Paul's in London.

20. Q. What is essential to an adequate idea of the architecture of this time? A. A consideration of the magnificent paintings adorning the interior departments.

21. Q. What difference in the general bearing of these two branches of art is noticed in the history of this time? A. Painting illustrates the continuity of history between the Middle Age and the Renaissance, and architecture the break between the two periods.

22. Q. What are the most important monumental paintings of the sixteenth century? A. The decorations of the Sistine Chapel, and the wall paintings of the Vatican; and the decorations of the Doge's Palace.

23. Q. What incongruities are to be noted in the paintings of this period? A. Realism led to much anachronism, Bible scenes being represented as occurring in the actual Italian life of the period.

24. Q. What is the first question to be asked of these old pictures? A. What they teach about the people for whom they were made.

25. Q. How may the Italian art of the sixteenth century be viewed in relation to religion? A. As a translation of the Bible into the language of forms.

"FROM CHAUCER TO TENNYSON."

1. Q. Name one of the earliest and still one of the best novels of domestic life. A. Goldsmith's "Vicar of Wakefield."

2. Q. Of what was the novel beginning to take the place at this time? A. The stage.

3. Q. Who brought once more into British song a strong individual feeling? A. Cowper and Burns.

4. Q. How is Cowper described? A. As the poet of family affection, domestic life, and rural retirement.

5. Q. How does Robert Burns rank in literature? A. As the best of British song-writers.

6. Q. What were his qualities as a poet? A. Sincerity, a love for the beautiful, and a sympathy which embraced men, animals, and the dumb objects of nature.

7. Q. In what single period of literary history did the burst of creative activity at the beginning of the nineteenth century find a parallel? A. In the Elizabethan age.

8. Q. How does the later period surpass the earlier? A. It produced a greater number of important writers, a higher average of excellence, and a wider range and variety of work.

9. Q. What formed a special feature of the literature of this time? A. The rapid multiplication of periodicals.

10. Q. Name two influences of foreign origin

which made themselves felt in the first half of the century. A. The new German literature and the French Revolution.

11. Q. Who formed the leading members in the group of writers known as the Lake Poets? A. Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Southey.

12. Q. Next to whom is Wordsworth ranked by many as a poet? A. Milton.

13. Q. What was Wordsworth's office in poetry? A. The moral interpretation of nature.

14. Q. How is Coleridge described? A. As pre-eminently the thinker among the literary men of his day.

15. Q. Name the most famous of De Quincey's writings. A. "Confessions of an English Opium Eater."

16. Q. Who was kindly caricatured by Dickens in "Bleak House"? A. Walter Savage Landor, the most purely classical of English writers.

17. Q. Who was the most charming of English essayists? A. Charles Lamb.

18. Q. In whom did the romantic movement culminate? A. Walter Scott.

19. Q. What forms, perhaps, the most marvelous literary feat on record? A. The writing of the Waverly novels, some thirty in number.

20. Q. How does Scott's personality affect his readers? A. It awakens in them a warm personal affection.

21. Q. What work of Byron's opened a new field to poetry and gave him fame? A. "Childe Harold," a romance of travel.

22. Q. Why did Byron's poetry make so deep an impression on his contemporaries? A. Because it rebelled against the ruling of the state, church, and society of his day.

23. Q. Whose melodies are compared to Burns' in musical qualities? A. Thomas Moore's.

24. Q. How are Shelley's writings described? A. As too romantic and ethereal.

25. Q. What was the distinguishing trait of Keats? A. He was, above all things, an artist.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—VI.

1. Who is said to have created the English tragic drama?

2. During the Restoration who were the four representative dramatists?

3. What eighteenth century actor restored Shakespeare's plays to the stage, arranged a jubilee in honor of Shakespeare at Stratford-on-Avon, and was finally buried beneath the monument of Shakespeare?

4. Which of the well-known English dramatists was jester at the court of Henry VIII.?

5. At what period in its history was the English drama most corrupt?

6. What celebrated work produced a great reform in the English drama?

7. Who has been considered the most successful dramatist of the nineteenth century, and what are his most popular dramas?

8. What family has been most illustrious in the history of the English stage?

9. What English actor and actress now living are best known to Americans?

10. What English dramatist leads the drama of the world?

WOMAN'S WORLD.—VI.

1. What five women in our time have received the LL.D. degree?

2. Who is the only ruler of the Israelites who has escaped unproved by the prophets and inspired historians?

3. Name one woman famed for pleading causes in the Athenian forum; two in the Roman forum.

4. Who is the first woman of modern Italy to receive a doctor's degree in law?

5. What other three women are entitled to write doctor of laws after their names?

6. Who was the pioneer woman of modern times to be invested with the powers of attorney? By what court?

7. What woman since the colonial days first asked for and obtained admission to the bar of this country?

8. To whom belongs the distinction of being the first woman admitted to practice before the Supreme Court of the United States?

9. Who was the first woman to graduate from a law school in this or any other country?

10. What association of international scope is known as "The Equity Club"?

ART.—VI.

1. What was the significance of the color used in painting the garments of the Virgin Mary and Child,—the Mother's tunic being almost invariably red and her mantle blue?

2. When the enthroned Mother is represented as holding a book, what interpretation is to be given to the picture?

3. The Child is represented sometimes as holding in his hand a globe, an apple, a pomegranate, a bird, a flower, some heads of wheat, some grapes; of what are these typical?

4. How is the sword often found in the pictures of the Madonna,—frequently piercing her breast,—to be interpreted?

5. The authority of the church made the Virgin the queen of certain classes of persons (and spirits), and from among these her attendants in paintings are mostly selected; who were these beings?

6. The fathers of the church appear in many pictures significantly near the throne of the Madonna and Child; what is the import of this?

7. The most popular attendant of the Virgin and Child is, perhaps, St. Catherine of Siena; who was she?

8. How many pictures of the Immaculate Conception were painted by Murillo?

9. In Raphael's celebrated "Sistine Madonna" who is the pope kneeling in adoration at the left, and who the saint at the right?

10. In Titian's "Madonna with the White Lady" in the Museum at Dresden, who is the lady richly robed in white?

CURRENT EVENTS.—VI.*

1. How many presidents has France had since the overthrow of the third empire?

2. Has any one of the French presidents served out his term of seven years?

3. What condition, very liable to arise in France, makes it almost necessary for a president to resign—a condition showing a weakness in the French constitution?

4. What is the religious faith of the present president of France?

5. What way of adding to the Treasury's receipts of gold was suggested by President Cleveland in his recent message to Congress?

6. Under what authority are the expected forthcoming United States bonds to be issued?

7. What is the origin of the by-word, "not worth a Continental"?

8. Of what does the pope say in his recent encyclical that "the type of the most desirable status" is not to be sought in America?

9. How does Mayor Strong propose to settle the question of the sale of liquors on Sunday?

10. Who were the two chief conspirators in the recent Hawaiian insurrection?

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—V.

1. The drama. 2. The Bible, by the church, to instruct the illiterate in Scriptural history and to extend her influence by engrossing the sources of popular recreation. 3. The clergy, who were quite frequently the actors also.

4. Miracle plays or mysteries, as mysterious subjects were chosen. 5. From the beginning of the twelfth to the beginning of the fifteenth century. 6. The moral plays, or moralities, in which not a history but an apologue was represented, and all the characters were allegorical. 7. The dramatic productions of John Heywood, called "interludes." 8. "Ralph Roister Doister," written by Nicholas Udall in 1551. 9. In 1562 Thomas Sackville produced "Gorboduc," or the tragedy of Ferrex and Parrex. Thomas Norton is said by some to have assisted in the writing of it. 10. The London Theater about 1576.

WOMAN'S WORLD.—V.

1. Mary Magdalene. 2. The school established in 1835 at Kaiserswerth, Prussia. 3. America, in the first century of its history. 4. Anne Hutchinson. 5. She was a living argument to prove that eminent public service by woman is not incompatible with the best home-making and most thrifty housekeeping. 6. Susanna Wesley. 7. The "Countess of Huntingdon's connection." 8. Universalist church, to St. Lawrence University. 9. A fellowship of women preachers, whether ordained or not, of all denominations. June 2, 1882. 10. Pocahontas.

ART.—V.

1. Constantinople. 2. Stiffness of figure, features void of expression, conventional attitudes, and bright colors. 3. The capture of Constantinople by the Venetians in 1204. 4. Bible story. 5. Upon the walls of the churches in fresco. 6. They believed that they shared with the clergy the tasks of instructing the people. 7. To Cimabue. 8. Giotto. 9. Giotto. 10. Florence.

CURRENT EVENTS.—V.

1. In 1826. 2. The latter route, though less costly, was the longer one; many locks would be necessary, and it was feared that the stone work would be demolished by the earthquakes of the region. 3. That an annual tax shall be collected on all national bank notes sufficient to make good losses which may occur through bank failures. 4. John Burns. 5. No. 6. When sent to Parliament Mr. Burns was earning his living by working as an engineer. Having to give up his daily labor, the workmen of his district subscribed a fund to maintain him, which fund counting all sources, amounted to only about \$15 a week. He refused to accept anything outside of this. 7. The sending of agents into foreign countries to inspect such immigrants. 8. His stepson, Mr. Lloyd Osbourne. 9. The surrender of two Japanese spies to Chinese authorities by whom they were tortured to death. 10. In 1861. That of major.

*This set of questions is based upon the topics treated in *Current History and Opinion* in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1898.

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

"The truth shall make you free."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. F. Crafts, Pittsburg, Pa.
Vice Presidents—Prof. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.; the Rev. J. B. Morton, Winter Park, Fla.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.; George P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.; Robert A. Miller, Canton, O.; Mrs. H. S. Hawes, Richmond, Va.

Recording Secretary—Miss Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.

Treasurer—R. M. Alden, 625 Maryland Avenue, Washington, D. C.

Trustee—George Hukill, Oil City, Pa.

Historian—Miss Janette Trowbridge, New Haven, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—NASTURTIUM.

CLASS EMBLEM—A BLUE RIBBON.

So far '95's have shown themselves quite up to the standard attained by their predecessors in '94, and it is expected that the enthusiasm of the class will increase as the goal approaches. Much class spirit has always been characteristic of '95's and a delightful season at Chautauqua and at the other Assemblies is anticipated. That the work is being done by many under great obstacles is shown by occasional letters received similar to the following: "This is my fourth year and it is by the hardest effort that I can possibly prosecute the work. The reading fills a long felt want. I am a busy housewife and mother, but wish I had more time so that I could do my C. L. S. C. work better."

Another writes, "The course of reading has been a source of pleasure and inspiration to me. The time I have spent on it has been the spare minutes."

CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

"Truth is eternal."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. Chas. C. Johnson, Arcade, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—R. C. Browning, Orange, N. J.; Mrs. Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Cynthia I. Boyd, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna Hodgson, Athens, Ga.; F. G. Lewis, Manitoba; Oliver Ellsworth, Niles, Cal.; Mrs. Wheaton Smith, Detroit, Mich.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Anna J. Young, 237 Wylie Ave., Pittsburg, Pa.

Recording Secretary—Miss Grace G. Merritt, Montclair, N. J.

Treasurer and Class Trustee—John A. Seaton, Glen Park Place, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

Two members of '96 from Colorado write: "We have enjoyed our course of study this year very much. We have a home circle of two, living on a farm almost under the shadow of the Rocky Mountains. It is not convenient to join a larger circle, there being none nearer than Denver. You will find enclosed the memoranda for the Shakespeare

course. We hope before our four years' course is done to visit Chautauqua."

CLASS OF 1897.—"THE ROMANS."

"Veni, vidi, vici."

OFFICERS.

President—Prof. F. J. Miller, University of Chicago.

Vice Presidents—Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss.; Mrs. M. T. Gawthrop, Swarthmore, Pa.; Mrs. G. B. Driscoll, Sidney, O.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; the Rev. James E. Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, New South Wales; Charles E. Boyd, Cambridge, Mass.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Dayton, O.

Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Meadville, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

THE Romans are making an excellent record in this their second year, although they will need to bestir themselves a little if they would keep quite up to the attainments of '96. There are doubtless many members who are intending to report but who have neglected to do so, and a friendly reminder from some fellow Chautauquan would help to keep these delinquents in the rank. Let every member of '97 become personally responsible for the strength of the class, and the best results will be assured.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Walter L. Hervey, New York City.

Vice Presidents—Clifford Lanier, Montgomery, Ala.; Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.; Dr. Richard T. Ely, Madison, Wis.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York City; the Rev. Mr. Parker, New Orleans, La.; Miss J. Solomon, South Africa; Miss Eliot Henderson, Montreal, Can.; the Rev. Mr. Chalfont, China; Dr. J. E. Williams, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Josephine R. Webber, Waltham, Mass.; Dr. J. W. Hartigan, Morgantown, W. Va.

Treasurer and Trustee—The Rev. Mr. Whistler, Kenton, O.

Secretary—Miss Elizabeth Brown, Janesville, Wis.

FLOWER—VIOLET.

A CAREFUL survey of the enrollment of the Class of '98 up to January 1, shows an encouraging degree of interest. The states which have made the greatest advance are New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois. During the World's Fair Chautauqua interests were somewhat interrupted in the latter state, but the gain has been most remarkable and Illinois promises to make a very large enrollment this year. Massachusetts has also taken a decided step forward, and in many of the southern states the growth has been quite marked.

SEVERAL letters have been received from foreign lands. One from Mexico requests information

regarding the C. L. S. C. Another from Guatemala bears a similar request. From Petchaburee, Siam, a correspondent writes: "I am living among a people of the sixteenth century, but I myself belong to the nineteenth, and if the C. L. S. C. is a cable strong enough to reach the shores of Siam, I shall be pleased to join."

Another letter, dated on board a steamer off the coast of southern Florida, brings the following report: "It may seem strange to receive an addition to Chautauqua readers from the high seas, but in my hurry in leaving the States I did not have time to write, as I intended doing. Hence this letter which I expect to mail at Havana, Cuba, to-morrow." Our correspondent encloses the fees for himself and wife for membership in the Class of '98, and adds that he is on his way to a new field of work in Mexico.

FROM a Minnesota town comes another foreign contribution: "I am a Norwegian. I have only been in this country seven years; have worked myself up to a country school teacher of second grade certificate. I would like to get a good education, but am poor, and cannot get the means to attend school as I have to help some relatives in Norway. Do you think it would be well and wise for me to join your reading by correspondence?"

A MEMBER who entered the class rather late in the year writes: "I am going to catch up with the Class of '98 if I can satisfactorily. My youngest child is now in his junior year in Rutgers College. I must keep pace with him as far as I can."

GRADUATES.

THE CLASS of '89 are rejoicing in the fact that their share of the expense in the Class Building has been very nearly met. There remains only about fifteen dollars to be raised, which amount will wipe out the indebtedness and cover the janitor's fee for the coming summer, so that members of the class who gather at Chautauqua will have no further solicitude on the subject of expense. Miss Shotwell, the president, has been very successful in securing contributions from Brooklyn members, more than fifty dollars having been contributed by these members of the class. The small amount remaining can easily be met if those who have not contributed or who feel willing to make a slight additional contribution will send the amount to Mr. O. M. Allen, 351 Massachusetts St., Buffalo, N. Y.

GRADUATES continue to show their interest in post graduate courses. The new Current History Course had enrolled up to the first of January several hundred readers, but the interest shown seems to have no effect upon the interest of graduates in other more extended courses of study. The number enrolled for special courses and for the review of the regular course is in excess of that of last year.

The Bible memoranda recently prepared, offer rare facilities for the study of the Bible. A valuable pamphlet of suggestions and a new set of memoranda will be furnished to every graduate wishing to take this course who sends the fee of fifty cents; those who have taken the course on the old plan will receive an additional seal if they take the new course.

The English and American courses still claim a great many readers, and the art and Shakespeare students are numerous.

The latest course offered to graduates is that on sociology, prepared by Mr. Howerth of the University of Chicago. This course includes four books, a careful study of which will be of absorbing interest to those who are entering into the discussion of the living problems around us. A most valuable pamphlet of suggestions has been prepared by Mr. Howerth, and graduates are congratulated upon this opportunity to make an intelligent study of a subject which promises to claim more and more attention.

FROM Worcester, Mass.: "Allow me to express my appreciation of the Chautauqua course of reading, which I have enjoyed more than any course of reading I have ever taken and from which I have secured great benefit and satisfaction. I have been surprised to find that although I lead a very busy life, still by taking the spare minutes which I should not use for anything else, I have been able to finish my reading even earlier than July 1. I intend to complete the course to graduation and then take special courses for several years to come."

A GRADUATE of the Class of '92 who proposes to take the Current History Course writes: "I am seventy-nine years old. I am still ambitious and do not feel willing to settle down to be a petrified old woman yet, and feel the need of a systematic course of study to stimulate me to action."

A CHAUTAUQUA reader in England who has been connected with the C. L. S. C. for some years, writes: "I am very anxious to become a real member, reading the course and taking the seals and diploma of the C. L. S. C. I suffered so much from influenza last winter that I read hardly at all, so am hopelessly behind; but shall be much obliged if you will be so good as to allow me to fall into the Class of '98, then I can begin with great interest the new year. I like the C. L. S. C. so much that I do not mind having joined so many years ago, although I shall be very glad to gain the honors which am now determined, if permitted, to do, but even without them, it is all very interesting." We are glad to welcome this Chautauquan into the Class of '98, and feel sure that under more favorable conditions she will be able to finish the course with her classmates.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

WILLIAM WORDSWORTH DAY—March 15.

ROBERT BROWNING DAY—April 5.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

JEWISH C. L. S. C. PROGRESS.

DR. HENRY BERKOWITZ, head of the Department of Jewish Studies in the Chautauqua System, reports steady progress in his department. He writes that circles have recently been formed in Richmond, Va., Newark, N. J., and in New York City, and that at a meeting of circle representatives in Philadelphia a motion was passed to form into a union all the circles of the C. L. S. C. and individual readers in the city, a union from which Jewish Chautauquans hope to gain aid in their studies. There is also a movement on foot for the establishment of a Jewish summer Assembly. For those who are not familiar with the Jewish feature of Chautauqua work it may be stated that the members of the department of Jewish studies pursue the regular C. L. S. C. course with some modification of the religious readings to suit their special needs. Dr. Berkowitz, who was at Chautauqua in 1893, has been the moving spirit in the enterprise, and last year several hundred members were enrolled in this department. Dr. Berkowitz writes that he is devoting the proceeds of lectures before societies to the furtherance of Chautauqua work.

ALTHOUGH it is late in the season for much aggressive work, reports are still being received from county secretaries telling of Vesper Services which have been held and of attempts at circle organizations which promise to result in an increase of interest during the next Chautauqua year.

A CHAUTAUQUA column in *The Atlanta Weekly Constitution* has been secured by the Chautauqua southern secretary, Miss Love. The column was inaugurated in the issue of December 17, and this weekly announcement of Chautauqua plans and courses with items of special interest to southern readers will undoubtedly awaken much interest in various parts of the South. A recent letter from a correspondent in South Carolina expresses much interest in the proposed arrangement. Southern Chautauquans and secretaries of circles would do

well to send a message of greeting to the editor of this Chautauqua column. It would be heartily appreciated. Any communications should be addressed to Mrs. William King, 480 Courtland Ave., Atlanta, Ga.

A SECRETARY for McPherson County, Kan., writes: "The Chautauqua leaven is beginning to work. We are to have a small circle started here as soon as the books arrive." This circle is starting quite late in the year, but the members will doubtless develop sufficient enthusiasm to carry the work through the summer months and be ready for the work in the fall.

It is with sincere regret that we record the death of Miss Myra Manning of Oshkosh, Wis., which occurred after a brief illness on January 20th. Miss Manning was for many years state secretary for Wisconsin, and took personal charge of the C. L. S. C. work at Monona Lake Assembly. She held a responsible position as teacher in the Oshkosh High School, and was one of the officers of the State Society of Christian Endeavor. In both of these lines of work she made her influence as secretary for the C. L. S. C. felt very widely, and her enthusiastic devotion to the cause was a source of great strength to C. L. S. C. work in Wisconsin. Her life was one of great unselfishness and thorough devotion to whatever duty came to her hand, and she will be greatly missed in many lines of usefulness where her influence was strongly felt.

NEW CIRCLES.

MAINE.—Ten names are sent from Norway for enrollment in the Class of '98.

MASSACHUSETTS.—At Hyannis there has been organized a circle of nine vigorous members, who are trying to interest others in the work.

CONNECTICUT.—Circles report from Westville and Nichols.

NEW YORK.—The S. H. G. rally, held for convenience' sake at Point O' Woods, L. I., at the time of the Long Island Assembly last summer, called

forth fifty graduates who formed a promising organization. Many of them signified their intention of taking the Current History course. It is hoped that other Chautauquans in this section will avail themselves of this society to keep active their C. L. S. C. spirit and interests.—Very much in earnest though as yet a small organization, is the report of a class at Fordham.—News is received of circle work at Bloomville, Cooperstown, and Rosendale.—Knowledge Seeking Circle, of Jamestown has for its motto, "Seek and ye shall find." Its ten members make their meetings full of interest and enjoyment.—The class at Westchester has seven members taking the full course and five others pursuing the magazine reading only.—The people at Holland Patent seem to have been waiting for something of the nature of the C. L. S. C. In the circle there twenty-one persons are reading the books and magazine and more are to begin. Spirited and intelligent discussions are held on current topics. All are enthusiastic and ready to work.—A circle called the Laurel C. L. S. C. has been organized in connection with the Lee Avenue Congregational Church of Brooklyn. Its twelve members will try to catch up with the readings, and are also planning aggressive measures for the propagation of the Chautauqua idea. Another circle reports from the same city.

NEW JERSEY.—There is a fine C. L. S. C. at Oceanic.—At Shiloh there is a very interesting circle, several of whose members are graduates.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A new circle, organized at Nebraska, by one of the members of the circle at Tionesta, has twelve members, and several others have expressed their intention of joining. Tionesta Chautauquans also have prospects of another circle in a nearby town. Their scribe in writing asked for Chautauqua circulars for distribution at the county teachers' institute.—Titusville has a class of about thirteen members, some of whom intend to join the regular class and some to read with the circle just for pleasure and present benefit.—At Oliphant a quartet of Chautauquans are at work on the English History and Literature course. They prepare questions on and discuss the readings, and for this purpose hold meetings each week, which though informal are full of inspiration.—A small circle reports from Wattsburg.

TENNESSEE.—Names are received for enrollment from Memphis.

MISSISSIPPI.—Twelve ladies composing the Neighborhood Reading Club of Aberdeen, upon the submission to them of a set of books, decided to adopt the C. L. S. C. studies and to enter the class of '98 as the West End Literary Club of Aberdeen. They are delighted with the course and determined to complete the four years' work. They meet every Thursday afternoon from 3:30 to 5:00, to read aloud and exchange ideas and books.

ARKANSAS.—This from the scribe at Stuttgart: "I am glad to report a prosperous and interesting circle. It was only by persistent effort that we effected an organization, and as we began nearly a month late, it is a matter of congratulation that we are now abreast with the work."—A cordial welcome is extended to the local circle of about thirty members, at Hot Springs, who want to become regular members.

OHIO.—The circle organized in the fall at Sydney has secured a firm footing in the ranks of C. L. S. C. organizations. Four new members have joined the enthusiastic charter members.—Five C. L. S. C. graduates have formed a circle at Pomeroy for the purpose of reading the Garnet Seal series and Current History and Opinion. The secretary writes: "We like the Current History and think it the best of THE CHAUTAUQUAN's many good things."—It is inspiring to record the enlistment of '98's galore from Mason and Pleasant Hill.

INDIANA.—A new club organized in South Bend to begin work the first of October, is christened Gladstone Circle. It started out with twenty-five names on the list, not all the members having enrolled at headquarters. The organizer and president of this association of young people has been a Chautauqua worker for nine years.—The society of fourteen members at Moore's Hill is getting along nicely with the work.—The C. L. S. C. at Winamac was formally organized October 6, with a membership of twelve, the president being the only member that had taken part of the work before. The weekly meetings have been very interesting, and enthusiasm seems constantly increasing. The members "are doing considerable work as outlined in the Suggestive Programs, and would like to do all of it if time permitted."

ILLINOIS.—Brief news is received of circles begun at Chicago, Petersburg, and Franklin Grove.—A circle of fifteen capable women has been successfully organized at Cairo, with the membership limited to the present number. The class is thriving both socially and intellectually. There is prospect of another fine circle here, of about the same size.

MICHIGAN.—A league class has been formed at Lansing of more than thirty members, most of whom try to meet for study. Some of them have been compelled to pursue the work at home, but nearly all expect to finish the entire course.—C. L. S. C. students report from West Bay City.—The secretary *pro tem* of the club at Fenton writes: "We have a very enthusiastic circle here, and have concluded to take the Shakespeare course, also to study in connection with it 'Europe in the Nineteenth Century,' and Current History in THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

WISCONSIN.—There is an informal circle of elderly ladies at the South Side of Racine, and prospect

of a circle at the North Side.—A class of fifteen members is working at Oshkosh, and another of the same size at Evansville, also a new class at Fond du Lac.

MINNESOTA.—“A Chautauqua circle has been organized in St. Anthony Park. The meetings are led by the president assisted by a program committee and an active interest is taken in the course. The circle comprises eleven members, some of whom have had experience in former circles.”—Recruits from Lamberton and Crookston will be welcomed by '98's.

IOWA.—The circle at Waverly is interested in the work, especially the Current History course.—Hartley and Griswold contribute names for enrollment, the list mailed at the latter place representing Pleasant Ridge Lanier C. L. S. C., an ambitious and growing class.

MISSOURI.—From Sedalia are sent the addresses of twelve persons with the request: “Please send the 12-page memoranda to each of these and also the memoranda for the Current History and Opinion series.”—Brief reports are given by a large class at Westboro and a small one at Princeton, and from circles at Cameron and Mt. Grove.—The Somerset Circle of Joplin, named in honor of Lady Henry Somerset, has sixteen active members.

KANSAS.—There is a circle of fourteen at Delphos. “As a whole they are doing good work and are anticipating a lecture course.”

NEBRASKA.—Another circle has been organized at Lincoln and one at Syracuse.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—There is a live circle at Vermillion.

COLORADO.—Windsor Circle sends another name for enrollment. All its members enjoy the work and are making progress.—This from the secretary at South Denver: “I take pleasure in telling you that a very flourishing circle was organized in South Denver on September 27, with a membership of twenty. Several of the members are graduates but intend going over the course again. The interest of the members has been remarkable and we have a full attendance at every meeting.”—There was held at Denver a Chautauqua convention, at which there was much profitable conferring about methods of conducting circles, suggestions for the extension of C. L. S. C. work in the city, etc. At the close of the convention a Denver Chautauqua Alumni Association was formed. The scribe says: “We find we have more than forty Chautauqua graduates in the city, and are making an effort to enlist their co-operation in extending the Chautauqua work. There is also a desire to pursue some of the advanced courses of study.”

CALIFORNIA.—Chautauquans will feel like taking off their hats to a vigorous small circle in Los Angeles that holds forth afternoons, when they learn

that some of its members ride fourteen miles to attend these meetings.—About a dozen prospective Chautauquans have laid a good foundation for a circle at Pasadena. They are inexperienced in the work, but indomitable.

OREGON.—The following letter is received from Monroe: “Five of us boys in this vicinity have organized a local circle and at present are doing good work. We have an excellent leader and I think will progress nicely.”—There is a class of fifteen members at Enterprise.—The Virginia City class has increased its membership to fifteen.—From the seaside resort called Pacific Grove comes the fine report of twenty-four members enrolled.

MONTANA.—Brief news is received from the C. L. S. C. at Butte.

OLD CIRCLES.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Hurlbut Circle of East Boston anticipates good work and new members.

RHODE ISLAND.—The enthusiasm of the Vigilants of Providence does not permit them to miss a meeting.

CONNECTICUT.—A class of seventeen ladies at Suffield are pursuing the Bible readings.

NEW YORK.—St. Luke Chautauqua Circle of Albany has changed its name to Clinton Ave. Chautauqua Circle. It has ten new members and will be more aggressive than heretofore.—The Syracuse C. L. S. C. alumni association's first meeting of the year was a successful event. One feature of the evening was the guessing of literary conundrums.—Onondaga Circle of Syracuse is flourishing.

“Edelweiss Circle of Mt. Vernon,” writes the secretary of that circle, “entered upon its third year with increased zeal and interest. Our membership the first year was forty-two, the second thirty-five, and we opened this season with thirty-four. However the decrease in numbers has left the circle composed entirely of live, earnest workers.”—Sunnyside Circle of Tarrytown, and circles at Candor and Three Mile Bay have resumed their studies.—Interest continues to be manifested by the fifty members of Epworth C. L. S. C. of the First M. E. Church of Jamestown.—In the circle at Jamaica, now on its eighth year, are a number of faithful Chautauquans, including its leader, who have been members of the class since its organization.—Strong Place C. L. S. C. of Brooklyn issues fine printed programs for its meetings, which are held every two weeks.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Columbian Circle of Allegheny considers the English year the best yet. Its map study is brimful of interest.—The circle at Boyerton consisting of a dozen regular members, is in flourishing condition.—In Reading St. Andrew's Circle has secured six new readers, and with its eight faithful last year's members, expects to prosper.—Athenian Circle of the same place is reorganized.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Members of Timrod Circle of

Charleston all registered this year. Some of them had read several years of the course, with which upon making the proper application they were credited.

KENTUCKY.—There is a fine circle of six at Hustonville who enjoy their studies.

ARKANSAS.—Sequoyah C. L. S. C. of Fort Smith retains its old membership in its new work.—The little band of students at Huntington has advanced from a family circle to a local organization.

TEXAS.—The circle at Honey Grove hopes to outshine its former record.

INDIANA.—There is a bright and energetic circle at Walkerton.—Maumee Circle of Fort Wayne has pleasant anticipations for the coming readings.

—At one of its earlier meetings members of Bryant Circle of Terre Haute were presented with handsome finely planned programs for 1894-5.—An attractive booklet containing the circle's program for the year's work is received with the following report: "Vincent Circle of La Fayette this winter enjoys an active membership of twenty-five, six of whom are enrolled in the class of '98."

ILLINOIS.—Washburn Circle has a fine record, having begun the year with seven old members and ten new ones.—Hawthorne Circle of Woodstock finds this English year especially interesting because its leader spent last year in England.—Byron Circle started out with a membership of eleven and bright prospects of an increase in numbers.—The circle at Minonk "is moving along nicely," writes the scribe. "Last year there were only two of us but this year there are ten working members and two honoraries."

IOWA.—There is a live circle at Castana.—Osceola '95's reorganized with twelve members. In addition to the regular work they are reading from Shakespeare.—The following letter is received from Des Moines: "Frank Russell Chautauqua Circle reorganized the last of September, has now twelve members, Athena Circle, one of the best working clubs in the city having united with it. Frank Russell Circle and Vincent Circle No. 1 are both the outgrowth of twelve years' continuous Chautauqua work of three enthusiastic students. Frank Russell Circle belongs to the Iowa State Federation of clubs, and has applied for membership in the National Federation."

KANSAS.—Ascendants of Independence send sixteen names for enrollment, half of which are to be entered with the Class of '98.—College Hill Circle of Winfield began the year with ten members, who are in the habit of doing thorough work. A number of them are on the Garnet Seal course.—Louisburg and Herington Circles are at their studies.

NEBRASKA.—"Few in number but enthusiastic in the work," is the news from Lexington Circle.—Seward St. Chautauqua Circle of Omaha has added several new students to its band of diligent workers.

COLORADO.—Circles Silver Queen of Georgetown, Columbian of Highlands, and the one at Arvada are prospering.

OREGON.—Si-wock-ti Si-mox Circle of Salem is doing good work. The secretary says, "There are twenty-five names enrolled. Those who have been able to continue through the four years of the circle's existence feel they have received valuable reward." —Willamette C. L. S. C. of Portland is an organization of forty members, characterized by variety, liveliness, and success. Multnomah Circle of the same place, at last hearing, was about to recruit its forces.

FLORIDA CHAUTAUQUA.

The Eleventh Annual Session of this well known Chautauqua will be held in its beautiful home, at De Funiak Springs, Florida, February 21st to March 20th.

Dr. W. L. Davidson, whose reputation as a Chautauqua worker, is second to none, has made the program and will manage the Assembly. The very best in every line that can be procured will appear on the platform from time to time.

Dr. H. R. Palmer will have charge of the music. Rogers' Goshen Band and Orchestra will furnish music daily during the session; the English Hand Bell Ringers, the Schumann Male Quartet, the Barnesville Mandolin and Guitar Club, will give numerous concerts; Milo Deyo, the famous gypsy pianist, late of Paris, Miss Hortense Pierse, Mrs. Eleanor Terry, and others will sing. A violinist, harpist, and flutist, will also add to the harmony of the occasion. Impersonations by the well known Herbert A. Sprague, illustrated lectures by Mrs. French-Sheldon, the great African explorer, and elocutionary recitals by Prof. S. H. Clark of the Chicago University will fill many hours with pleasure and profit.

On the lecture platform will appear the Hon. Wallace Bruce, Dr. David James Burrell, Prof. Chas. Lane, Dr. E. P. Ingersoll, the Rev. D. E. E. Hoss, Prof. W. H. Dana, Dr. T. T. Eaton, Mr. Hunt Chipley, Dr. W. H. Locke, Prof. John C. Freeman, Judge Hiram Sibley, Dr. John Merritte Driver, Dr. A. W. Lamar, the Rev. G. M. Brown and many others.

A feature of the program will be a discussion on the Shakespeare-Bacon question, between the Hon. Wallace Bruce and Ignatius Donnelly.

Sunday school normal classes will be conducted by Mrs. Wilbur F. Crafts and Prof. N. M. Hamil, Dr. M. M. Parkhurst will conduct Biblical Expositions and Ministers' Institute. There will be classes in art, kindergarten, Delsarte, elocution, physical culture, and photography, in the charge of competent instructors. Every day will be filled full of the best things which genius can devise or money procure. Splendid accommodations can be procured at from \$7 to \$15. Reduced rates on all railroads.

For detailed illustrated program, with all information, write to the secretary, Thomas F. McGourin, De Funiak Springs, Florida.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

**The Century
Cyclopedia of
Names.** A notable instance showing how a good work grows in its projector's hands, is "The Century Cyclopedia of Names."^{*} At first designed to be only an appendix to the last volume of "The Century Dictionary," it became too unwieldy for such disposition and demanded a large volume for itself. No more useful reference book was ever published, no publication ever responded more adequately and more satisfactorily to seekers after knowledge than does this one. It is a remarkably complete register and commentary not only as far as the proper names belonging to biography and geography are concerned, but including also "names of races and tribes, mythological and legendary persons and places, characters and objects in fiction, stars and constellations, notable buildings and archaeological monuments, works of art, institutions (academies, universities, societies, legislative bodies, orders, clubs, etc.), historical events (wars, battles, treaties, conventions, etc.), sects, parties, noted streets and squares, books, plays, operas, and even celebrated gems, vessels (warships, yachts, etc.), and horses. Pseudonyms also which have literary importance are included." Thus it is readily seen that it furnishes the keys which will open the doorways into countless domains of life. In its mechanical make-up it matches the volumes of The Century Dictionary, and is the necessary complement of that work while it also forms of itself an entirely independent book.

Social England. A work which is destined to occupy a high place among the more important of those relating to the development of the English people† is that now being issued by Messrs. G. P. Putnam's Sons. It is to consist of a series of six octavo volumes dealing with the progress of the people of England in religion, laws, learning, arts, science, literature, industry, commerce, and manners, from the earliest times to the present day. Of these, two volumes have already been issued. In the first, which continues from the earliest times to the accession of Edward the First, the admirable character and scope of the undertaking are very plainly in evidence. The introduction by the editor of the series is in itself an important and discriminating piece of work in which the general subjects are coördinated and their rela-

tions and interdependence thoroughly set forth. Nineteen specialists then tell the story of English social life, their treatment of subjects following so connectedly one after another that the whole is a complete unbroken social picture of the period. Twenty-one experts in the second volume bring the history of Social England down to the close of the reign of Henry VIII. The work is not in any sense a compilation. Instead it is a history discriminating and authentic in its treatment of important details, an encyclopedia remarkable for its comprehensiveness and scope, the whole the work of master minds whose essays join one another in proper sequence, the sum total of which is an authoritative, interesting, instructive story of historical development than which there is none more important. It is not a glaring panorama but a finished mosaic. Invaluable to the historical scholar and student as an authoritative history and indispensable to those of intellectual sensibilities who would consult a reliable work from time to time, it is none the less engaging for the general reader who would extend his knowledge of the manners, customs, and institutions of the people of a great nation during all the years of their progress and development.

**The Study of
Society.** Among the multitude of terms now employed to indicate the precise character of particular scientific methods, to designate and set off in orderly groups distinct social subjects for scientific inquiry, none perhaps have been used with more freedom, lack of concern, or less of real comprehension than the inclusive and indefinite title Social Science or, more specifically and what is more to the point, Sociology. What sociology is, of what it properly treats, together with its relation to political economy and other sciences have for long been matters of extreme doubt even in the minds of those especially concerned with its development. If sociology is a science, its exponents have been slow in affording a demonstration of the claim, while as a scientific method the limits of its application have not been definitely set. Doubtless these conditions have had much to do with preventing a thorough understanding of sociology; moreover they have made a new and able treatise on the subject a real desideratum. This has been admirably supplied in the book entitled "An Introduction to the Study of Society,"^{*}

^{*}The Century Cyclopedia of Names. A Pronouncing and Etymological Dictionary. Edited by Benjamin E. Smith, A. M. 1085 pp. New York: The Century Company.

† Social England. By various writers. Edited by H. D. Trall, D. C. L. Sometime Fellow of St. Johns College. Oxford.

Second edition. Octavo, Vol. I., 560 pp.; Vol. II., 587 pp. Each, \$3.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

^{*}An Introduction to the Study of Society. By Albion W. Small, Ph. D., Head Professor of Sociology in the University of Chicago and George E. Vincent, Vice-Principal of the Chautau-

the pioneer in this field in the United States. In this volume, sociology is discussed under the following general titles: the origin and scope of sociology, the natural history of a society, social anatomy, physiology, pathology, and psychology. Sociology the authors conceive to be "nothing but systematic knowledge of human beings; the organization of all the material furnished by the positive study of society." Sociology is held to occupy a "natural and appropriate position in the hierarchy of the sciences." The volume is given over to a discussion of the historical and analytical division of sociology, which is termed Descriptive Sociology. "Sociology is first Descriptive—coordinates facts of society as it is; second, Statical—the ideal which right reason discloses of society as it ought to be; third, Dynamic—the available resources for changing the actual into the ideal." Following the critical and technical discussion of the fundamentals of sociology in Book I. there is presented in the four chapters of Book II. a concrete narrative describing the growth and development of a western community from its settlement by a single immigrant fifty years ago up to the present time. This story of the gradual formation of a modern city, which doubtless has many prototypes, is told with a charm of style that makes its reading a real fascination. This, added to the scientific arrangement of the matter and the plainly accurate conduct of the narrative, makes these chapters of especial interest and importance. In the remaining portions of the volume the authors exhibit "the real relations between the different kinds of activity to be discriminated in the observation of ordinary committees,—using in the interpretation of these relations the language of biology without, however, insisting upon the biological analogies employed as important in themselves." In the concluding chapter a review is taken of the preceding discussion. The book contains a number of sociological maps showing the structures of various social communities and the growth and distribution of public functions. The student will find the book uncommonly helpful in that there is a wealth of concrete illustration together with numerous suggestions for individual research and study. A valuable index completes the volume. Altogether this manual, which the authors very appropriately call a "laboratory guide," is a most admirable one. It affords the student for the first time a safe guide to the scientific study of society and places sociology on a plane where it may be approached and at last understood with no small degree of satisfaction by a very large number of interested people. The vigorous and polished English of the book is not the least of the characteristics which go to make of it a notable one plainly meriting the widest circulation.

qua System of Education. 384 pp. \$1.80. New York: American Book Company.

Studies in Art. A thoroughly systematic study of the evolution of the plastic art is made in "Schools and Masters of Sculpture."* Condensed but comprehensive accounts of the art as practiced by the old nations of the world are given, and are followed by more detailed descriptions of the work of the Greeks and Romans, and of the early Christians, and then of the Renaissance, medieval, and modern periods. The chapter devoted to the sculptors and sculpture of the nineteenth century is a remarkably clear and complete *résumé*. The book is illustrated with many photographs of the leading works of the great masters.

"A Text-Book of the History of Painting"† in its very title carries the idea of its usefulness; a swift glance over the many pictures with which its pages are illustrated shows its attractiveness; and it requires but a few minutes spent in its reading to prove it to be possessed of a high degree of interest. Going as far back toward the origin of painting as history makes possible, it traces the evolution of the art up to the present. The art motives of different lands and peoples, the technical methods followed, and the history of their efforts form the main outlines of each division which is filled out with its own appropriate details.

A series of essays making strong pleas for the education of the people into a true appreciation of art, forms the volume entitled "Art for America."‡ It is claimed by the author, and graphically urged, that one of the most educative tendencies of all those that can be brought to bear upon the human character is the ennobling influence exerted by a love of art. That Americans as a body are strangely deficient in knowledge of this nature is shown, and the position is taken that as the highest creations of art are only the flowering out of the spirit of the whole people, so that until the people of a nation are able to appreciate the best, the best cannot be produced in that nation.

Book of the Fair. The Transportation Building and its contents are so voluminously treated in "The Book of the Fair,"|| as, after having been begun in Part XIV., to require the whole of Part XV. and several pages in the succeeding number of the publication. A few general views of the grounds are given, but, aside from this, nothing interrupts the pictorial and written description of this one stupendous work. The artist mind is shown no less in the

* Schools and Masters of Sculpture. By A. G. Radcliffe. 393 pp. \$3.00. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† A History of Painting. By John C. Van Dyke, L. H. D. 289 pp. \$1.50. New York: Longmans, Green, and Co.

‡ Art for America. By William Ordway Partridge. 192 pp. \$1.00. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

|| The Book of the Fair. Parts Fifteen and Sixteen. \$1.00 each. Chicago and San Francisco: The Bancroft Company.

selection of the articles photographed than in the actual work of the pictures themselves; for, even without the aid of the text, a very clear idea of the evolution of many of the means of locomotion, from the crudest of beginnings up to the highly perfected specimens of the present time, may be gained. The details of the developments and all correlated matters of interest are very effectively given in the reading matter. The remainder of Part XVI. is devoted to the Live Stock Department and to Anthropology and Ethnology. The numerous pictures of the animals on exhibition are remarkably fine. The actual scenes down to the finest minutiae are reproduced in the illustrations, even the faintest shadows and the smallest reflections in the water appearing with marked distinctness.

Aids to Christian Living. Helpful words for everyday, practical use are spoken in the volume of "Herald Sermons."* How to be well equipped for life in its fullest sense—life which includes the here and the hereafter,—the author points out with brave, cheerful, loving directions whose import none can mistake, and whose guidance can lead only to noble endeavor and to Christian achievements.

How exactly literal men must learn to make and to accept the Sermon on the Mount before the blessings which it promises can be theirs, appears from the teachings of "Master and Men."† To change themselves instead of seeking to change their surroundings; to seek righteousness rather than pleasure—even though it be the highest kind of pleasure which Christians testify to experiencing as the results of righteousness,—are shown to be the lessons which mankind must learn.

"God's World"‡ is a volume of sermons which takes its name from the first sermon contained in it. That the world is not now what God meant it to be, but is spoiled by man's wicked devices, is not more logically demonstrated than is the thought that it is to be redeemed and brought up to God's ideal. Man's part in helping on this work is made plain. The whole book is full of instructive and inspiring teaching.

A volume of selections from the writings of Dr. Lyman Abbott is published under the title "New Streams in Old Channels."§ For versatility and breadth and independence of thought it is a marked production. With deeply spiritual insight the author penetrates far into the meaning of life and he presents his interpretations in most effective form.

* *Herald Sermons.* By George H. Hepworth. 251 pp. \$1.00. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company.

† *Master and Men.* By William Burnet Wright. 240 pp. \$1.25. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

‡ *God's World and Other Sermons.* By B. Fay Mills. 322 pp. \$1.25. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

§ *New Streams in Old Channels.* Edited by Mary Storrs Haynes. 307 pp. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company.

Among the best of the many good books which Dr. Miller has written is "The Building of Character."** The secrets which lead to successful issues in this work can be found by all who are thoroughly in earnest and as a help to such in their quest the volume is written.

A book especially for mothers, to be used in helping them to make plain and interesting and impressive to their children the vital truths of Christianity is "Home Talks About the Word."† Beautifully illustrated in word pictures, these lessons which make for immortality may be most plainly and powerfully imprinted on young hearts and minds.

Juveniles. A historical tale full of the life and movement which will excite the fancy and stir to patriotism the thoughts of its readers treats of Decatur and Somers.‡ The threads of history are deftly and attractively woven together by means of fiction which throws out in clear light the great achievements of these two distinguished naval commanders.

A stirring narrative of the Civil War on the Border,|| wholly free from partisan feeling, is the initial volume of the new series of "The Blue and the Gray," by the ever popular Oliver Optic.

The closing volume§ of the second series of "All-Over-the-World Library" takes the travelers from Alexandria to Cyprus and through the Suez Canal. There is much information given in conversational form concerning the places visited and the objects seen and a plenty of exciting incident and adventure.

An inspiring little book showing how some energetic young people were able to conquer circumstances and win success is "Mollie Miller,"¶ the name of its youthful heroine. The incidents are natural and the dialogue bright.

The mishaps of "Wee Lucy,"** her funny speeches, her occasional naughtinesses and general adorableness make a picture of child life that will be as interesting to grown-ups as to little folks. Mothers, too, may gain a hint as to wise and gentle methods of government.

A strong and tender little story showing how love conquers always and everywhere in life, is told in "The Little Lady of the Horse."††

* *The Building of Character.* By J. R. Miller, D.D. 273 pp. \$1.00. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell and Company.

† *Home Talks About the Word.* By Emily Huntington Miller. 286 pp. \$1.00. New York: Hunt and Eaton. Cincinnati: Cranston and Curtis.

‡ *Decatur and Somers.* By M. Elliott Seawell. 169 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

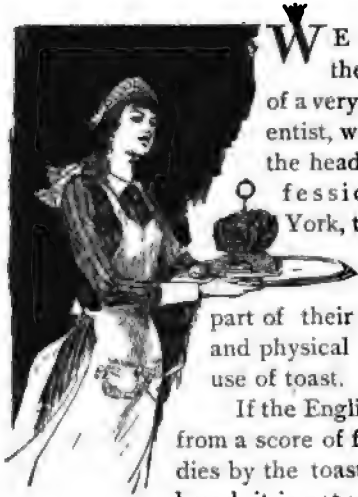
|| *Brother Against Brother.* By Oliver Optic. Illustrated. 451 pp. \$1.50.—§ *Asiatic Breezes, or Students on the Wing.* By Oliver Optic. 361 pp. \$1.25.—¶ *Mollie Miller.* By Effie W. Merriman. 285 pp. \$1.25.—** *Wee Lucy.* By Sophie May. 164 pp. 75 cts. Boston: Lee and Shepard.

†† *The Little Lady of the Horse.* By Evelyn Raymond. 276 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

SOME POTENT CURATIVES AND PREVENTIVES OF DISEASE.

CHAPTER I.—PREVENTIVES.

CONCERNING BREAD.



WE have it on the authority of a very eminent scientist, who stands at the head of his profession in New York, that our English friends owe a large part of their good health and physical vigor to the use of toast.

If the English are saved from a score of fearful maladies by the toasting of their bread, it is not unreasonable to believe that the people who will go a step further and make a bread which does not need to be toasted to prevent the germs injuring the family, are certainly more enlightened still.

It may be that the germ theory is too much discussed in this day and generation by people who know absolutely nothing of bacteriology; but, on the other hand, a certain degree of knowledge of the necessities of cleanliness in general, and food preparation in particular, is absolutely essential.

The aim in publishing these facts is to convince the reader that the hygienic making of bread is as easy in all its processes as the unhygienic, and to secure a little consideration for a subject as important as any matter can be which affects us in every-day life.

The newspapers publish every day or so paragraphs concerning the filthy condition of bakeries where the bread is made, and not for the poor only, but for the rich as well. Dough kneaded with the hands always runs the risk of contamination. The germs of cholera, typhoid and scarlet fever, for example, might be carried in this way easier than in most others. If the bakers of the country took the same precautions that the physician does in a surgical operation, the danger would be practically done away with; but, as a matter of fact, they are, as a class, less careful and infinitely less cleanly

in their work-rooms and buildings than many workers whose vocations do not place upon them any special sanitary responsibility.

Here is a paragraph from the *New York Evening Post* of January 2, 1895, which is apropos:

"The revelations of unclean methods in the bakeries of Chicago have led its civic federation to frame an ordinance for their regulation. It provides for the payment by bakers of an annual license fee, the object of which is to compel the Health Department to make regular inspections of the bakeries. If they are being conducted injuriously to the public health, no license shall issue. The ordinance will require semi-annual visits by the Health Department."

Bread which is wholesome should not be raised with yeast, but with a pure baking powder, which does its work while the loaf is in the oven and entirely eliminates the dangerous element of kneading with the hands. Dr. Cyrus Edson, who has studied the subject with the utmost care, says, referring to this point:

"It is well to sound a note of warning in this direction, or the change from the objectionable yeast to an impure baking pow-



der will be a case of jumping from the frying-pan into the fire.

"The best baking powder made is, as shown by analysis, the 'Royal.' It contains absolutely nothing but cream of tartar and soda, refined to a chemical purity which, when combined under the influence of heat

and moisture, produce carbonic acid gas, and, having done this, disappear. Its leavening strength has been found superior to other baking powders, and, as far as I know, it is the only powder which will raise large bread perfectly. Its use avoids the long period during which the yeast-made dough must stand in order that the starch may ferment, and there is also no kneading necessary."

Fortunately, all this discussion about the so-called "germ theory," but which is no longer a theory, has accomplished something; it has made people realize that what they put into their stomachs must be beyond question pure. Food is a poor thing to economize on, and of all foods bread, which is

the one article universally used, must be good.

The Royal Baking Powder has been endorsed by the highest authorities; but an endorsement a thousand



times more effective than the opinion of the most learned chemist is its successful use among all the intelligent people of this country, to practically the exclusion of any other baking powder. It is worth while for housewives interested in this matter—and every housekeeper must be concerned in it—to read an article by Dr. Cyrus Edson, Commissioner of Health, New York City, which was written for "The Doctor of Hygiene" on "Some Sanitary Aspects of Bread-making." This chapter in hygiene has been reprinted for popular circulation, and a copy will be sent by the Royal Baking Powder Company, 106 Wall Street, New York, to anyone asking for it, and the subject is certainly worthy of the careful attention of women whose duty it is to manage and prepare the family's food supply.

UNDERDRESSING FOR LADIES AND CHILDREN.

THAT pleasing phase of sanitary science which Thomas Carlyle was wont to term "the philosophy of clothes," comprises by itself an interest of primeval import to humanity. The vital aspect of this subject was first considered by the Greeks and Romans, where we find examples of attire, complete in every detail, which offended neither the laws of health nor the laws of beauty.

These standards of symmetry and comfort can never be attained, however, through years of torture and deformation by tight lacing, under whatever guise it comes. The body must be absolutely unhampered, that nerves, muscles and arteries may have full play, and the necessary supplies of animal heat may have constant and consistent generation.

As an article of underdressing the corset most forcibly exemplifies the fashion progress of an age of innovations. Every purpose of health may be promoted or retarded by this particular article of wearing apparel according to the wisdom or folly of its structure. Every one in the least familiar with the anatomy of the human system knows that under no circumstances can the fashionable frail waist be developed without artificial means. Any compression upon the lower ribs which brings about an unnatural tapering of the waist, must be the lasting injury of the internal organs and the eventual disorganizing of the entire system. The diaphragm contains no superfluous space, and in cases of tight lacing, the liver is dislodged from its normal position and the ribs actually driven into it. The heart is displaced, and respiration is of course impaired, for the lung space is largely encroached upon and the position of other vital organs also changed.

It remained for Messrs. Ferris Brothers, the enterprising manufacturers of the "Good Sense" Corset Waist, to inaugurate certain reforms and much needed improvements in this article of underdressing, and to produce a substitute that is at once symmetrical and healthful. Compare the Ferris "Good Sense" system with traditional monstrosities and the result is shown in a series of

improvements which indicates the wisdom of recent developments. The old idea seemed to decree the making or breaking of the feminine figure to the corset in current vogue, as though nature had given woman's form in the rough to be shaped to health and beauty as fashion's whim might command. Instances wherein nature has been outraged and comfort sacrificed to style would fill a modest library. Now, the aim of the proprietors and advocates of the ingenious "Good Sense" system is to have the Corset Waist so skillfully constructed that they shall conform to the natural beauty of the figure and with regard to the most approved rules of health.

These "Good Sense" Corset Waists are artistically arranged to meet the requirements of clothing and are so comfortably and skillfully corded into shape as to protect the loins, spine and stomach of their wearers against the pressure which retards growth and is so disastrous to health. The stocking supporters are attached to a patent ring buckle which is easily adjusted and holds securely all the weight of stockings and other garments. By means of these the weight of the lower clothing comes chiefly on the shoulders, where it properly belongs.

That ladies of culture and refinement have discarded the false standard of symmetry assumed for centuries at the cost of health and comfort, speaks volumes for our civilization. Mothers were the first to regard this subject from a sanitary standpoint. The little boys, dressed after the "Good Sense" plan, grow naturally into robust, healthful specimens of the genus homo. The weight of all garments, small and great, for children or adults, should rest on the shoulders. Upon the waist for little girls, supplemented by its triple row of patent buttons, should be fastened first the stocking supporters, next the drawers, then the short flannel underskirt, after which comes the muslin skirt, making the three dependencies and setting the example of wholesome apparel for all classes of feminine wearers, and secure to the growing child, as well as to the fully

developed adult, the unimpeded exercise of every organ and every muscle of the body, while in all healthful outdoor and indoor exercises such as lawn tennis, horseback riding, gymnastics, etc., they permit full expansion of the lungs and freedom of motion.

The Ferris system of "Good Sense" Corset Waists has met such a universal demand and grappled so successfully with the atrocities of former styles, that they can now be found in all the dry goods houses of America.

CLEANLINESS.

WHILE there are certain rules which may be safely laid down for the care and preservation of the skin, the intelligent student of health soon comes to the conclusion that no other organ demands more careful study than this one. The beauty of the skin depends upon health, while sound physical health is impossible unless the skin is in a condition to perform its various functions with strict integrity. It follows, therefore, that neglect to keep the skin in a good condition is simply neglect of a most important means for keeping the body in health.

Cleanliness is, therefore, imperative, for it is not possible to keep the millions of pores of the skin free and active without vigilance; and the compensation for care devoted to bathing is a bright, blooming skin, and a general sensation of vitality and power. The practice of frequent and systematic bathing is therefore to be commended for all.

For this purpose a good, pure, healthful soap should be kept constantly in the bath room and at the toilette. There is none better, purer, and more cleansing than Constantine's Pine Tar Soap. Its cleansing, healing, tonic properties keep the pores of the skin in their normal, healthy condition, and preserve the skin soft, smooth and white.

But the question has sometimes been asked whether the constant use of water and soap does not have the effect of destroying the natural oil of the skin, and rendering it harsh, colorless and unattractive. The answer to this question depends upon the temperature of the water, the care exercised in drying

the skin, and *above all things else* to the kind of soap used. There is no question but that many soaps used for toilette purposes, in the bath, and at the nursery, *do* injure the texture of the skin. Hence bath, toilette and nursery soaps should be selected with care. There is no safer and better soap for such purposes than Constantine's Pine Tar Soap, a pure, healthful soap that can be used with the utmost freedom. It is an old tar soap—indeed the *original* tar soap—and has been in use for many years as one of the purest, best, and most cleansing soaps made, and no person who uses it will ever be troubled with roughness of the cuticle, or dryness of the skin. It is one of the few soaps that can be used with perfect safety in the nursery on the sensitive skin of children, and on the soft silky fiber of the hair as a cleanser of the scalp and for the purpose of removing dandruff. Indeed, for shampooing purposes it is about the *only* soap that should be used, its pure cleansing properties and the medicinal effects of the tar, rendering it valuable in warding off diseases of the scalp and strengthening the roots of the hair. And not only is it beneficial to the *cleanliness* and *health* of the scalp, but also to the beauty and gloss of the hair itself.

As its name implies, it is a compound of pine tar and other medical properties, the result, it is said, of vegetable discoveries made by the natives of Africa and obtained

by the Rev. A. A. Constantine during the years of his missionary labors in that country.

As a soap for medicinal purposes the Glenn's Sulphur Soap is to be highly recommended. According to Dr. Hannon, sulphur possesses natural therapeutic properties as a stimulant to the circulation and to the skin. Sulphur washes are very effective in the cure of many forms of cutaneous diseases; and the beneficial results of sulphur baths are often astonishing in cases of sciatica, rheumatism, gout, etc.

The effects of a good sulphur soap in the bath are sometimes truly electrical, completely deodorizing offensive accumulations and thoroughly purifying the entire surface of the body. Glenn's Sulphur Soap has the advantage of being clean, inoffensive and noninjurious to clothing. It is a powerful deodorizer, disinfectant and counterirritant, yet entirely harmless. Hence it is a superior soap for bathing purposes, and we may also say as a toilet soap, especially in cutaneous eruptions and in cases of acne. For diseases of the skin bathe freely. For scalds and burns apply the lather freely to the affected parts, and the fire and pain will be relieved. For gout, rheumatism, sprains, bruises and cuts apply cloths well saturated with a strong solution. For old sores and ulcers it is invaluable. Use freely as a lotion. For a preventive in contagious diseases use a strong sud as a wash, externally.

CHAPTER II.—CURATIVES.

HOUSEHOLD REMEDIES.

ONE of the requisites of a home is a reliable remedy, always at hand for the many accidents, contusions, wounds, sprains, etc., liable to occur at any moment. Children are heedless in their play; cut their fingers, fall from a tree or out of the swing, stub their toes; they seem to be always in trouble. Then there are more serious complaints such as colds, which, neglected, may result in pneumonia or even consumption; sore throat, bleeding from the nose or other organs, congestion, sores, etc. It is not always

convenient or necessary to send for a physician. At such times one should have the necessary remedy at hand. No one remedy combines these qualifications so well as Pond's Extract. It is a ready and sure physician and will accomplish all it promises, if the directions for its use are carried out.

It is no "cure all," though it certainly has a very extensive range of action. The long list of ailments it relieves and removes all proceed from but few sources, and can be summed up in the words Inflammation and Hemorrhage.

The wonderful sympathy existing between Pond's Extract and the human organism is shown in the fact that whenever there is an inflamed condition, Pond's Extract arrests it at once and enables nature to do her work without interruption.

Then again, its marvelous power in stopping Hemorrhages has won for it the most grateful praise of thousands who have been cured, and many whose lives have been saved through its wonderful healing power.

One of the strongest recommendations this remedy can possibly have is that it can be used with the utmost safety on the most delicate parts of the human body.

No harsh drugs enter into its composition. It is entirely non-poisonous when taken internally or applied externally, and so pure it will not stain the most delicate fabric.

Those who really become acquainted with Pond's Extract are charmed with it, and it never loses its place in their estimation. The reader has only to inquire of any user of Pond's Extract to learn the truth of this representation.

Pond's Extract is particularly recommended for Burns, Wounds, Sores, Catarrh, Bleeding from the Lungs, Stomach and Womb, Piles, All Pain, Inflammation, etc.

These afflictions are common, troublesome and even dangerous, but the success of Pond's Extract in curing and immediately relieving them is strangely marvelous.

ELECTRICITY AND OXYGEN.

Two of the most potent curative agents known to-day in medical science are electricity and oxygen. We might almost say that the investigation of no branch of modern science has done as much as these two agents to make us aware of the great laws which underlie the transformations of energy. They seem to stand side by side like two mysterious servants ready to help in the great hospital of life. The study of these two potent curative agents by medical experts has led us to abandon one prejudice after another until to-day electricity and oxygen are universally acknowledged two of the most effectual agents in medical science.

One of the most recent discoveries and one that seems destined to work a new departure in the curing of disease is the Electropoise. The fundamental principles upon which it supports its system of treatment are : First, that impoverished and vitiated blood is the chief cause or invariable effect of disease, and that the blood must be first purified and then revitalized ; and second that the principal agent in this process of restoration to a normal, healthy condition, is oxygen.

The leading assumption is a well-established scientific fact, and the latter claim has been forcing itself irresistibly upon the attention of the investigators for some years past. The numerous oxygen inhalers which have sprung up show plainly that the value of this gas as a curative agent in various troubles has become widely recognized. Now nearly two-thirds of the vitality of our bodies is derived from the air, the rest coming as ordinary nourishment. In medicine all the work of assimilating a tonic or stimulant must be done by the stomach before any other organ can receive the benefit, and the stomach can bear only a small portion of the strengthening drug at a time, the supply of strength to a diseased organ being necessarily slow. But if the source of the other two-thirds of our vitality could be augmented *in like proportion*, greater benefit should result. Here oxygen inhalers in many forms have been tried, but they too impose the burden on a delicate organ, besides requiring constant replenishing of the chemicals used to generate the gas.

This is where the discovery of the Electropoise marks a new departure in the curing of disease. In reality, it combines two discoveries : first, that the human body in a polarized condition absorbs oxygen from the air through the pores of the skin ; second, the means to produce a proper polarization, viz., the instrument itself.

By the application of the Electropoise the oxygen is absorbed all over the body, laying no burden on any organ for its distribution, obtaining, without overtiring any part of the system, an adequate supply of the revivifying gas in pure form. This oxygen acts

on the blood in the capillary circulation of the skin exactly as it does in the capillary circulation of the lungs, clarifying the blood and giving to every part of the body all the strength it can possibly receive, without the slightest danger; thus supplying all the functions of the body whatever strength they require to throw off disease.

The *Electropoise* consists of a polarizer and a treating-plate, connected by a silk-covered tinsel cord. The polarizer is a copper cylinder filled with a composition, the nature of which is not made public. When this cylinder is lowered in temperature, and the treating-plate is applied to the patient the surface of the body becomes polarized, which causes the absorption of pure oxygen from the air into the vascular system, the rapidity and strength of the action being entirely under control. Thus it practically supplements the power of respiration, and the purified blood flowing to all portions of the body, has ever-renewed capacity for carrying off waste matter and impurities, and is able to strengthen and build up the diseased tissues.

The instrument comes in two sizes: the Wall and Pocket *Electropoise*. The former has a polarizer to be permanently buried in the earth; a wall attachment with a set of points and switches to regulate the oxygenation, and a device for procuring immunity from contagion in the treating room. The pocket instrument is so small that it can be held in the closed hand, and its polarizer is a nickel-plated cylinder which is reduced in temperature either by immersion in ice-water or by the application of a wet towel, the strength of the action depending on the temperature. Not the least of its merits is its simplicity of operation, since a moment suffices to put it on or off, and it can be used at any time when patient is not moving about. Moreover, the composition in the hermetically sealed cylinder is practically indestructible. There are to-day instruments in perfect working order which have been in constant use for six years—ever since they were put on the market—and there seems to be no reason why they should not last a couple of decades or longer.

The range of diseases which are recorded

as having been permanently cured by this means is really marvelous—or would be to one who does not admit the original proposition that practically all diseased conditions, if not too far advanced, are susceptible of cure through this replenishment of the powers of the blood. A large number of beneficiaries have been among the “helpless cases.” The alphabet of ailments is well represented in the testimonials, and a significant fact is the frequency of later letters, corroborating the first expressions of appreciation.

The idea of the instrument was the outcome of some thirty-five years’ experimenting on the part of the inventor. Before the patent was obtained the instruments were put to the most severe tests. Indeed the company which handles it owed its formation to a cure effected upon one of the principal promoters. During the epidemic of yellow fever at Jacksonville, in 1888, the owners of the *Electropoise* applied for permission to test the excellency of the invention in the hospitals, and when this was refused they published a request for volunteer patients, several being purposely taken where the disease was in an advanced stage. Out of ninety-one cases treated eighty-seven were entirely cured, and two of the deaths were due to imprudent exposure on the part of the patients. Not a dollar was asked or received for any treatment.

That trial stage, however, has been passed for five years, and the business of the Electrolibration Company, started in New York City less than a year ago, has grown from nothing a month up into the thousands, and is receiving and answering inquiries from all parts of the world regarding this wonderful little instrument.

PHOSPHATES.

CHEMISTRY is a science of an exceedingly complex nature, requiring infinite study to master its minute and numberless details. In early days it was widely studied, and in the Middle Ages became a mysterious art, seeking in the hands of the alchemist, to find the so called elixir of life, which was to be the universal remedy for all possible diseases, refresh-

ing the young, rejuvenating the old and even preventing death. But notwithstanding the false notions and preconceived ideas of the alchemists, we must yet acknowledge to them our debt for many a valuable discovery in their search for the philosopher's stone and the elixir of life. Sulphuric acid, nitric acid, phosphorus, and many another valuable compound or element, have been made known to us through their researches.

It is of Phosphorus, one of these early alchemist discoveries, that we wish particularly to speak, as a potent curative agent in the form of phosphates, the deficiency of which is a frequent source of ill health and retarded mental development. Phosphate of lime for instance, is not only a highly important nutritive principle, but also an indispensable element in the construction of all bodily tissues, very beneficial in imparting energy, and of especial benefit as a brain tonic. There is no difference of opinion among high medical authorities of the value of phosphates.

Some years ago Professor E. N. Horsford prepared in his laboratory at Cambridge, a liquid solution of the phosphates of lime, magnesia, potash and iron with phosphoric acid, named by him acid phosphate, as a remedy for the relief of mental and nervous exhaustion, and a general tonic and vitalizer for debilitated systems—a thoroughly scientific preparation that has received the highest medical commendation and is now prescribed in almost every physician's practice to afford nourishment to the cerebral and nervous systems and to give vigor and renewed strength to body and brain when deranged by overwork.

There are no substances that play a more important part in animal economy than the phosphates. Wherever there are functions that seemed to be suspended, we may be almost sure to find it occasioned by the want of phosphates. Professor Horsford's acid phosphate has been found wonderfully helpful in rapidly restoring this want in the system. Its value in the restoration of weakened energy and vitality is often wonderful. It acts as a nutriment to the cerebral and nervous system, restoring to their normal

condition secretory organs that have been deranged, giving vigor where there has been debility, and renewed strength where there has been exhaustion.

There is not a fiber of the human body that does not contain phosphate of lime. Many diseases, especially disorders of the nervous system, are now attributed to a diminution of this substance. Ordinary food contains elements to build up the *muscles*, but people who write, think, worry, watch by bed-sides, study much, have much responsibility, waste *nerves*, not muscles. Nervous exhaustion and break-down are very frequent among bankers, ministers, lawyers, school teachers, and all who use the brain more than the body. Every mental exertion induces an augmented waste of these phosphates. The Acid Phosphate supplies that waste and imparts new energy to the brain, giving the feeling and sense of increased intellectual power. Overworked women and men, the nervous, weak and debilitated, find in the Acid Phosphate a most agreeable, grateful and beneficial stimulant and tonic. Take half a teaspoonful in half a glass of hot or cold water, or tea without milk, during or after each meal, and on retiring. When weary, the simple rinsing of the mouth with a swallow of water to which a few drops of the Acid Phosphate have been added, will be found very refreshing.

If you are wakeful, five or six drops of Horsford's Acid Phosphate in half a glass of water, taken just before retiring, will in many cases give a dreamless and refreshing sleep.

In cases of dyspepsia Horsford's Acid Phosphate reaches various forms of this trouble that no other medicine seems to touch, assisting the weakened stomach and making the process of digestion natural and easy. This is explained in that the lining membrane of the stomach when in a normal condition, contains cells filled with the gastric juice, in which phosphoric acid combined with the phosphates is an important active principle. If the stomach is not supplied with the necessary gastric juice to incite or promote digestion, dyspepsia will follow with all its train of incident diseases. The only known acid

which can be taken into the stomach to promote digestion without injury, is phosphoric acid combined with lime, potash, iron, etc.

The excellency and wonderful popularity of this preparation has caused many substitutes to be offered, some of which often produce directly the opposite effect desired. Hence in obtaining a phosphate one should be careful to observe that the name Horsford is on the label.

CONSTIPATION.

CONSTIPATION is a very prevalent and general trouble, and when neglected or treated wrong it often becomes a chronic and most persistent disease. More than half the sickness in the world, especially among women, is caused by constipation.

A very excellent little book on constipation was issued recently by Dr. Thomas Beecham of England, explaining the causes of constipation and giving a few common sense rules for its treatment and cure. The last page of this excellent little pamphlet gives four simple rules worth remembering: (1) Drink plenty of water. (2) Eat plenty of solid and liquid digestible food; three simple but liberal meals a day. (3) Exercise. (4) Cause a regular evacuation of the bowels once a day.

These suggestions are worthy of comment. Let us take them up in order.

First, water:—People sometimes think they drink too *much* water. The trouble is they drink the wrong way. There is nothing worse than to wash one's food down half chewed with tea, coffee, milk and water. But there is no better help to digest food than plenty of pure water—say a glass full half an hour before meals, and again an hour afterward. The stomach needs plenty of water.

In eating two mistakes are common. The usual one is to eat too much; but people who think about themselves a good deal are apt to be too careful and eat too little. Eat plenty of solid and liquid digestible food, and three simple but liberal meals a day. Variety stimulates the digestion. This is why a varied diet is better than a monotonous one. Eat slowly and chew your food thoroughly.

Exercise a little every day. Take a brisk walk in the open air for not less than half an hour, morning and evening. A good *special* exercise for constipation is to knead the bowels gently but firmly about five min-

utes on going to bed at night and again on getting up in the morning.

But the *first* thing to do to cure constipation is to cause a thorough evacuation of the bowels once a day. In beginning, you have got to do this with physic. There are a great many kinds of physic, some of which do vastly more harm than good. You want a physic that will move the bowels as if the movement had come in the natural way. For this purpose there is no *better* physic than Beecham's Pills, a physic compounded by Dr. Beecham himself and the author of the excellent little book from which we quoted above. They purge without prostration or sickness or griping, and do not leave the stomach in a weakened and inactive condition as do most physics. Take them as a help in producing the regular daily evacuation and live by Dr. Beecham's four simple rules quoted above.

COLDS, COUGHS, HOARSENESS.

THE administration of medicinal preparations in the form of a lozenge, is of all modes the most eligible and convenient—more especially as regards a Cough Remedy. Medicines for Inflammation of the Bronchial Tubes or Lungs, are unlike others which are taken at stated intervals, being used only as the urgency of the symptoms demands. A lozenge, therefore, from its portability, its not being liable to change by keeping, its demulcent ingredients which lubricate the throat, and thus allaying the irritation induced by coughing, is infinitely to be preferred to either pills or draughts, more particularly, as in this case the remedy contains nothing deleterious, so that they may be taken as often as occasion requires. Brown's bronchial troches, or cough lozenges, allay irritation, which induces coughing, giving instant relief in Consumptive, Bronchial, and Asthmatic complaints.

Brown's Bronchial Troches were first introduced in the year 1850. It has been proved that they are the best article before the public for coughs, colds, bronchitis, asthma, catarrh, the hacking cough in consumption, and numerous affections of the throat, giving immediate relief.

Public speakers and singers can use them as freely as requisite—containing no opium or anything that can injure the system. They are invaluable in allaying the hoarseness and irritation incident to vocal exertion, and also a powerful auxiliary in the production of melodious enunciation, effectually clearing and strengthening the voice.



Does economy bore you?

It ought not to, always. Take the matter of washing with **Pearline**, for instance. That is a pleasant economy. There's your work made light and short for you; and while your doing it, in this easy, pleasant way, you can be thinking of the actual money that you're saving by not rubbing things to ruin, as in the old way.

That ought to be pleasant to think of, whether you're doing the work yourself, or having it done.

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Peddlers and some unscrupulous grocers will tell you "this is as good as" or "the same as **Pearline**." IT'S FALSE—**Pearline** is never peddled, and if your grocer sends you something in place of **Pearline**, be honest—send it back.

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THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

More than six hundred new members were enrolled in the Class of '98 during the month of January and nearly as many more are likely to join the class during the present month (February). Interest in the studies of the English year has been ex-

ceedingly well sustained and it is hoped that members of circles who have not yet joined but who have thus far done all the required work, will send their fees and claim their right to the membership book.

THE CHAUTAUQUA EXTENSION LECTURES.

Calls for the Chautauqua Extension Lecture Courses have been frequent during the past few weeks. Social Science, Browning, Medieval History and Art, and Greek Social Life are the four courses provided by this department. Browning students are enthusiastic over Professor Seaman's six charming lectures on the great poet. Professor Seaman treats his subject under six heads: I. Introductory. II. The Drama—Pippa Passes. III. Poems upon Love. - IV. Po-

ems upon Art. V. Religious Beliefs. VI. The Continuity of Existence. A reading club in Minnesota has been using the lectures for class work, reading and discussing the poems considered in connection with each lecture. Chautauqua Circles which can arrange for six Browning evenings aside from their regular work will find the lectures and syllabus of Professor Seaman a most fascinating guide to the poems of Mr. Browning.

SPECIAL C. L. S. C. COURSES.

The following books form the new Special Course in Sociology:

The study of Sociology.—Herbert Spencer. An Introduction to the Study of Society.—Small and Vincent.

An Introduction to Social Philosophy.—J. S. MacKenzie.

Socialism and Social Reform.—Richard T. Ely.

Special suggestions for the study of this course are furnished by the C. L. S. C. Office for a fee of fifty cents.

New Memoranda and Suggestions for the study of the Bible have also recently been prepared by a specialist and the many Chautauqua students who are interested in this subject will find the pamphlet of Suggestions a useful companion in their daily reading of the Scriptures.

The Special Course in *Current History and Opinion* has enrolled a large number of graduates. Many undergraduates also are taking this course in connection with their regular work.

REPORT OF "THE OUTLOOK," THE GIRLS' CLUB AT CHAUTAUQUA.

A full report of "The Outlook" Club at Chautauqua for 1894 has been printed in the October number of the Chautauqua Young Folks' Quarterly. The report gives the daily programme of the club for the entire season. It can be secured from the C.L.S.C. Office in Buffalo for fifteen cents, or the four

numbers of the Quarterly for the current year will be sent for twenty-five cents. The Quarterly contains reports of the Young Folks' Reading Union, Boys' Club, lists of good books for young people, etc.

Address John H. Vincent,
Buffalo, N. Y.

WALL MAPS FOR CHAUTAUQUA CIRCLES.

The Chautauqua Office at Buffalo has recently prepared a valuable Map of the British Isles which may be secured by any circle or individual reader for fifty cents. This is an outline map, printed in black and white on a blue background. The chief cities are indicated and circles can add any points of interest which they wish especially to remember.

The Office has also a map of Roman and Medieval Europe which will answer equally well for the study of Modern Europe, as it

is in outline only. This map is not printed on a blue background, but any circle can secure the desired effect by coloring the sea with blue water colors or a crayon pencil. Different periods of history can also be represented by having two maps and coloring one to show Europe as it is to-day and another showing the arrangement before the Napoleonic Wars. The price of either map is fifty cents. Both will be mailed for one dollar.

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I have used Pond's Extract for many years and always insist upon my patients getting "Pond's", not the ordinary Extract which is often a very poor article.

W. K. BROWN, M. D.

Philadelphia, Jan 9, '95.

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